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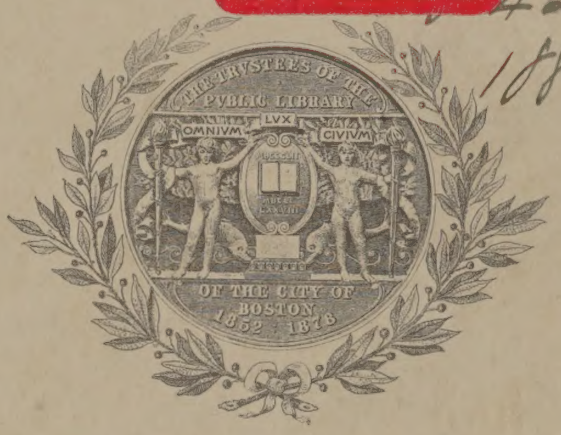

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ERRATA.

Page 36, col. ii, line 41. Omit "Rudolph Gneist."

Page 63, col. iii, line 40 from bottom. For "Seljukin" read "Seljukian." Line 22 from bottom. For "Commenos" read "Comnenos."

Page 171, col. iii, line 11. For "presence" read "preserve."

Page 239, col. i, line 37. Insert after *is* "one half of."

Page 275, col. iii, line 12 from bottom. For "Austrian" read "Hungarian."

Page 300, col. ii, line 38 from bottom. For "offices" read "officers."

Page 326, col. iii, line 1. For "Tree-ferns" read "Tree-forms."

Page 433, col. i, line 2 and *passim*. For "Gortcharoff" read "Gontcharoff."

Page 470, col. iii, line 31 from bottom. For "21st" read "23d."

Page 484, col. ii, line 28 from bottom. For "sixteen" read "328." Line 13 from bottom: for "thirteen" read "263." Line 3 from bottom: for "nine" read "169."

Page 484, col. iii, line 35. For "sixteen" read "315."

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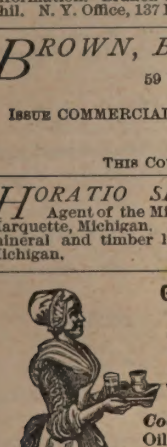

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 7, 1886.

The Week.

THE Boston *Journal*, while printing in full the speech of Senator Evarts at the Merchants' Association dinner, which was mainly occupied with the silver question, finds it "impossible to say whether he would vote for the repeal of the law providing for compulsory silver coinage." Not daunted by this difficulty, however, the *Journal* overhauls the report of the Paris Monetary Conference of 1881, and quotes two extracts from the speech made by Mr. Evarts in that meeting, which it thinks will suffice to answer the question which the distinguished orator failed to answer at the Boston dinner. After due and careful examination of both the Boston speech and the two extracts, we are unable to agree with the *Journal* that the deficiencies of the former are made good by the latter. We beg to remind that painstaking newspaper that it is one thing to favor international bi-metallism, and quite another thing to favor the repeal of the compulsory-coinage law. When, therefore, the *Journal* declares that a person who supports the former must necessarily hold "that this result is deferred rather than hastened by the continuance of compulsory silver coinage," it runs ahead of the orator and ahead of any known facts. Nearly all the supporters of the Bland-Allison Bill favored international bi-metallism. The first Paris Conference was authorized and called by the very bill which set the compulsory coinage going, and the second conference was authorized by the same party that authorized the first. So it is a *non-sequitur* to say that the supporters of international bi-metallism are in favor of repealing the Bland Act. The truth is that some of them are in favor of repeal and others not. Which class Mr. Evarts belongs to has not been made known by himself, although he occupied considerable time at Boston with the silver question.

At one point in his speech Mr. Evarts appeared to be on the very threshold and verge of declaring his opinions on the matter under discussion, but just as he had roused expectation to the highest pitch he disappeared in a cloud and made himself invisible, like an Eastern necromancer. The most that he could say that was intelligible was, that the question is to be decided by the nation and not merely by Congress, and that the nation is to act upon Congress by pressure on the one side and on the other. There is nothing so certain to secure results in Congress as pressure in cases where Congressmen do not know which side they are on. No law in physics can be relied upon with greater confidence. We should be inclined, therefore, to award to Mr. Evarts credit for a notable aphorism if he had told us which of the two sides was likely to develop the greater amount of pressure. If he had even told us on which of his own sides he felt the most pressure, we should have been wiser than we are. We suggest now that he make a speech and tell what his views really are on the silver question. Pressure is all very well in its way, but it should be borne in mind that there are many people who do not know on which side they ought to press, and that they look to Senators and Representatives in Congress to tell them. The Boston *Journal* hints that Mr. Evarts is holding back his views for delivery in the Senate, not wishing to anticipate himself by a premature announcement of them. This is quite possible, but, however lucid his exposition of them may then be, we shall still think that he has done himself an injustice by not contributing something beforehand to the pressure by which his vote is to be decided.

A few years since a tempest broke loose in the West and South on the head of the Secretary of the Interior in consequence of his endeavors to put a stop to depredations on the timber lands of the United States. Mr. Schurz was charged with every sort of infamy, including cruelty to women and children, because he had sent out a few special agents to report facts and to obtain evidence for the prosecution of the more unprincipled violators of the law. The Senate of the United States took up the matter, and several speeches were made in which the Secretary was denounced as a Prussian and a despot, as an oppressor of the widow and the fatherless, and as a tool of railroads and grasping monopolies. If he insisted that the laws were made to be enforced against individual woodcutters, he must have a private motive, and this could be no other than a desire to hold the Government timber for the eventual enrichment of soulless corporations. The spectacle presented, as a consequence of this endeavor to put a stop to a peculiarly injurious form of theft, was not an encouraging one to his successors in office, yet it is believed that some very valuable forests were saved from destruction, and that considerable money was turned into the Treasury that would otherwise have gone to swell the profits of lumber companies and railroad contractors. It was never proved that any widow was prevented from collecting dry twigs sufficient to boil her dinner, that being the dreadful apprehension of Senator Sargent, of California.

The same kind of a tempest has now broken on the head of Commissioner Sparks of the General Land Office. That glaring frauds have been and are daily committed under the homestead, preëmption, and timber-culture acts, involving millions of acres of land, and that these frauds militate against the actual settler more than against anybody else, has been matter of common notoriety for years. Yet so much has public attention been taken up with "forfeited land grants" to railroad companies that no effective action could be secured to protect the public domain against a far greater evil. Whatever may be said of forfeited or forfeitable land grants, none of them involve the crime of perjury. The facts upon which a railroad makes claim to land under act of Congress are open, patent, and cannot be concealed. They are triable before the Land Office and before the courts, and they are not so numerous that they cannot all be tried. Not so the fraudulent seizure of land under private entries. Here nearly everything depends upon the oath of the entrymen, and the cases are so numerous that only now and then can one of them be tried by way of sample. The result is that perjury has become the common method of acquiring title to the public lands, and the beneficent intentions of the homestead, preëmption, and timber-culture laws have been to a large extent frustrated and brought to naught. But this is not the worst. Numerous cases are reported where bona-fide settlers have been driven from their claims by fraudulent entries alongside of them, made by "cowboys" in behalf of cattle companies, cutting the settlers off from the water courses and isolating them from the society which they expected in time to collect about them.

Our wood-choppers must be protected. Their gallant efforts to cut down our remaining forests must be encouraged. We have given them a bounty of 20 per cent. as against the pauper woodchoppers of Canada, but that is not sufficient. The pauper bag-manufacturers of England are selling sugar sacks to the Cuban planters at such low rates that the Cuban demand for hogsheads has been cut down to a mere nothing, and the cooperage industry is crippled. Acting upon the grand theories of protection and the noble principle of asking Congress to do something whenever anything goes wrong in trade (for which we have so many valuable precedents), the hogshead makers have petitioned for a discriminating duty of one-quarter of a cent per pound on sugar imported in sacks, in order to compel the Cubans to buy our hogsheads. This is a fine idea. It is apparently borrowed from an old English statute which, in order to help the weavers in a period of depression, required that all corpses should be buried in woollen shrouds.

The prohibition in Mr. Edmunds's Utah bill of female suffrage in the Territory has brought him into collision with Mr. Hoar, who maintains that all women not "plural wives" ought to have the franchise, and points with pride to the results of female voting in Wyoming and Washington Territories. Mr. Edmunds offered a sort of compromise by promising to support the majority of women in any State or Territory in demanding the franchise; but, under this rule, should he not take the sense of the Utah women before abrogating the local law which has enfranchised them?

If any Republican in the country is qualified to speak with knowledge regarding the situation in the South, it is certainly ex-Gov. Daniel H. Chamberlain, of South Carolina, who discusses the present aspects of the Southern question with noteworthy candor in the January number of the *New Englander*. Mr. Chamberlain takes the somewhat unnecessary pains to expose the impossibility of curing the trouble by Senator Sherman's quack remedy, prescribed on the stump last fall, of reducing the basis of representation in those Southern States where

the Republicans do not poll as many votes as the party managers at the North think they ought to poll, and rightly concludes that there is no practicable constitutional remedy. He then points out—and it should be remembered that it is the Republican ex-Governor of a Southern State who says this—that "the evil in question is plainly the result of the want of intelligence, experience, and good judgment on the part of the class who are deprived of the right to vote, and of the race prejudice and political ambition of the class which inflicts the wrong, intensified and made reckless, in respect to the right to vote, by the insupportable corruption and maladministration of most of the Southern State Governments from 1868 to 1876." He confesses that such results as we now see at the South are inevitable "whenever in any community those who hold nearly all its property, intelligence, and experience in self-government are set against those who are for the most part without property, education, or experience of public affairs." Such being the case, the course for those who sincerely want to see a better state of things is, in his opinion, to "abandon all efforts to prolong, through party proclamations and appeals, a controversy which has resulted so disastrously to those in whose interest it has professedly been carried on," and to leave the problem to solve itself, through the progress of intelligence, as, by the admission of all, it is now doing. In short, the true policy, in Mr. Chamberlain's view, might be summed up in four words, "Furl the bloody shirt."

The Pacific Coast delegation in Congress has agreed upon a new anti-Chinese bill, which is intended to make it still more difficult than it is now for a Mongolian to surmount the wall of exclusion which has been built against his race. The San Francisco *News Letter*, however, does not think that the proposed changes would accomplish much, and says that "the home of the oppressed of all nations has got to erect many more barriers before it will succeed in keeping the little brown man out." Meanwhile there are some signs that public sentiment in California is beginning to revolt against the un-American warfare upon foreigners from China, which the worst foreigners from other nations have been thus far permitted to wage by native citizens. The editor of the San Francisco *Argonaut* tells the truth in such plain words as these:

"The refuse and sweepings of Europe, the ignorant, brutal, idle offscouring of civilization, meet weekly upon the sand-lot in San Francisco, to determine whether respectable, industrious foreign-born citizens and native-born Americans shall be permitted to treat Chinese humanely and employ them in business vocations, or unite with this idle and worthless foreign gang in driving them into the sea."

The inaugural address of Mayor O'Brien, of Boston, fully justifies the confidence of the Mugwumps whose votes gave him such a large majority last month. After referring to the great responsibility imposed upon the Mayor by the new charter, and remarking that if the Mayor employs this power to stop waste and extravagance, he makes determined enemies of men whose sole object is public plunder, he describes his own course during the past year and lays down his policy for the coming year in these plain words:

"Regardless of threats, regardless sometimes of adverse criticism from parties who do not understand the true facts, I have given no quarter the last year to any who have abused the trusts confided to them, and, with such an emphatic endorsement from my fellow-citizens, I feel encouraged to go on with the work. Political tricksters who have merely some selfish purpose to gratify, will receive no countenance from me, no matter what party they may be identified with for the time being."

Mr. O'Brien shows that he clearly understands the cause of bad city government when he says that "it is by yielding to these men, on account of the few votes that they control, that municipal governments, in all the large cities of the country, have become a synonym for waste and extravagance and corruption"; and he points out the only way to secure reform, in this admirable passage:

"If political parties put unscrupulous men to the front, they ought to be voted down. If political parties make combinations with men whose morality and integrity are questionable, such combinations should be discouraged and discountenanced by every good citizen. If no quarter is given to men who have no moral principle behind them, who connect themselves with leading parties merely for plunder, they will soon be stamped out, and the business of the city will be conducted, like any other large corporation, on business principles."

The Democratic papers which felt so sure a few weeks ago that Mugwumpism was stamped out, are invited to study with attention these words of Boston's Democratic Mayor.

We find in the Boston *Herald* some remarks addressed to General Butler in reference to the alleged shortage in his accounts with the National Soldiers' Home, which are so pertinent that an early and specific response from him appears to be in order. The *Herald* alludes to the fact that the Military Committee of Congress reports a shortage in the accounts of $200,000 in bonds and $21,000 in cash, and thus comments:

"General Butler is getting along in years, and whether we consider him or the Soldiers' Home, a part of whose endowment seems to have disappeared, there is a demand for prompt action. General Butler has testified before a Congressional committee that he kept some of the accounts of the Home with his own private accounts, and appears to have profited by holding large balances belonging to the Home; and the question now is whether he abstracted the funds of this worthy institution and used them for his own benefit. We should be sorry to believe that a man credited with large wealth would yield to such a temptation, however much he might love money, and General Butler, who seems to have no political purpose to serve at present, cannot afford to live under the imputation of theft, especially theft of this particularly infamous character. Let us have the question settled in the courts."

This is very disagreeable talk for the General to hear from a newspaper which is printed in the city where he lives, and which is the most widely read journal in the State of which he was a few years ago the Governor. As the lifelong friend of the soldier, as the avowed champion of the laboring man, and as only a year ago the candidate of the People's party for the Presidency, he cannot afford to remain quiet under a direct intimation that he has stolen money from soldiers, and, what is much worse, disabled soldiers. By all means let him take the matter into the courts.

The *Evening Post* prints an article, translated from the Berlin *Nation*, on the general fall of prices of which the whole civilized world is complaining, and we commend it cordially to the attention of those who think that it is possible to put prices up by some piece of fancy legislation. It is not scarcity of gold or silver, or any other form of currency, which is making things cheap. Money in any form is not scarce. It is abundant, and can be had at low rates by any one who thinks he can employ it profitably. Gold is not scarce, and cannot, in the nature of things, be monopolized by any one country. Whatever is the currency of the civilized world, wherever it may be, lies at the order of any nation which is in unusual need of it. No matter in what treasury or bank gold may be, any country which wants it can have it by lowering the prices of the commodities it has for sale. In fact, gold goes around the world, like the "ocean tramps," in perpetual search for a good market. It never rests or stagnates anywhere. Any community can have it by offering to sell cheaper than its neighbors. Moreover, there is little or no prospect that we are going to see again what we used ten or fifteen years ago to consider high prices. The chances are that we are now passing through a period which ten years hence will be considered by those who look back a period of high prices. The means of transportation and of communication have been so much improved, and are improving so rapidly, that whenever in any corner of the globe signs of dearness or scarcity in any commodity show themselves, it is speedily deluged with supplies from every other corner. The gradual disappearance of the great commission houses in every country illustrates the cheapening process as well as anything. Formerly foreign trade was almost entirely carried on by these houses. Dealers in other countries relied wholly on them for their information about the home market, and sold their goods through them. Now every dealer learns all he wants to know about foreign markets by telegraph, and makes his offer directly by the same medium, so that transactions which used to take from three to six months are arranged in an hour or two.

In fact, dearness, that is, difficulty in procuring the good things of this life, and above all the kindly fruits of the earth, is being rapidly hunted out of the world by civilization. Every discovery, every invention, cheapens first one thing, and then and in some degree all others. There is no use in trying to stem the tide by playing tricks with currency, or piling up high tariffs. These are only the temporary expedients at best. The volume of supplies which human industry now creates every year is too great to be long stayed by any dam that any one nation can construct. The grain and cotton trade, which we commented on a week ago, illustrate this admirably. The monopoly which we enjoyed in these things is clean gone, and it is gone because steam and the advance of order have opened up vast fertile regions which were fifty or even twenty years ago, for all practical purposes, as far from the great markets of the world as if they were in the moon. And yet we are only beginning to tap the new sources of supply. We are getting from India only a fraction of the quantities of cotton, wheat, tea, and coffee which she will probably turn out in ten years from now. The same thing may be said with regard to other commodities, of South America, of our own great Northwest, of New

Guinea, and above all, of Central Africa. The productiveness of all these vast regions is simply a question of railroads and soldiers to keep order. The notion that we can save ourselves from them by "poor man's money," or scarcity patents like the tariff, is simply an immense hallucination. The cheapening process is one which has been going on, now slowly, now rapidly, ever since the western world began to recover from the fall of the Roman Empire, and it will continue to go on until the human race has exhausted its powers of extracting sustenance and comfort from the earth. We shall of course every now and then have a good deal of squealing over it from various sects of economists and socialists, who think they can now and then get the better of nature by acts of Congress; but, like the squealing we are now listening to, it will pass. Nature has in her time disposed of a great many cranks and visionaries, as well as of a great many types and species, and to her they may be safely left.

Interesting evidence that the average length of human life has been steadily increasing for some time past is deduced from a comparison of the ages at death of Yale College graduates early in the eighteenth century and late in the nineteenth. Mr. Dexter's recent volume on the annals of that institution from 1701 to 1745 shows that of 473 graduates during that period 153 lived beyond 70 years—that is to say, 32 out of every 100. On the other hand, of 672 alumni whose deaths were reported between 1875 and 1885, there were 271 who had passed their seventieth year—or 40 out of every 100. To put it in another way, during the first half of the eighteenth century a graduate stood only 32 chances out of 100 of becoming a septuagenarian, while in the last quarter of the nineteenth century he stands 40 chances out of 100 of reaching that age. The gain in longevity is naturally greatest among educated men familiar with the laws of hygiene, but this showing is hardly more striking than that recently made in England of the extent to which the average of human life has been prolonged within the past forty years.

The action of the Virginia Legislature on Saturday will relieve Northern Republicans of one apprehension aroused by the victory of the Democrats in the November election. It will be remembered that the Republican Convention in Virginia last July adopted a resolution in favor of generous appropriations by the Legislature for pensions to disabled rebel soldiers. This became one of the chief issues in the canvass. The Richmond *Whig*, the Republican organ, insisted that the only way for the voters to insure such pensions was to elect a Republican Legislature, and it appealed to the record in support of this claim. It declared that "it was the Bourbon usurpers who killed the bill in the last General Assembly to appropriate $10,000 to aid in establishing the home for Confederate veterans," while "the Republicans did their best to pass it;" and it recalled the damning fact that at the extra session in 1884 "Mr. Hazlewood, Republican, introduced a bill to appropriate $65,000 for the relief of enrolled and certified disabled soldiers of Virginia, and the Bourbon usurpers killed it." The pledge of the Democratic Convention to remember the faithful Confederate soldiers was denounced as unworthy of belief when made by a party with such a record. The overwhelming victory of the Democrats must have aroused the keenest apprehensions regarding the fate of these rebel soldiers, and the Republican organs have been fully prepared to denounce the successful Bourbons for their expected infidelity to the Confederate cause. But the organs are not to enjoy the satisfaction of saying "I told you so." The Democrats have really turned over a new leaf, and a bill was passed on Saturday which makes as liberal an appropriation for the relief of disabled soldiers as could have been expected if the other party had been in the majority. But the organs have one consolation left—they can at least "point with pride" to the adoption of the policy of pensioning rebel soldiers by the Virginia Democrats as only another illustration of their claim that Democrats everywhere are always imitating Republicans.

The beginning of the American opera season on Monday evening was an event of national importance, and we are glad to see that it is so generally recognized as such by the press of the city. The artistic merits of the performance are considered elsewhere in these columns. The projectors of the undertaking gave an admirable proof of the sincerity of their purpose in the character of their first night's work. There was no clap-trap and no attempt to score a cheap "popular" success. The management had other works in their repertory much more likely to make a "hit" than the one chosen, but they wisely preferred to set their standard first and then show the resources of their company afterward. They are aiming to found an American school of music, not simply to make money out of a season of opera, and they are evidently convinced that the best way to succeed is to avoid spread-eagleism and do simple, earnest, and thorough work. They have shown at the outset that America can furnish a conductor, an orchestra, and a chorus second to none in the world, and that is surely a firm foundation upon which to build. They are confident of showing within the next few weeks that America can furnish solo artists, also, who will not fall far short of this high standard. Whatever the measure of their success, the patriotic character of their endeavors entitles them to the heartiest public support and coöperation.

The *Christian Intelligencer* says: "The sensation of the year has been the revelation by the *Pall Mall Gazette* of moral rottenness among the upper classes of English society." A Christian intelligencer ought not to make such statements, especially in the last week of the year. There is no truth in this one. The *Pall Mall Gazette* has made no such revelations. There may be moral rottenness among the upper classes of English society, but the *Christian Intelligencer* knows no more on the subject this year than it knew last year. But it is true that the *Pall Mall Gazette* did make "a sensation" by the publication of some stories of extraordinary indecency.

The reported Conservative scheme of local government for Ireland, consisting of County Boards and a "Central Council," will probably fail disastrously from the outset, for the simple reason that no representative bodies can be made to work without the approval and support of their constituencies, and the Irish will now accept nothing which cannot be called a "Parliament"—that is, which will not have more extensive authority than will be bestowed on a "Central Council." In fact, it is interesting, though melancholy, to see how faithfully Englishmen are following the old lines in dealing with this new and most serious Irish crisis. First, there is the scoffing, abusive stage; then the furious, coercive stage, both of which have been passed in this case. Then comes the stage of considering whether there is not something reasonable in the Irish demands, followed by a small offer, that is, an offer of all that the most anti-Irish Englishmen can be got to agree to. This the Irish accept, but only as an instalment, and keep up the row. Then come savage denunciations by the English press and orators of Irish "ingratitude," accompanied by magazine inquiries into the nature and origin of Irish ingratitude, and its connection with Celtic blood, and then after awhile all begins over again. The argument behind Parnell, which works while he sleeps, and which every day makes greater inroads into the English mind is, "How does an Ireland like the present one contribute to the strength and unity of the Empire?"

M. Leroy-Beaulieu has been raising a great outcry in the *Économiste Français* over the responsibility towards savings-bank depositors incurred by the French Government. The Treasury takes charge of all the funds of the banks, and guarantees 3½ per cent. on them. It holds now the enormous sum of $444,800,000, all of it, of course, payable on demand. It is estimated that not over one-half of these deposits belong to poor persons. The other half belongs to shopkeepers in good circumstances, who, in order to get over the law limiting deposits to $400 for each person, will often have a book for each member of the family in both the ordinary and postal savings banks, and in savings banks in different localities, so that their united claims will sometimes amount to $4,000, $5,000, or $6,000, all of which they can call for at any moment, and on all of which they receive a higher interest than any other demand loan on equally good security will bring. Attempts have often been made to get this interest reduced, but they have always failed before the fear of offending the working classes in the large towns. This demagogy is now producing its natural result. It has burdened the Government with an immense floating debt, a large part of which might be called for peremptorily at some serious crisis in national affairs, and compel once more a suspension of payments as in 1848. M. Leroy-Beaulieu finds in the Treasury practice of treating the deposits as cash on hand an evil almost as great, because it constitutes a resource outside the regular budget which is constantly tempting the Finance Minister into small extravagances.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, December 30, 1885, to TUESDAY, January 5, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

CONGRESS reassembled on Tuesday. Senator Beck, rising to a personal explanation in the Senate on Tuesday afternoon, said he had made no attack on the President as regards the silver question. All he opposed was the policy of locking up so much money in the Treasury. He said then, and he was not sure that he did not believe now, that if a cyclone came and scattered all this money to the winds of heaven and the people gathered it up again, it would be better than the present policy. That was all he meant

Contrary to expectation, Speaker Carlisle did not announce his committees in the House on Tuesday.

The bill introduced in Congress proposing to allot the lands in severalty to the Indians in the Indian Territory and open up the country to settlement, is creating much excitement among the Cherokees. The opposition to alienating any lands belonging to the Cherokee Nation is intense. Their National Council has adopted resolutions declaring: "That the United States has not now and never has had any right to appraise, take, or purchase any unoccupied portion of these lands, or to appraise any occupied portion or acquire any right therein, save by and with the consent of the Cherokee Council of the Nation."

When the Sub-Treasury in this city opened for business on Saturday morning, Mr. C. N. Jordan, the Treasurer of the United States, was present to take charge of the office. Mr. Acton refused, however, to turn over the office to him, upon the ground that he should be exposing his bondsmen to loss until he could turn over the office to an officer appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate. For an hour no business was done, the vaults being under seals placed there on Thursday by Mr. Jordan. At 11 o'clock Mr. Jordan, as Treasurer of the United States, took the responsibility of breaking the seals and beginning business. Mr. Acton made no objection, and Mr. Jordan took control.

It is believed that the President will nominate ex-Comptroller Andrew H. Green to be Assistant Treasurer of the United States in this city.

Mr. Valentine P. Snyder, who had been advanced through several positions in the Treasury Department, was on Wednesday appointed Deputy Comptroller of the Currency in place of J. S. Langworthy, resigned.

Secretary Manning gave another proof on Saturday of his adherence to the reformed civil-service system. The case of Owen Kellar, of Ohio, whose appointment as clerk after a successful civil-service examination Auditor Chenoweth and Congressman A. J. Warner, of Ohio, tried to prevent, will be remembered. Mr. Kellar was on Saturday appointed a permanent clerk, having served satisfactorily through the six months of the probationary period.

Mr. Cannon, Comptroller of the Currency, intends to accept one of the eligible offers that have been made to him to go into the banking business in New York. He may not retire for some months, and it has been intimated that the Administration would be glad to retain his services. Probably he will wait until the silver discussion has taken shape in Congress, and until Secretary Manning has had ample time to select a competent successor.

The boycotting of Democratic fourth-class postmasters is reported at the Post-office Department to be increasing. Citizens in some places refuse to mail letters or to purchase stamps at the home offices, and thus reduce the compensation of postmasters. The number of offices under a boycott of this kind is said to have reached 300.

The croakers will find it difficult to believe that under the administration of the Civil Service Act a colored man has secured admission to the Post-office Department. John T. Morton, of Arkansas, however, who was recently notified by the First Assistant Postmaster-General that he had been selected for appointment as a $1,000 clerk, proves to be a colored man. His papers showed that in the examination he had been graded 73, and was a school teacher. Nothing more was known about him; his race was unknown. The Revising Board of the Civil-Service Commission had no knowledge of the applicant, except what appeared upon the record.

The United States Supreme Court has dismissed the appeal of Paymaster-General Smith, holding that an officer of the army or navy may be tried by court-martial for actions which are demoralizing in their nature or tend to bring the service into disrepute, though such actions may have no direct connection with the military duties of the defendant as an officer of the army or navy.

The Court of *Alabama* Claims adjourned *sine die* on Thursday. On the previous day it completed its final lists of awards in the war-premium cases, signed them, and made formal delivery of them to the Secretary of State, who is required by law to certify them to the Secretary of the Treasury for payment *pro rata*. The exact amount found due was $10,705,371 43. The interest added raises the amount to over $16,000,000, but this has only been calculated in order to comply with the strict letter of the law; nobody expects to get a cent of interest, and not much more than 50 per cent. of the principal. The total expenses of the court will amount to about $400,000. This includes over $150,000 for printing, etc., made obligatory by the law, and a like amount for the services of special counsel in all parts of the world where testimony has had to be taken. The expenses of the previous Court of *Alabama* Claims, which had only one class of claims to deal with—those covered by the Geneva award—and the aggregate of whose business was less than one-fourth of that of the present court, were $254,000.

Governor Hill's inauguration at Albany on Friday was conducted with great ceremony. He was escorted from the Executive Mansion to the Capitol by a long procession. Judge Learned administered the oath of office, and the Governor then made a long speech, closing by promising to be as much a reformer as Governor Tilden was.

The canvass for the Speakership of the New York Assembly practically closed on Sunday in favor of General Husted, and at 11 o'clock on Monday forenoon the surrender of the Erwin camp was formally made. Early in the morning Mr. Erwin's friends held a conference, and, after looking the situation in the face, decided to give up the contest. Mr. Arnold, of Otsego, one of Erwin's chief workers, was delegated to go to General Husted bearing the white flag. This mission Mr. Arnold accomplished successfully. Erwin entered his canvass for reëlection as Speaker with popular sentiment in his party opposed to him by reason of his action as Speaker last winter. In addition to this, for some ulterior reason, he had against him one of the strongest arrays of party managers that has been seen in Albany for years.

Both branches of the Legislature met at noon on Tuesday, and organized by the election of the caucus candidates—Mr. Pitts for President pro tem. of the Senate, and Mr. Husted for Speaker of the Assembly. The Governor's message was received and read. The most significant thing about his utterances is that even he feels the necessity of commending the work of civil-service reform and urging its continuance. He takes practically the same ground this year as last in favor of municipal reform in New York, urging the wisdom of giving the city the power of self-government, and pledging his coöperation for all genuine reform measures. He utters the usual commonplaces about industrial interests, and throws a sop to the "labor vote" by saying that the Legislature "should generously favor whatever concerns the welfare of the toiling masses." On the prison-labor question he has nothing new to say. He recommends the abolition of the Board of Regents, as being the regents of a university which has in fact no existence, and the transfer of their powers and duties to the Department of Public Instruction; the abolition of the Board of State Charities and the creation in its stead of a single Commissioner of Charities; and the abolition of the State Board of Health and the substitution for it of a single Health Commissioner. The first public appearance of Lieutenant-Governor Jones and Secretary Cook, the former in presiding over the Senate, the latter by delivering the oath to members of the Assembly, is generally commended. Mr. Jones's address was conservative and in good taste.

Mr. Frederick Cook, the new Secretary of State, and Comptroller Chapin on Friday awarded the legislative printing to the Albany *Argus* Company.

The new Board of Aldermen of this city was organized on Monday and received the message of Mayor Grace. The Mayor says that it is doubtless true that the cost of the government of the city of New York is in excess of what it should be: one cause for this is alluded to in the question of legislative interference which the Mayor discusses. But that New York is misgoverned to anything like the extent claimed by the Council of Reform, is not true and cannot be maintained. The Mayor considers that the Park Department has done well and made a fair showing.

Among the articles of incorporation filed with the Secretary of State at Albany on Monday was that of the American Pasteur Institute of New York City. The objects of the Institute are the gratuitous care and treatment by the Pasteur system of inoculation, or such variations thereof and improvements thereon as science may develop.

Ohio Republicans say that before the election for United States Senator in that State it is the intention to unseat the Democratic delegation from Cincinnati in the House, which will give the Republicans a working majority on joint ballot. The plan of the Sherman managers is to postpone the Senatorial election until this can be done. Otherwise the majority would be so small as to make a combination against him possible.

The Connecticut Supreme Court has decided that Yale students who are residents of New Haven only as students cannot vote there.

Major Kellogg, with a detachment of United States troops from Fort Ringgold, on December 29 routed a large band of Mexican revolutionists from the State of Tamaulipas who were occupying an island on the Rio Grande River near Rome, Texas, which belongs to the United States. The revolutionists crossed over to the Mexican bank of the river, and, under cover of darkness, took possession of the famous neutral island which has caused so much contention between the United States and Mexico.

The Lancaster National Bank, of Clinton, Mass., has closed its doors pending an investigation. The President, William H. McNeil, it is reported, has fled to Canada. The institution has been placed in the hands of the Bank Examiner. His investigation so far indicates that McNeil is an embezzler to the amount of about $100,000.

A fire in Detroit on Friday destroyed the immense seed warehouse of D. M. Ferry & Co., White's Theatre, and several buildings belonging to the estate of E. A. Brush. The total loss is more than $1,000,000, the greater part of which falls on D. M. Ferry & Co.

John B. Raymond, ex-Delegate to the Forty-eighth Congress from Dakota, died on Sunday at the age of forty-one.

Professor Charles E. Hamlin, of the Harvard Museum of Natural History, died at his home in Cambridge, Mass., on Sunday, of

pneumonia. He was sixty years of age, and was graduated from Waterville College when twenty-three years old. He was Professor of Natural Sciences in Waterville until about fifteen years ago, when he was called to the Harvard Museum of Natural History. In that department he was one of the best informed men in the country.

N. D. Wendell, who was elected Treasurer of this State on the Republican ticket in 1879, died suddenly at Albany on Tuesday. He was fifty years of age.

J. B. Lippincott, of Philadelphia, the well-known publisher, died on Tuesday.

FOREIGN.

Mr. George Otto Trevelyan, formerly Chief Secretary for Ireland, made a speech at Stratford on Wednesday evening. He said that there could be no half way between the complete separation of Ireland and absolute imperial control. Unless it was intended to keep the care of the law and order in the hands of the Central Government it would be better to repeal the Union Act. He condemned the proposition to give Ireland a Parliament and at the same time allow Irish members in the English Parliament. Mr. Trevelyan said that he was willing that a fairly elected Irish Council should be given the control of education, public works, and the poor laws, and that additional money be raised by taxation if more than the Exchequer supplied should be required.

Earl Cowper, who was Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland from May 5, 1880, until April 28, 1882, under Mr. Gladstone's Administration, has written to the London *Times* in regard to the Irish question. Earl Cowper says: "Home rule, for its own sake, is not desired by the Irish. Any one can see by a perusal of the Irish newspapers published during my own term of office in Ireland that they do not reveal a single mention of the home-rule scheme, but are solely involved in discussing the question of rents. The late Mr. Isaac Butt, who may be called the originator of the national and home-rule movement, and Mr. William Shaw, ex-member of Parliament for the city of Limerick, who was a member of the Home Rule League, but withdrew from that body in December, 1881, failed to attach the Irish people to their schemes, and Mr. Parnell will meet with the same fate, except in an appeal to their pockets. The strike against the payment of rent will soon be a bigger difficulty for the Government to deal with than was ever the home-rule question, and must eventually interfere with imperial interests."

Michael Davitt, in a recent interview, said: "If home rule is granted to Ireland, it is difficult for me to see how the Irish members can continue to sit in the Parliament at Westminster, unless the colonies are similarly represented in that body. The appointment of a prince of the royal family as Viceroy of Ireland would be a mistake, as Ireland requires a statesman of tact and brains to administer the Government, not a royal show."

The *Pall Mall Gazette* on Saturday said it was able to announce that Mr. Gladstone was ready to entertain a feasible proposal from the Marquis of Salisbury to concert jointly for a settlement of the home-rule question. The *Gazette* urged a coalition of the Liberals and Conservatives to deal with the subject.

Lord Randolph Churchill has submitted to the Cabinet a proposition for the reform of the administration of the Government in Ireland. The scheme is supported by the Earl of Carnarvon, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and by Baron Ashbourne, the Lord Chancellor. The project involves abolition of the viceroyalty and the Castle Executive, and the placing of Ireland on the same footing as Scotland, having a Secretary in the Cabinet. If the Cabinet adopts the measure, it will be presented to Parliament, together with the scheme for local government which has already been decided upon.

The Conservative local government measure to be laid before Parliament as drafted gives to Ireland a household franchise for electing county boards and for electing a central council. The proposition that the Crown should have the right to nominate a part of the council was abandoned. The measure also provides that the county boards shall have control of the traffic in liquor, and that the central council shall have a voice in appointing the magistracy. Parliament will meet on January 21.

Mr. Ruskin writes to the *Pall Mall Gazette* on the Irish question, "Would it not be well to take some account of the following uneradicable virtues of the Irish race in our schemes for their management? First, they are an artistic people, and can design beautiful things and execute them with indefatigable industry. Secondly, they are a witty people, and can by no means be governed by witless ones. Thirdly, they are an affectionate people, and can by no means be governed on scientific principles by heartless persons."

Frederick Harrison, in the annual address before the Positivist Society in England, said that the British Constitution since the franchise had been more democratic than the Constitutions of France and America, with less real reserve power. The Government had become the committee of a huge democratic club called the Commons. There was urgent need to form public opinion independent of politics and Parliament. Positivists favored a national government for Ireland, with legislative and executive power, but he trusted that the latter would not be purely democratic.

A proclamation was on Friday issued in England and India formally annexing Burmah to the British Empire. England cedes to China part of Upper Burmah, in order to make the Chinese and Indian frontiers contiguous.

General Prendergast, commander of the British expedition in Burmah, has arrived with his forces at Bhamo, 150 miles north of Mandalay, and met with a cordial reception from the Burmese and Chinese merchants. A strong British force will garrison Bhamo.

The minor Shan States have formed a coalition and are threatening to occupy Upper Burmah. Six hundred British troops have been despatched to that part of the country to suppress any such movement.

A report was current in London on Sunday that a number of fanatical followers of the Mahdi had penetrated the British lines at Suakim and attacked the soldiers in the streets of the town. It is stated that furious fighting ensued, in which a number of the English were killed or wounded. The Government, it is said, has suppressed the report of the affair, of which no further particulars have transpired.

British men-of-war have been ordered to blockade the coast of Egypt from Massowah to Suez in order to prevent the importation of arms and ammunition into the Sudan for the Arab rebels.

A despatch from Koyeh, on Wednesday, says: "Lieutenant-General Stephenson, commander of the British forces in Egypt, who recently arrived here with large reinforcements, attacked the rebels who had been menacing the garrison for several weeks. A three hours' fight ensued, resulting in the British troops capturing a village near Koyeh. The rebels were completely routed. The cavalry pursued the enemy. Two guns and twenty banners were captured. The English lost one officer killed and twenty-one men wounded. The Egyptian allies of the British lost six killed and thirteen wounded." The Arabs are estimated to have lost 600 men. They are reported to be flying in the direction of Dongola.

Henry M. Stanley does not believe that Bishop Hannington, the missionary seized by the King of Mombasa, in central Africa, has been put to death. The chief danger, he says, lies in the ambition of the whites.

The Walt Whitman fund in London amounts to £115.

The twenty-fifth anniversary of the accession of Emperor William to the throne of Prussia was celebrated quietly in Berlin on Sunday. The Emperor held a reception, which was attended by all the foreign ambassadors and diplomats in the city. In his conversations with the foreign representatives the Emperor avoided making political allusions. The Emperor gave an especially warm welcome to Prince Bismarck and Count von Moltke, and to General Viscount Wolseley, the representative of Queen Victoria. The Emperor stood throughout the reception. The city was gayly decorated with bunting during the day, and was illuminated in the evening.

Arrangements are in progress for a meeting of the Emperor of Germany, the Emperor of Austria, and the Czar during the manœuvres of the Austrian army in Galicia the coming summer.

The death is announced of Professor Johannes Minckwitz, the historian and poet. Professor Minckwitz was born in 1812 and had been Professor at the Leipzig University since 1861. He wrote a text-book on German versification, of which six editions have appeared. He was a well-known translator, wrote some original poetry, and edited the literary remains of Platen.

There is a wide breach between M. Brisson and President Grévy. It is rumored that the former has written to the latter refusing to lend himself any longer to a combination the object of which is to impose upon him lasting discredit. M. de Freycinet has not yet succeeded in forming a new ministry, but from present appearances it will contain most of the members of the Brisson Ministry. He has secured the support of the Radicals for his programme.

The treaty of peace between France and Madagascar, it is reported, cedes territory to France, surrenders the northwest ports which France originally claimed, and gives the French Government supremacy over the foreign relations of Madagascar.

Pasteur has undertaken at his own cost to cure eleven people who have been bitten by a mad wolf in western Russia.

An agreement has been arrived at between Madjid Pasha, the special envoy of Turkey, and Prince Alexander respecting the union of Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia. It has received the concurrence of the Powers.

The Balkan Conference at Constantinople has been abandoned, Russia refusing to guarantee the independence of the union of Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia.

A band of Spanish Republican revolutionists made an attempt on Friday to destroy a railway bridge in the Sierra Morena Mountains. Five members of the band were arrested.

Orangemen and Irishmen have resumed hostilities in Conception Bay, Newfoundland. An Orange mob recently attacked two of the released Riverhead prisoners at Courages Beach, wounding them fatally. There is great excitement in Harbor Grace, and a riot is anticipated.

At Matamoras, Mexico, on Saturday, the defeated candidate for Mayor, Torres, took possession of the town with a mob of supporters, and prevented the candidate who had been declared elected by the State Congress from taking his office. In the afternoon the mob fired on the Chief of Police. The city is still without any legal government.

REASONS TO BE THANKFUL.

THERE is hardly any good Republican who voted for Blaine in 1884, who may not do something for his own political education by giving a portion of whatever time he sets apart for meditation at the beginning of the new year to the consideration of the fears about his country from which the experience of 1885 has delivered him. There were intelligent men—we knew many of them ourselves personally—who thought one year ago that the election of a Democrat to the Presidency would produce some terrible financial disaster so great as to threaten social order. We can recall one wealthy and still active and prominent Republican who predicted with much solemnity in November, 1884, that in one year from that date workingmen would, in the bitterness of their suffering, be knocking down and robbing the well-to-do in the streets of this city, without interference from the police. We know of another who, in a fit of mingled rage and despair, offered to sell his securities at fifty cents on the dollar.

All through the country districts, particularly in New England, there rested on the souls of Republican men, and particularly on the souls of Republican women, the shadow of a great fear, with which the Republican orators and journalists had for many years filled the air. How deep this shadow was, may be estimated from the fact that, in spite of the thorough knowledge of the machinery of their own government possessed by Republicans, vast numbers of them were thoroughly persuaded that a Democratic President would, in some manner, suddenly lower the tariff and thus produce a commercial crisis. Many of them forgot the power of Congress over the tariff, and the absolute inability of the President to touch it, as completely as if they were Frenchmen or Turks, and had never read the Constitution. The old gentleman who predicted the street robberies, and the gentleman who offered to sell his property at half price, had in their mind's eye a general closing of the factories brought about by some mysterious move of a Democratic Administration, the exact nature of which they had probably never thought out for themselves. The bulk of the party was, in fact, in that most melancholy of all situations in which the citizen of a free democratic country can find himself—a situation in which he sees at every election all that he holds dear put in imminent peril, in which the question is not which of two parties will best administer the Government, but whether the Government itself will last more than three months.

The result was that Republicans went to the polls and mounted the stump in the alarmed, if not desperate and reckless, frame of mind of men who feel that they are on the eve of a battle which will dispose of both life and fortune. A long succession of political contests conducted under such conditions would of course in the end have proved fatal to constitutional government. Men long tormented by such fears finally become ready for any refuge from them—even despotism itself. The man who firmly believes that only one of the two parties into which his fellow-citizens are divided can be safely intrusted with the Government, is really half ready for some change which will make popular elections an idle form. The deliverance of the country from this hideous nightmare during the past year is, we do not hesitate to say, a blessing only second in importance to the suppression of the rebellion, and hardly less necessary to the safety, honor, and welfare of the nation. For it all Americans, of all parties, ought at the opening of the new year to be profoundly thankful. It means at last real peace and real security.

Only one degree less valuable is the deliverance from the Southern bugbear, which also the past year has witnessed. Nothing but actual experiment would have sufficed to destroy the old tradition of the slavery period that the Southern people had interests different from or opposed to those of the North. There was in the Republican party a widespread belief that if they got into power, or if a President were elected by means of their votes, they would in some manner, which (as with regard to the power of the President over the tariff) few examined seriously for themselves, take immense sums of money out of the Treasury—one estimate of the amount was $3,000,000,000—and divide it among themselves, partly as compensation for the emancipated slaves and partly as compensation for other damage sustained during the war. How they would get hold of this money, how they would persuade people to lend it to the United States, if it were not to be secured by taxation, and how they would manage to have the taxation borne by the North exclusively and not by the South, was never explained, and probably few people ever asked themselves. The phrase, "the Confederacy again in the saddle," was in fact considered a sufficient answer to all cynical demands for minute particulars.

Moreover, although it was the pride and boast of the Republican party that the war had destroyed slavery, and although it was a cardinal article in the Republican creed that it was slavery which made the South hostile to the Union, nevertheless until last year the fact that slavery was really dead was never thoroughly brought home to the minds of the voters. Very much like the man who still feels pains in the leg he has lost by amputation, the party still felt the pangs of the old South in their bones, and nothing but a Democratic triumph would ever have relieved them. In the imagination of multitudes, the Yanceys, the Rhetts, the Brookses, and all the other fire-eaters were still brandishing their plantation whips, and preaching the degradation of labor, and threatening dissolution for the sake of the peculiar institution. Cleveland's election may be said to have banished all these phantoms from the Northern brain. There is no sect of Republicans so strict that one cannot raise a smile in it by speaking of "rebel claims," or produce silence and a little shamefaced melancholy by asking, "How is business?" or what Cleveland is going to do with the tariff. In short, the country is entering on 1886 with a freedom from care and anxiety and dismal forebodings such as it has not known since the agitation against slavery began; and this great salvation we owe—so mysterious are the ways of Providence—to the very recklessness with which the Republican party defended itself. In nominating Blaine it took counsel of no thing but its fears, and yet the very badness of the candidate at last has brought it peace.

NEWSPAPER LYING.

THE President's somewhat vehement letter about newspaper lying contains only one inaccuracy, and that is in saying that "there never was a time when newspaper lying was so general and so mean as at present." We think on the whole there is less just now than there has been for twenty-five years. The lying in the late canvass was, of course, tremendous, owing to the character of the Republican candidate. It was not possible to save him or defend him without a woful disregard of truth. But this was an exceptional period. For many years we think there has been a tendency to improvement. Twenty years ago there were editors who were rather proud of lying if they made money by it. The number of these is much reduced. Some of them are dead, and others have turned over a new leaf, and have become more truthful as they have grown older.

But the lying of the press which the President denounces must exist as long as there is a strong public demand for it; and that there is a strong public demand for it nobody can deny. In the first place, the public itself lies a good deal, or, if that be too strong a word, tells a great many stories that are not true. One often hears the newspapers denounced for their inaccuracy by people who are themselves guilty of inaccuracy almost every time they open their mouths to narrate anything. The way "things get wrong in the newspapers" is in fact simply a repetition of the way they get wrong in the mouths of nearly every one who retails the gossip of the day. The stories one hears at dinner-tables and "at the Windsor," and in brokers' offices, and in clubs, about things of which the story-teller has not personal knowledge, are distorted, exaggerated, embellished, docked, or lengthened, just as they are in the most reckless newspapers. In fact, human nature and not editorial or "reportorial" nature, is at the bottom of most newspaper inaccuracy, although it is freely denounced by persons who themselves cannot give a straight account of anything outside their own business

Moreover, there is in the worst newspaper lying—that is, lying about the private lives and character of individuals—so much money that it is almost asking too much of newspaper proprietors to ask them to refuse to indulge in it. One of the most melancholy social phenomena of the day is the appetite of a large portion of the community for odds and ends of gossip, no matter how dirty or how ghastly. The venders of it find that it does not, as far as the returns are concerned, make the slightest difference whether it is true or false. In fact, they find that corrections or contradictions of amusing or thrilling stories only bore their readers, and therefore they do not make them. The more of such stuff a journal publishes the "newsier" it is considered. This is, in fact, so much the case that the word "news" has ceased in the journalistic vocabulary to connote truthfulness. It means simply something which, no matter how big a lie it may be, the reader has not seen before, and which is likely to entertain him for two or three

minutes. The condition of mental vacuity and vapidity, not to say imbecility, to which a very large portion of the youth of the great cities is being reduced by dawdling over this stuff every day, as their only intellectual food, is something which moralists may well contemplate with concern, for the appetite is stimulated by the food. The more of it a man swallows the more he wants and the less interested he becomes in the serious things of life, in the real affairs of the nation, in the great events of the day, in the doings and sayings of leading men, and the progress of great movements, and the ups and downs of his own race. A person who spends twenty minutes of his morning reading a minute account of the suicide of a drunken washerwoman, without caring in the least whether it ever occurred, and greatly enjoys it, is in no mood, even if he had any time left, for the discussion of any topic, no matter how grave, which does not touch his bank account.

It must be remembered, too, that nothing does more to encourage and promote the habit of mendacity in the press than our system of party warfare. "Loyalty to party," as it is called, is so strong among us that most newspapers have, in order to live, to make devotion to the party one of their chief features, and it is melancholy but true, that there is no party which will tolerate a truthful "organ." An Organ may be allowed to avoid lying for its own side, but this is as far in the direction of the veracities as it is ever allowed to go. Truth-telling about the other side is never permitted. It is essential, in order to keep its place, and get the party advertising, and be circulated by the Committee, that it should at least suppress all news which seems likely to reflect credit on the other party, or, if it publishes it, comment on it in such a manner as to make it seem false or discreditable. A party editor may not be required to go further than this, and invent lies of his own, but if he does it of his own accord, he certainly does not suffer in the eyes of the managers, many of whom find it as difficult to see how to get along without lies as to get along without spoils.

On the whole, therefore, we think the President would have been more just and accurate if he had said that there never was a time when the demand for lies was greater than it is now, and when more money and fame could be got by manufacturing and circulating them, and when the market for trivial and minute lying about accidents and offences was more buoyant, and when discovery and exposure damaged a newspaper liar less in the eyes of his customers.

THE INDIANS' LAST STAND.

THE person unfamiliar with the history of the North American Indians who reads Mrs. Jackson's 'Ramona' will be very apt to conclude that the writer's descriptions of the terrible wrongs to which her Indian characters are subjected are the fanciful pictures of a novelist. If he follows the same writer through the pages of her purely historical work, 'A Century of Dishonor,' he will be forced to confess that the actual wrongs to which tribe after tribe has been subjected by the Government of the United States have been quite as terrible as any that the novelist describes; but he will naturally comfort himself with the reflection that, unjust as has been our course in the past, we have, under the influence of Quaker Commissioners and a more general interest in the subject, formed an Indian policy that is founded on right and justice, and that when we punish Indians, they are not those who are accepting in good faith the means to become civilized that the Government offers them, but only murderous wretches who can be quieted in no way but by extermination.

But even this last position the observer will have to abandon after reading the latest report of the Interior Department, in which he will learn of Utes compelled to go to the mountains for game (because their agent had not rations enough for them to keep them alive and their reservation had been denuded of wild animals), and of their being attacked there without provocation by whites, their men, women, and children being shot down; of the "pitiable" condition of the Pueblos under white men's legislation; of the manner in which Indian tribes, nominally under the care of the Government, are left to the mercy of rapacious cattle-men in making pretended leases of their lands, the very agents of the Government, who are supposed to be the Indians' guardians, "sharing in the profits of these speculative transactions"; and of railroads running through lands to which the Indians have exclusive rights, "without having paid a penny to the Indians as compensation therefor." Finally, if the comforting thought be entertained that, with the present aroused public opinion, measures are certain to be taken to protect the Indian in his rights hereafter, it is only necessary to examine some of the bills already introduced in the present Congress to find out how delusive is even this last hope.

The principal part of the public domain set apart for the Indians is that which is appropriately known as Indian Territory. It comprises only about one-forty-fourth part of the land of this nation—surely a small enough part to assign to the remnant of that people who once possessed the whole. When the Indian Territory was selected as a place for a union of tribes, it was so far in the distant West that it seemed to be out of the way of the advancing civilization of the present century. We can give to the tyrannical power which forced the Cherokees away from their hereditary homes in Georgia at least this credit, that it believed that the new home selected west of the Mississippi was safe from the white man's greed. The mistake made was due simply to an inability to anticipate the filling up of the far West under the influence of mining attractions, railroad development, and the pressure of immigration. Already, with the century incomplete, the white man has gone beyond this new stopping-place of the Indian, and is demanding that "the requirements of civilization" be complied with as of old.

How it is proposed that this shall be done Senator Van Wyck, of Nebraska, has set forth in a bill which he has made haste to introduce. This bill, in brief, proposes to set up a Territorial government over the whole of Indian Territory, with a Governor, Territorial Legislature, etc., and to open formally to settlement by the whites the lands ceded to the United States by the Creeks and Seminoles in 1866 and the Cherokee strip, which have come to be known as Oklahoma. There is a sop to justice in the bill in the declaration that nothing in it shall be construed as impairing the rights of the Indians under the laws and treaties of the United States; but this would be meaningless verbiage if the bill became a law. Its practical result would be to turn over to white settlers land in the Indian Territory which the Government of the United States has no right so to dispose of; to wheedle the least intelligent tribes into selling other lands for a like purpose; and, by thus mixing up the white and red races, to cause that inevitable degradation of the latter which always follows such a union.

Secretary Lamar, in his very honorable and intelligent discussion of this subject, says: "Movements of population eastward and northward and southward have gone on with unprecedented rapidity, until every reservation is closed in and pressed upon by colonies of settlers, miners, ranchers, and traders. The practice of moving the Indian to more distant reservations can be continued no longer. He must make his final stand for existence where he is now. Unless he can adapt himself to the necessities of these new conditions, his extinction will be sure and swift." That he is adapting himself to such conditions in the Indian Territory, witness the rapid civilization of the Cherokees, who are again appealing to the nation to save them from another robbery; that he will never adapt himself to such conditions when brought side by side with the whites, witness the degradation of the Onondagas in this enlightened State of New York.

There is but one policy which this Government can adopt in regard to the Indian Territory consistently with honor and justice: that is, to hold it intact as the dwelling place of Indian tribes. "Keeping the Indian reservations from the settlements of white men," says Secretary Lamar, "is a policy which, in my opinion, should be more rigidly enforced." If that policy is to be the keynote of the present Administration, the theft from these Indians of their last possession by means of such a measure as Senator Van Wyck's will be at least postponed until the inauguration of a new Executive. The argument that the reservations in the Indian Territory are larger than the tribes on them need, furnishes no excuse for giving any part of them to the whites. The Federal Government holds them as a trustee for the Indians; and it will be a hundred fold better to let some acres remain uncultivated and unoccupied rather than that all shall be given over to the rapacity of white "boomers." With the increasing pressure of white settlers on the scattered reservations outside of the Indian Territory, it is fortunate that there is room within its boundaries for those whom "civillzation" is certain to displace at no distant period.

THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

BOSTON, January 4, 1886.

THE third annual meeting of the Modern Language Association of America was held here on December 29 and 30. The Association has a large and enthusiastic membership, but many of the leading colleges and scientific schools are still unrepresented at its meetings. In this respect it

fairly reproduces the prevailing interest in scientific and linguistic research. The papers presented covered a wide field, embracing the results of special investigations, methods of instruction, and the place of the modern languages in modern culture and in university education. With its continued existence the Association has defined more nearly its own aims. The broad domain presented by the French and Spanish languages, which still survive in this country, and the study of local dialects which is so important from an historical standpoint, afford an ample field for original research. At the earlier meetings the existence of the society was threatened by numerous representatives of schools and of fanciful methods of instruction, each of whom sought to give prominence to his theories, and this was followed by a warfare on the classics and classical culture. These two tendencies have happily disappeared, and the recognition of the value of the various elements in modern culture has been fully established. It remains, however, as a part of the future work of the Association, to secure a fuller perception of the necessity of instruction in modern languages in the smaller colleges, and their official recognition in the instruction of the secondary schools.

The meeting was opened by an elaborate paper on the "Place of Modern Languages in American Colleges," accompanied by a tabular statement of the amount of instruction given in French and German in the leading colleges, the requirements in those languages for admission, and the order of their study. It was shown that the smallest amount of instruction given in any college was eight per cent. of the entire curriculum, while in the larger colleges, such as Harvard, Cornell, Michigan, and Toronto Universities, a student might devote fifty-six per cent. of his entire course to French and German literatures. A marked advance was chronicled in the last few years, especially in the historical study of these languages. The excellent work done in the Canadian universities was commended. The paper, while disclaiming any purpose to discuss the value which should attach to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, mentioned incidentally that Dalhousie College, the Johns Hopkins University, the University of Oregon, Randolph-Macon College, South Carolina College, and Swarthmore College confer the degree of B. A. without any knowledge of Greek. Tulane University goes further and confers the degree for a commercial course and for one in the mechanic arts. Harvard University and the University of Toronto require an entrance examination in Greek; the Johns Hopkins University permits French and German to be substituted for Greek as a requirement for admission; nearly half the colleges present a course in philosophy for which the degree of Ph. B. is given, or an equivalent course in letters with the degree of B. L., in which Latin is required, and French or German substituted for Greek for admission.

A multiplicity of degrees was characterized as a curse of our educational system, and a reduction of the number of degrees and a unifying of their value were strongly urged as necessary to rescue our degree system from merited contempt. The paper insisted upon the necessity and wisdom of introducing thorough instruction in French and German in all our secondary schools, where there is now a waste of time and dissipation of interest by teaching superficially a perplexing variety of subjects which might better be pursued later. A mastery of the elementary subjects required for admission to college is not now attained. It is the law of educational history that the higher demands always condition and give direction to the lower, and the colleges should unite to elevate and give character to the instruction in all high schools and academies. Modern languages should be required for admission, both because they can be acquired better in early life, and because, if begun later, adequate time is not afforded to enable a student to obtain a comprehensive knowledge of their literature. The study of English upon the historical method was recommended, and in this and in later papers it was urged that English is more inadequately taught in the public schools than either French or German.

Next to promoting the interests of the study of the modern languages in the colleges and secondary schools, the work of the Association lies in original investigation. Several valuable papers of this character were presented. One of the most interesting was upon the "French Language in Louisiana, and the Negro-French Dialect," which contained a list of words, idioms, and grammar. The Creole French remained pure, as the youth were educated in France; French teachers and priests contributed to preserve its character, the services of the Catholic Church especially being an important element. The Acadian French of the Teche district has suffered manifold mutilation of forms. In the discussion which followed, the French of this region was said to have been in part Germanized from the presence of a German colony in the vicinity, and the word Teche was said to be a corrupt form for *Deutsch*. Mr. Cable's French, which he puts into the mouth of educated Creoles, was called "an absurd, contradictory, and impossible jargon." The French of the region of Acadia, in Nova Scotia, and on the St. Lawrence, was pronounced remarkably pure, although exhibiting the features of the original French language of the period of colonization.

Two other papers of this character deserve mention, viz.: upon the "Collective Singular in Spanish," a use ignored in most French and Romance grammars; and "Remarks on the Conjugation in the Wallonian Dialect." A paper upon "The Place of English in the College Curriculum" was a vigorous plea for the scientific study of English, and for a larger recognition of its rights in college instruction. A paper on "Modern Language Study in Ontario" gave a valuable résumé of the system of education in Canada, and the successive steps by which the study of French and German had advanced in the public schools. Other papers, pedagogical in character, were presented upon "College Instruction in Modern Languages: What Should Be Taught?" "On the Use of English in Teaching Modern Languages," "Requirements in English for Admission to College," and "German Classics as a Means of Education." One of the best papers was on the "Real-gymnasium Question in Germany," in which an attack was made on the famous address of Professor Hoffmann. It presented forcibly the discussion in Germany which followed the "Berlin" report.

On the whole, the papers presented at this session were a distinct advance. The transactions of the last two meetings will be issued in a single volume. A congratulatory message was received and answered from the section of the Association of German Philologists and Schoolmen which is devoted to the modern languages.

THE IRISH ELECTIONS AND THE STRUGGLE IN ULSTER.

LONDON, December 22, 1885.

THE elections in Ireland have been not only the most dramatically interesting of all the recent contests, but the most momentous in their ultimate political results. Any one who had watched the tendency of events in that country might have foreseen them. Many English observers did foresee them. But they have struck the mass of Englishmen with a surprise which has not yet realized all they import.

When the last Parliament ended, Ireland was represented in the Imperial Parliament by about forty-seven Parnellites; nearly thirty Gladstonians, twenty of whom were moderate Home Rulers and the rest regular Liberals from Ulster; and twenty-five Tories. Now there are eighty-five Parnellites, eighteen Tories, and not a single Liberal. If we look at the geographical distribution of these members, we find that the Parnellites hold all the seats in Leinster, Munster, and Connaught (except the two for Dublin University), and in the Ulster counties of Donegal, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Monaghan. They have thus, while extinguishing the Liberals, driven the Tories into the northeast corner of the island. Of the seats in the three Roman Catholic provinces, twenty went to them unopposed. In the remainder, candidates, sometimes Tory, sometimes Liberal, were put forward by a recently-formed association of persons zealous for the British connection, called the Irish Loyal and Patriotic Union. But these candidates obtained in nearly every instance a very small fraction of the vote cast. In West Clare, for instance, while the Parnellites had 6,763 votes, the Loyalists had but 289; in North Cork the numbers were 4,902, against 102; in South Mayo 4,900, against 75; in East Kerry 3,069, against 30. In fact, the only constituencies outside Ulster in which the Loyalists made a tolerable fight were in the divisions of Dublin County and Dublin City. These numbers reveal such overwhelming Parnellite strength that many people blame the Union for having attempted such contests. They allege that their object was partly to put the Nationalists to expense, partly to get the case against legislative independence put fairly before the people; and argue that to have allowed seats to go uncontested would have been as damaging as to poll even the wretched minorities they have secured.

It is worth while to examine more closely the fortunes of Ulster, a region specially interesting, because its Protestant population will form one of the difficulties in the way of granting Mr. Parnell's demands. I have already observed that four out of her nine counties have been captured by the Nationalists. They are counties in which the Roman Catholic population largely predominates, and in Ireland religion has again become (except in the landlord class) an unfailing guide to political sentiment; and they are Roman Catholic because they lie furthest from that Scottish coast whence came the Protestant colonists of Ulster in the seventeenth century. In four other counties the Parnellites have effected a lodgment, capturing one seat out of the two in Derry, one out of three in Armagh, three out of four in Tyrone, one out of four in Down. Only Antrim remains untouched, while of the total thirty-one seats they obtained all but the half—fifteen against sixteen. Seen by the light, therefore, of this election, Protestant and loyal Ulster practically shrinks into the five northeastern counties, while even of these one, Tyrone, is three-fourths Nationalist. Of all their successes in the general election, this is the one which has given the Parnellites most pleasure. Ulster has been the crook in their lot, the home of a sturdy race who hated and defied them. Whenever they claimed to represent the Irish nation, Englishmen threw Ulster in their teeth, and asked what the Protestants of that province, energetic, industrious, pugnacious, would say to a repeal of the Union. In winning half Ulster, they therefore deem themselves to have taken a vast step toward the subjugation of the whole island.

How, it may be asked, has it happened that the sixteen seats which the Loyalist party has retained in Ulster have all been gained by Tories? Eleven Liberals ran, and every one of them was

beaten—a strange result, considering that it was Mr. Gladstone who passed the Land Act of 1881 which so greatly bettered the position of the tenant farmers. The causes are curious and deserve to be put on record. In the five Protestant and semi-Protestant counties of Ulster there are three parties nearly equal in numbers to one another: the Liberals, who are almost wholly Presbyterians; the Tories, who are either Episcopalians or Orange Presbyterians; and the Roman Catholics. In every constituency, except, perhaps, one or two divisions of Belfast, where Toryism is very strong, any two of these parties are numerous enough to outvote the third. At all previous general elections the struggle has been between the Liberals and the Tories, and the Roman Catholics have usually voted with the Liberals. This adhesion, while it gave the Liberals a temporary advantage, contributed to damage their candidates in the eyes of Protestants generally, because in Ulster religious animosities are still keen, and the ignorant Protestant looks on a Catholic as his natural enemy. This feeling, joined to the power of the Tory landlords over both their Protestant and their Catholic tenants, had given the Tories the large majority of Ulster seats up to 1880, when the Liberals, by the help of the Catholics, carried a good many. Then came the lowering of the electoral franchise, which in Ireland was a lowering in boroughs as well as counties. It might have been expected to work in favor of the Liberals, because the Episcopalians are chiefly in the richer classes. But it has worked against them. For while Liberalism is strong among the tenant farmers in the counties and the middle classes in the towns—persons who previously enjoyed the suffrage—the new voters, workingmen and agricultural laborers, are mostly either Presbyterian Orangemen or Roman Catholics. Now the Orangemen vote Tory, and the Roman Catholics obey with singular docility the bidding of their leaders—that is to say, of Mr. Parnell.

When the present general election approached, there was a prospect of a sort of triangular duel between the three parties, and the idea at once occurred to both the Protestant parties that, as their differences from each other were smaller than the differences which divided them from the Parnellite enemies of the Union, some sort of combination ought to be made whereby they should secure as many Ulster seats as possible for Loyalist candidates. One or two Liberal leaders talked of an arrangement with the Parnellites against the Tories, but the general Unionist and Protestant sentiment of the Liberal Presbyterians condemned such an alliance. Negotiations were accordingly instituted between the Tory and Liberal party managers. In two cases these negotiations led to a fair arrangement, which was honestly kept. The Liberals of North Tyrone promised to support the Tory candidate for that division if the Tories of East Donegal would support the Liberal in that division. Both observed their bargain, but while the Tory carried against a North Tyrone Parnellite by 400, the Liberal lost East Donegal to a Parnellite by 1,100. Elsewhere the Liberals were, as they say, jockeyed, or, at any rate, outmanœuvred by the Tories. In some places they ran candidates against a Tory, or against both a Tory and a Nationalist, and were beaten; in others, feeling their weakness, they left the Tory to fight the Nationalist and looked on. This happened especially in the two remarkable cases of Londonderry City and West Belfast. The Parnellites allege that the Liberal chiefs had promised that their voters should stand neutral in these constituencies, leaving Nationalists and Tories to fight it out. The Liberals deny the promise, and add that they could not control their voters, who are by no means so docile as the Parnellites. What is certain is that in these two boroughs the Parnellites attribute their defeat, in both cases by very narrow majorities, to the fact that some Liberals voted against them for the Tory candidate. This is probably true, and no one who knows the strong Protestant feeling of the Ulster Liberals will be surprised that many should have voted for a Tory rather than see the Parnellites make good their boast that they would capture seats in historic Londonderry and ultra-Protestant Belfast.

But the material point is that these contests determined the action of the Parnellites in the county constituencies, where the polling came on a later day. Already disposed to damage the Liberals in Ulster, as they were damaging them in England, resentment at their behavior in Londonderry and Belfast led the Nationalist chiefs to throw their voters everywhere on the Tory side. In Antrim, in North Down, in Londonderry County, the Catholics went for the Tories, and the Liberals were hopelessly routed. Another curious incident must be noted. In two divisions of Belfast there was a split in the Tory camp, and independent Orange candidates, representing the democratic working-class wing of the party, opposed the "regular" candidates brought forward by the hitherto ruling clique. The Tory strength was so great in these divisions that a Nationalist candidate had no chance. Accordingly, the Parnellites directed their men to vote for the Orange Democrats, as against both the regular Tories and the Liberals, and the surprising spectacle was witnessed of thousands of Roman Catholics casting their ballots for an Orange Grand Master (Mr. Cobain) in one division of Belfast, and in another for Mr. William Johnson, the most rabid Orange Protestant that even Ulster has produced, and who has won notoriety by nothing but his furious attacks on the Pope and the Catholic clergy. Such is the admirable discipline to which the Nationalist leaders have brought their army, even in a district where they are not supreme.

The impression produced by the elections on the Loyalist upper class in Dublin, and generally through the south and centre of Ireland, has been enormous. They are doing their best to minimize it to their own minds, and to the English, by declaring that the Nationalist League has skilfully organized itself so as to destroy freedom of voting. The enormous majorities recorded for Parnellite candidates are, it is declared, due simply to the coercion practised on the humbler class of voters by the Leaguers and the priests. Many have voted out of fear, many more have stayed away from the polls: the result is not to be regarded as an expression of the wish of the Irish people, but merely as a proof of the strength of the Parnellite organization, and so far as an additional reason for resisting, or even for suppressing it. Some of our journals and their Dublin correspondents, who do their best to misrepresent, no doubt quite honestly, Irish facts to English eyes, enjoy this kind of argument, and it is sometimes trotted out on English platforms. But it does not really blind the English. They perceive that a people, interrogated in the regular constitutional way, have returned, from four-fifths of the island, an all but unanimous answer, and they feel that they cannot, without far stronger evidence of intimidation than has yet been adduced, go behind that answer and deny its validity. They are therefore beginning to be much exercised in mind. Prima facie, the Irish seem to them entitled to have the self government they ask for. But would this self-government not land both Ireland and England in even greater difficulties than those of the *status quo?* While they ask this question, opinion in Dublin declares that nothing can well be worse than the *status quo.* All minds are unsettled, business almost suspended. There is a prospect of a general cessation of rent and a recrudescence of agrarian outrages. English government is beginning to be regarded, owing to the variations and vacillations of English parties, with something like contempt. The news, now generally believed though not formally authenticated, that Mr. Gladstone is prepared with a measure of home rule, has therefore startled Dublin less than England, for Dublin has begun to think all things possible. But it has startled Ulster most. For the respectable classes of Ulster, knowing and caring comparatively little about what passes in the rest of Ireland, have been living in what they now fear may turn out a fool's paradise of reliance on English sympathy. Y.

SARDOU'S "GEORGETTE."

PARIS, December 17, 1885.

YEAR after year I observe that French society abdicates in favor of the French stage. There are no *salons* left, but every night there are many theatres open. A new play by Dumas, by Sardou, by Pailleron, is a great event. There are still a few places where you can find a few discontented conservatives, a few dowagers, lamenting the wickedness of the time; but these modest meetings, to which only very few are admitted, where a new face always seems dangerous, do not recall the ancient *salons.* When society meets, it is only in great balls or routs, where you can shake hands, but exchange no words, and where you see your friends in the crowd of the anterooms or the staircases, while you are impatiently waiting for your carriage.

Society has lost its homogeneity, as well as its importance. The political parties are too much divided, and in each party there are coteries—what the English call "sets." The Élysée has its set, the Moderate Republicans have theirs; there are some Republican families, you might almost say dynasties, which keep their doors hermetically shut on the Radicals. In the world of finance, there are the *parvenus* and the *arrivés;* in the Faubourg St. Germain the fusion is not yet complete between the pure Legitimists and the Orleanists. It has become the fashion to remain as long as possible in the country, to stay during the hunting season in the châteaux (hunting has become as favorite a pleasure in France as it always has been in England). When people return to Paris they have, so to speak, no occupation; and then comes the time for the first representations. There is no good *première* without the presence of certain people. I have often asked myself what are the qualifications for the privilege of going to these *premières.* The press, of course, has many places; the great critics, such as Francisque Sarcey, of the *Temps,* are the lions of the occasion. On their judgment depends, in a great measure, the success of the play. But besides the critics and the journalists, there are many men of the world, gentlemen belonging to the fashionable clubs; there are the lions of the bourse, of the bank, of politics; and there are also many men and women who make a part of "Tout Paris" for no definite reason—familiar names, which come naturally to the pen of the persons who describe these *premières,* as they would describe a great race.

It is not unnatural that the dramatists should be very much afraid of this public of the *premières.* This public is thoroughly *blasé;* it is essentially frivolous; it has a very keen sense of the ridiculous; it is sometimes moved by a word, an attitude, an intonation; and it remains perfectly cold before scenes which are, in the writer's mind, the most pathetic. This public has a good and a bad influence. In my opinion, it has a good influence on the actors, as it will not bear anything false, pretentious, vulgar; it has a bad in-

fluence on the dramatists, because it inclines them constantly to look for new and extraordinary combinations of passions and of characters. One after the other our dramatists have brought on the stage types which were formerly excluded. Alexander Dumas gave the signal with the "Dame aux Camélias" and the "Demi-Monde." Sardou has within a few days brought out a new piece, which is called "Georgette," and it seems as if he had tried to walk in the footsteps of Dumas: he has brought before the public one of those social questions which inspire the eloquence and the wit of the author of "Les Idées de Madame Aubray" and so many other pieces of the same kind.

Georgette is, in my eyes, a type which ought to be banished from the stage. I can accept all sorts of passion, but the element of venality is one which I cannot accept easily. *Georgette* has been a dancer, she has sung in a music-hall, she has been notorious for the disorder of her life in Lyons and in Marseilles; she went under the name of the handsome Georgette. She has had a child by *M. de Cardillac*, one of her numerous lovers, an officer garrisoned in Marseilles. *Paula*, the child, is the heroine of the play. After her birth *Georgette*, the mother, is seized with a desire to accumulate wealth for the child, and to make a position for her. The courtesan is a good mother. This is not a great discovery in the field of morals: the 'Imitation of Christ' declares it in these admirable terms: "Something divine lingers in the most degraded being"; and it might say also: "There is something satanical left in the best of us."

Georgette, in order to make a good position for her daughter, had first to make one for herself. She continued her life of adventure, while *Paula* was young, then she got married in America, at Cincinnati, to a millionaire who left her his millions. With these millions she has bought an authentic and penniless old duke, *Lord Carlington*. We see her in the first act as *Lady Carlington*, a true duchess, devoted exclusively to her daugher *Paula*. You see at once what is going to happen. *Paula* is perfect, *Paula* is an angel, and she will inspire love in a gentleman. This gentleman will be ignorant of the past, he will not see in the *Duchess of Carlington* the circus-rider, he will allow himself to be led to the foot of the altar, till somebody comes who *knows*, and who informs his family of the true situation. And then we shall have to solve the problem, Can a gentleman marry the nice daughter of a courtesan?

Before going any further, I will say that I do not consider such a subject a moral or healthy subject. Let us suppose many things. Let us suppose that a *Georgette* can so completely transform herself that no eye can discover in her the slightest trace of her past degradation; that she can play the part of an honest woman to perfection. Let us suppose, also, that the world has become so wide, so enlarged, that her secret can be kept for years, and that she can enter the world with all the advantages of a perfect education and an irreproachable past. Let us suppose that there is no truth at all in the law of heredity, and there remains nothing in the daughter of the sin of the mother. It remains to be seen whether such a marriage as the marriage of the daughter of *Georgette* the courtesan, enriched by vice, with a gentleman, is one of those unions on which it is pleasant to look, and which seem to be made in heaven before they are made on earth. Such a marriage, if it did take place, would always appear something exceptional, fraught with danger, a perilous experiment. Why should we, then, examine such a case too closely? Why should the dramatist play with our best feelings and with our common sense? Why should he force us to go with him into a world of adventures, of shams, of lies? I am afraid it is because we want, nowadays, strong colors and brutal contrasts. We are not content with leaving virtue here and vice there; we bring them together, as a chemist brings together the acid and the base, and we do not care if the compound is an explosive.

Some secondary questions are raised in the play of "Georgette." She meets the gentleman who has known her in old times, and who exclaims at once, "*Georgette!*" She asks him to keep her secret. This gentleman, *M. Clavel de Chabreuil*, tells her, of course, that he will; but when he finds out that the *Duchess of Carlington* wishes her daughter to enter the family of his sister-in-law, he becomes embarrassed. He finds himself, like *Olivier de Jalin*, of the "Demi-Monde," between his intimate friend *Nanjac* and the *Baronne d'Ange*, and he behaves like *Olivier de Jalin*—he sacrifices the adventuress: he cannot, he will not, allow a marriage between *Paula* and young *Gontran*.

Sardou does not know how to treat such situations in the incisive manner of Alexandre Dumas. There is a scene between the young lover and *Clavel*, who has revealed the truth, before the lover's mother, which is painfully cold and sophistical. What do you think of a gentleman who says to his mother, "You will not accept *Paula* as a daughter-in-law, though one of our ancestors was the mistress of Henri IV., another was the mistress of Louis XV., and it is to this King that we owe our title"? "Ces choses-là," as the French say, "ne se disent pas"; and one would almost be inclined to say with *Bridoison*, in the "Mariage de Figaro": "Il y a des choses qu'il ne faut pas se dire à soi-même."

Of course, *Paula*, the perfect *Paula*, is totally ignorant of the past history of her mother; this loving, tender, devoted mother is in her eyes the ideal of perfection. But she cannot be kept in a fool's paradise for ever, and here we come to the master-scene of the drama—to the scene which will save the rest and console the spectator for the tedium, the triviality, the mediocrity of other parts. *Paula* begins by having a few doubts. There are things which she cannot explain to herself—the incertitude of her lover's family, the sudden coldness of its members. She becomes uneasy, she cross-examines a servant, and suddenly the light flashes on her eyes—a veil is torn. The actress who plays the part is very remarkable; she is Mademoiselle Brandès, a rising star. How intense is her despair, how noble at the same time! Her adoration is in an instant converted into horror. At this moment, *Clavel* comes—*Clavel*, who has betrayed her mother. She opens her heart to him, expresses her indignation, and then *Clavel* tells her that if she has herself such a high sentiment of duty, of honor, of all that is good, and honest, and virtuous, she owes it to whom? To this mother, who probably knew that the day would come when all the sentiments which she nursed in her child would turn against herself. The mother had prepared her own sacrifice; she had given all to her daughter, even the love which her daughter felt for her. She knew that the day would come when she would remain alone, and feel the weight of her own child's contempt. At this moment the mother enters; and *Paula*, moved by the words of *Clavel*, throws herself in her arms, and says simply, with many sobs, "My mother, my mother."

This is the great scene, the scene for which probably all the rest was written; and how does it all end? Sardou has not dared to accomplish the marriage. There is no end; the two mothers cannot agree, nor can they agree with their children; and while all is left in the air, and impossible conditions are made all round, a servant enters: "Dinner is served," and the curtain falls. You are free to imagine how time will amend the situation. Is *Paula* married by this time or is she not? You can give the solution yourself. Sardou does not distinctly give it, but he inclines to the negative. The drama of life has really no end, and the old rules of Aristotle were long ago despised and forgotten.

Correspondence.

REALISM AND IDEALISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The discussion on realism and idealism in the columns of the *Nation* has been a very interesting one, and Mr. Stillman's valuable contribution to it (No. 1070), in transferring the ground from literature to the plastic arts, tempts me into the field also.

There is so much mere word-juggling in discussions of this kind that Mr. Stillman's clear definition of realism and idealism respectively as work done from nature and work done from an inner conception, is of great service. I also accept his view that music is the most purely ideal of the arts, and that no "relation to the real" can be found in it. But when his reasoning carries him to the point of stating that "the more purely ideal a work of art is, the less it resembles nature," one is somewhat staggered. If he means this to apply to the plastic arts, how does he account for the fact that Pheidias, the greatest of idealists, attained a resemblance to the actual quality of *flesh* never equalled before or since in sculpture; or that the great Venetians impress one with the actual presence of a breathing, palpitating body in a way that the most realistic of Dutchmen cannot do? He says again:

"In the better epoch of Italian ideal painting and sculpture alike we do not find any study of the special individual head. . . . Giotto, for instance, is as free from any tendency to expression of transitory emotion as was a Greek sculptor of 450 B. C. Expression as a quality of art came in with the use of portraiture, and when art had become naturalistic to a certain extent, though not yet realistic."

The first question that occurs to one in reading this is, What does Mr. Stillman consider the "better epoch of Italian ideal painting and sculpture"? That of Giotto? But if the lack of expression and of individuality of head is to be the criterion of ideality, it would seem that one should go back to Cimabue, or further. Is it not true that the progress made by Giotto consisted in a return to nature and a closer study of the men about him, thus breaking away from the purely "ideal" types of the Byzantine artists? Is it not true that the succeeding artists were constantly approaching nearer and nearer to realistic truth until the culmination of Italian art in the sixteenth century; that the work of the "goldsmith school," sculptors and painters, which made possible the great ideal work of the Cinquecento, was preëminently portraiture? It would seem that there must be a flaw in Mr. Stillman's reasoning, and it seems to me that the key to his difficulty is in the term "naturalistic," which he does not define. What do we mean by a naturalistic school of art as opposed to an idealistic school or a realistic school? This is the question for which I should like to find an answer, and, if one could find it, I think the problem would be pretty nearly solved. My contribution to the desired solution is this.

The art of painting has two distinct sides: a purely ideal side, corresponding to music, and a purely realistic or imitative side. A work of absolute idealism would have to be confined to the mere *musical* arrangement of colors and lines, without any resemblance to natural objects. Such an arrangement might be very beautiful,

as in a Turkish rug, but surely we should not think it painting. On the contrary, a work of pure realism would be the literal imitation as closely as possible of natural objects, without any choice, arrangement, or composition. This we should recognize as painting, but it could not be called art. The instant the painter selects forms, balances colors, composes lines, he introduces a larger or smaller portion of idealism into his work, and becomes, in so far, an artist. The instant the artist introduces into his harmony of colors and lines the faintest reminiscence of any natural object whatever, he has put a certain portion of realism into his work, and is, in so far, a painter. The result is that we have in the art of painting these two elements constantly combined in constantly varying degrees; *pure* realism and *pure* idealism being almost impossible to find.

Now I believe that these two elements are equally necessary to the existence of the art, and that all progress in painting has been by a pendulum-like swing from one to the other. The art of the middle ages was very nearly pure idealism. The men of the Renaissance, in the joy of their rediscovery of nature, pushed art very far in the opposite direction. Then came the great schools of the sixteenth century, and particularly the school of Venice, and, profiting by all the knowledge of nature accumulated by the realists and adding to it themselves, they combined with it a profound idealism of their own and produced a *naturalistic* art, an art not less realistic or less ideal, but both *more* realistic and *more* ideal than that of their precursors. My definition of naturalism, then, is the reconciliation and presence in the same work of art in a high degree of the two elements, realism and idealism; and the highest degree of both qualities I believe to be characteristic of the greatest art, a perfect work being a work absolutely and thoroughly conceived by the imagination, no slightest detail being left to chance or the hazard of imitation, and yet a work in which every part so conceived should be carried out with an almost deceptive realism. Perhaps the nearest approach to such art which has ever existed is the best work of Titian.

If this argument be correct, it would follow that while it may be literally true that "the more *purely* ideal a work of art is, the less it resembles Nature," yet it is almost equally true that the more *highly* ideal a work of art is, the more it resembles Nature. KENYON COX.

NEW YORK, January 2, 1886.

A SILVER BASIS AND A BUSINESS BOOM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of your contemporaries declared last week, and has been quoted over the country, that if we fall to a silver basis it will make money more abundant and create a general boom, as in the case of the issue of a paper currency in the civil war.

Considering the proved facts regarding currency, it is difficult to understand what was in the writer's mind. Senator Beck's statement that it would be better for the country if a thief should steal 10,000,000 silver dollars and put them in circulation, than that they should be "hoarded" in the Treasury, is not more strange. That an abundance of money will not create a boom in trade, one would think sufficiently shown by the course of things the last year. It is apparent from that experience that a very large sum, even $100,000,000, could be imported into a country, and the only effect would be an advance in securities to the extent to which the money was invested. There would be no advance in general merchandise, as there would not necessarily be any increase of consumption.

But if $100,000,000 were taken from new mines of the average production, the sum represents the labor of about 200,000 men for a year, and this, when a new industry, added to the other industries, would create a demand sufficient to vivify the whole trade of the country. For such an additional industry, suddenly created, induces a general movement of men, bringing emigration, and also turning into active consumers the idle surplus of the population. As when the mines of California were discovered and thousands flocked to them, it was not the gold and silver added to the stock of the world that advanced prices of all commodities; it was the increased consumption, causing a demand so sudden and immense that it outran for a time all the hastened increase of production.

When a great war occurs, again a new, and also a very wasteful, consumption takes place. If the Government of the country issues paper money in quantity, as ours did, the mercantile prosperity that follows the demand produced by rapid and increased consumption is ascribed by many to the increased volume of currency. That does indeed, as in the case of new gold, and perhaps more quickly, increase the facilities of trading, but in itself is not the primal cause of the increased activity. It only oils the wheels.

Gold might pass out of the country in the ordinary course of trade not only without harm, but to advantage, even if to large amounts; because it would only go if too abundant for the wants of trade, and so a burden on it. But if any false position is forced upon the country, so that gold, the universal standard, is pushed unnaturally to a premium and then and therefore leaves the country, it leaves a vacuum behind it. It is not as if it were paid out for merchandise, and simply passed into new hands and combinations within the country. It goes, and whatever use it filled when here, the want of it for that use is felt, and everything in trade tightens.

Nor need any one suppose that because little gold circulates, its absence from the country altogether will not be felt. It does not circulate because our people prefer its representative in paper. But with the disappearance of gold, its representative will disappear also. Gold certificates will be collected of the Treasury, and the banks will be called upon for the stores which guarantee their issues and back their loans. The gold is the substance, the paper only the shadow, and with the substance goes the shadow. E. C.

December 30, 1885.

JEWS IN AMERICAN SOCIETY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just read, in your issue of December 24, a letter headed "Jews in American Society," which contains an assertion that I know to be so utterly untrue that I feel compelled to ask for room in your columns to correct it. Your correspondent asks, "Do American ladies call on Jewish ladies and receive them at their houses? If they do I am not aware of it; on the contrary, I know that they do not, and would turn up their noses if they should meet them on terms of social equality." I see that this letter is dated in New York, and I frankly confess that I know nothing about New York society, but I do *know* that in Philadelphia, Baltimore, Richmond, Wilmington, Raleigh, and Savannah, Jewish families are received into the best society without a question, and I could mention numbers of cases where Christians of high social standing have married Jews. I have been told that in Charleston there always has been, and still is, a bitter social prejudice against the Jews, and an intimate friend of my own, a Jewess, once said to me that she would never live in Charleston on that account, for in her native place she associated with none but the best people. If your correspondent really wishes to know if American ladies visit and receive Jewish ladies, he can easily find out by making suitable inquiries in the cities I have mentioned. The names of the American ladies thus obtained will probably cause the noses of his fair friends to keep in their proper places whenever they meet a Jewish lady in future.

Yours respectfully, W. M.

BALTIMORE, December 28, 1885.

NEGRO PREJUDICE AT THE NORTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I value the *Nation* so highly that when any of its criticisms seem to me unjust, they are read with corresponding regret. A case of this kind occurred in the last issue. In your criticism of the treatment received by the Jubilee Singers from the hotel-keepers of Troy, you censure the landlords.

I feel as keenly as no doubt you do the insult to which these ladies and gentlemen of the Jubilee Singers were subjected; but the landlords are not the guilty parties. It is the people of the North, the guests of the hotels. They say very plainly to the landlord that unless negroes are refused the courtesies of the house, they will go elsewhere. With the landlord it is a question of business, not of personal feeling; and from the nature of his business, he is bound to make himself and his house agreeable to his patrons. If, therefore, parties present themselves who for any reason are decidedly objectionable to his guests, and will cause them to withdraw their patronage and ruin his business, there are sufficient reasons why he should close his doors upon the Jubilee Singers or anybody else: first, he should not be asked to injure his business, nor censured if he so conduct it that he succeeds rather than fails; second, his guests, as guests, have rights which he as a landlord is bound to respect.

In the instance under consideration, parties presented themselves to the landlords who, for reasons—extremely unjust, abominably unjust, the writer thinks—were yet decidedly objectionable to the guests of the hotels. The landlords were bound by common courtesy to close their doors—their alternative, to get out of a business that demands of them such unjust distinctions.

It is the unchristian spirit of the people of the North that compromises the landlord, and shuts out from society ladies and gentlemen whose sole misfortune is a black skin; and upon us who make the society of the North the censure should fall.

In fairness, and that a little light may be thrown upon some of the dark spots on our escutcheon, I would ask you to give this brief article a place in your columns.

Yours truly, SELAH HOWELL.

"INGLESIDE," HARVARD, MASS., January 2, 1886.

MOVABILITY OF STUDENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A movement for exchanging professors in American colleges has recently been set on foot. Much would undoubtedly be gained by such an arrangement. Not only would the students, in a far greater degree than now, be accustomed to independent judgment; but their views on any subject would be broadened, and their tolerance of other people's opinions would be increased by listening to lectures by different men of varying opinions. So far there is certainly much to be said for the interchange of professors. But this system, if brought to its full logical development, would necessitate a more or less continual

change of residence of the professors and their families, with all the concomitant change of social relations, which could not fail to react unpleasantly on the home life, although the variety might at first be very agreeable. A constant change might impede or even prevent the original researches of many professors.

But this same object, viz., the extension of the independent judgment of the students, might be furthered in a slightly different manner. When we cannot conveniently move the professors, why should we not move the students? The average student, having no family, might almost as well spend one year in New Haven, another in Cambridge, etc., as stay all the four years of his college course in one place, if he could only be enabled in any case to count the work done toward his degree. Such an interchange of students is successfully carried on in Germany at the present day. An intelligent and discreet coöperation of the different institutions would of course be necessary. But so it would if the professor-exchanging scheme were carried into complete execution. The whole matter will be greatly facilitated, and will indeed only be possible, through the progress in the elective system, which, after having obtained complete control of Harvard, is now slowly gaining ground in most if not all similar institutions.

JOHN DITLEY FREDERIKSEN, Jr.

BOSTON, December 20, 1885.

THE TARDY APPEARANCE OF THE AMERICAN POET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Stedman's introductory paper to his 'American Poets,' discussing the causes of the slow rise of poetry in America, is stimulating and suggestive. One in thinking of it, and calling to mind the conditions of other peoples, similar in history, becomes conscious of the existence of a possible law having much to do with the subject. The problem is not wholly new. The law, if such there be, seems elusive.

Do poets in exile or in prison sing as well? We recall Ovid, Tasso, and Hugo. The induction is narrow and scarcely germane. Has a Frenchman ever produced a poem out of France? What Spanish poet has arisen in the Spanish foreign colonies and countries? The one poet of Cuba is of African mothers, two or three degrees removed. What countryman of Camoens has sung in Brazil? What have Englishmen ever done out of England, save in the United States, and here, not only after they ceased to be Englishmen, but passed the natural time and then grew to be Americans? They deal well with Canadian, East Indian themes; but as Englishmen, not as Canadians, Indians, or Australians. Goldwin Smith and Edwin Arnold are Englishmen. A man born of American parentage may write of an American subject—or could once—and yet his book not be American. He must deal in American modes, use American utterance. This no man can assume, or yet wholly put off once he has grown to it or it has grown in him; it has become part of his unconscious self. Then he can write none but American books, no matter where educated or how cultured. Henry James is a notable instance of this.

This inner essential self seems a thing of slow growth. To change the essential Englishman to the inbred American took centuries—has but just been done, if it is yet accomplished. A race must have time to become indigenous, almost aboriginal, in essence, soul, and spirit, before the shy, elusive incitements to poetry, or to any high literary utterance, come to possess and inform it. They come from a given soil, of seed wind-sown, God knows when and how. The poetic germs seem the latest given, though native races first attempt their utterance. Poetic expression, quite essential, must also be given—at least its organs of speech; then a poet of some sort is possible, and not till then.

Given this law, poetry—any high form of literature—is not a colonial product of any people. That primitive peoples first use poetic forms makes nothing against the notion I venture here to suggest. I am sure the idea was in or near Mr. Stedman's mind. It may have seemed entitled to no place. The fact remains, in modern times, no colony and but one of the younger peoples has produced poetry—a literature. R.

WASHINGTON, D. C., January 3, 1886.

MITHRAISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your "Notes" of this week the account of Mithraism, condensed from Orazio Marucchi, is somewhat incorrect. It was not "a form of Mazdeism founded by Zoroaster with the Zendavesta for its sacred book." Zoroaster's Mazdeism was pure Dualism. The worship of Mithra, or the Sun, like that of Anahita, or Water, was only introduced towards the end of the Achæmenian dynasty, when Mazdeism had been corrupted with Medic and Magian elements and Greek polytheism. The Zendavesta is what remains of the sacred books of the Mazdeans, but even the fragments which have reached us are of widely separated dates. The earlier Gathas, or hymns, attributed to Zoroaster, contain no allusions to Mithra or other subordinate gods, while in the later Yashts these are elevated almost to an equality with Ahura, or Hormazd. I should like to know what authority can be found for the conception that Mithra was a mediator between Hormazd and Ahriman, as I have never met with it.

Not less misleading is the assertion that "Mithraism became the great rival of Christianity." The rival of Christianity was not the Mithraic worship, but Manichæism—a very different faith, compounded by Manes of Buddhistic, Mazdean, and Christian elements. In it the Zoroastrian Dualism was profoundly modified and adapted to Jehovah and Satan, and nature-worship, such as Mithraism, became impossible, as the visible universe was the work of the Evil Principle. The savage death inflicted on Manes by Varahran I. and the extermination of his followers show the light in which the new faith was regarded by the Mazdeans. The most that can be said is, that the prevalence of the Mithraic worship in the Roman Empire facilitated the introduction of Manichæism.

It was perhaps natural that the early Christian writers, like Tertullian and Justin Martyr, should imagine that some of the Mithraic rites were borrowed from Christianity, but such influence as was exercised was rather in the opposite direction. What these writers regarded as an imitation of the Lord's Supper was the ancient Izeshne sacrifice, performed with the Draona or sacred cake, and the Homa-juice derived from the Vedic Soma sacrifice. This was followed by Manes; and the gradual modification of the Christian Eucharist from a substantial meal to the symbolical wafer and wine-and-water may reasonably be attributed to Manichæan example.

Very respectfully, H. C. L.

PHILADELPHIA, January 2, 1886.

Notes.

FROUDE'S new book of world travel, 'Oceana,' will be issued in this country by Chas. Scribner's Sons.

Macmillan & Co. make the tempting announcement of a new edition of the Writings of John Morley in eight monthly volumes, uniform with the Eversley edition of Kingsley. 'Voltaire' will lead the series.

'Letters to a Daughter,' by Mrs. Helen E. Starrett, is in the press of Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Ginn & Co. will have ready in March 'The Philosophy of Wealth: Economic Principles Newly Formulated,' by John B. Clark, Professor in Smith College.

An English edition of Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton's 'Poor Boys who Became Famous' will be brought out by Hodder & Stoughton.

Among the firstlings of the opening year the *New Princeton Review* may well receive priority of mention. The January number justifies the announcement of the prospectus that this revived periodical "will be neither a magazine nor a quarterly." Mr. Charles Dudley Warner's opening paper, on "Society in the New South," might have appeared in any of the popular magazines, where the two final sections of the "Criticisms, Notes, and Reviews" would be out of place, while quite adapted to the old ideal of a learned quarterly. Dr. McCosh discusses "What an American Philosophy Should Be"; Dr. C. H. Parkhurst sets forth "The Christian Conception of Property"; Professor Young enumerates in a very lucid manner the "Lunar Problems Now Under Debate"; Professor McMaster describes "A Free Press in the Middle Colonies," being a tribute to William Bradford, the printer. Mr. Cable's vein is manifest in the unsigned short story of the number, "Monsieur Motte." "The Political Situation," likewise of unacknowledged authorship, is a rambling and inconclusive discourse, in which the urgency of putting down the Mormons and having more to do (in a national, self-asserting way) with "abroad" seems to lie most heavily on the writer's mind. We cannot praise the typographical beauty of the *Review*.

We have received the first number of the *Church Magazine*, published monthly by L. R. Hamersley & Co., Philadelphia. Two articles are significant: "Shall We Have a Colored Clergy?" by the Rev. Calbraith B. Perry; and "Civil-Service Reform," by C. Stuart Patterson.

With the present month begins the Johns Hopkins *Modern Language Notes*, a monthly (for eight months of the year), edited by A. Marshall Elliott and his associates, James W. Bright, Julius Goebel, and Henry Alfred Todd. English, French, and German alone occupy the attention of the writers for Number 1, which gives promise of a very useful medium for brief interchange of ideas, reviews, etc.

Several literary masks have been laid aside and several literary incognitos pierced recently. 'At the Red Glove' is now published in London in the usual absurd three-volume form, without Mr. Reinhart's illustrations, and with the name of the author—Mrs. Macquoid. "Professor Hoffmann," the author of that admirable text-book 'Modern Magic,' has written a story for boys called 'Conjurer Dick; or, the Adventures of a Young Wizard,' on the title-page of which he has put also his real name, Angelo J. Lewis. "Sidney Luska," who wrote 'As it was Written,' is a young New Yorker, Mr. Henry Harland; and the anonymous author of a clever satire, 'That Very Mab,' is a young English poetess, Miss May Kendall.

It is common for American publishers to put English poems into the hands of American artists to illustrate as best they may; but a reversal of this international borrowing is as yet infrequent. Among the English holiday announcements, however, was one of 'Maud Muller,' illustrated with twenty-one full-page colored designs by Mr. George F. Carline.

Mr. John Coleman, an English actor, who re-

cently put forth his 'Recollections of Charles Reade,' is about to publish the 'Memoirs of Samuel Phelps: His Early Struggles and Romantic Adventures (related by himself), with Some Record of His Artistic Life and Work' (London: Remington: New York: Scribner & Welford).

Our esteemed monthly contemporary, *Reform*, whose place of publication is Norden, Germany, and whose aim is to promote a simpler German orthography, has its "Practical Department" and its "Theoretic Department." The first aims to be *unterhaltendes und belerendes*, or, as we should say, entertaining and instructive; and in this laudable endeavor it gives an example of "Quaker sly" (*schlauheit eines kwäkers*) in its issue for December 15, 1885. The opening sentence reads thus: "In der gegend fon Philadelphia, der buchhändlerstat Amerikas, trib schon seit langer zeit ein raüber sein wesen." In the recent debate over the Quaker City in these columns we believe no one went so far in its defence as to call it "the booksellers' city of America," as *Reform* does; but some were inclined to allow, with *Reform* and with the *Nation*, that "for a long time a robber had been carrying on his operations" in that vicinity. *Reform* says: "Jim-Joi war sein name"; but our own impression is that he was called Protection.

Numismatics is a dry study, although the filling up of a series of coins or the acquisition of some single rare one is of passionate interest to the collector. But the science attains a certain elevation when it gives occasion to such generalizations as in M. P. C. Roberts's memoir on the making of coins in Gaul. He traces the course of Gallic mintage, as it spread from the south coast, having its origin in the imitation of the bronze coins of Sicily and the silver coins of a Greco-Iberian colony. Everything shows that there were many places where coins were struck, a separate coinage apparently for every little tribe, and a diversity of systems of weights and measures that called loudly for a metric reform. With the Roman conquest came uniformity and centralization. Three mints only were left. But under Frankish rule the old Gallic practice returned. Not cities only, but even lesser places struck their own coins, on which the name of the magistrate and the coiner appear, and sometimes of the coiner alone. With the strengthening of the monarchy at Paris of course the right of free coinage was again withdrawn. Here is a systole and diastole, an alternate disintegration and integration, that might please Herbert Spencer, and bring numismatics into the rank of the philosophical sciences.

Switzerland has lately struggled with the liquor question. On the one hand it was seen that the passion for alcoholic drinks was gaining ground. The fortunes made by distillers, the increasing numbers of tavern keepers, the records of crime, all showed this clearly. On the other hand, the direct taxes, by which much of the cantonal revenue is raised, have reached their limits, and are always unpopular, and the Cantons cannot raise indirect taxes without the consent of the Federation. It was thought, therefore, to kill two birds with one stone, at once replenishing the treasury and reforming the morals of the people. The project was naturally warmly opposed. The distillers, seeing their gains menaced by the proposed tax on alcoholic drinks, sent their clerks through the country to distribute pamphlets and money, and on election day furnished free liquor to all who would promise them a vote. The Socialists did not disdain to seek popularity by raising the cry that the law which would leave untouched the rich man's wine would deprive the poor man of his glass of schnapps, his sole consolation in his troubles, and other such stuff. But they did not succeed. On the 25th of October the law was adopted by a vote of 229,619 against 157,035, and by a majority of 15 Cantons to 7. It remains to be seen what the effect will be. American experience shows that fighting rum is by no means the simple affair that it appears to the inexperienced reformer.

In opening the general meeting of the Rumanian Academy in 1884 King Carol proposed the publication of an 'Etymologicum Magnum Romaniæ,' to contain every word found in old documents, traces of which might soon be lost, and, as a beginning, he placed at the disposition of the Academy the sum of 6,000 francs. Pursuant to this proposition, the Academy drew up a careful scheme of work, and intrusted the editorship of the work to one of its members, Mr. B. Petriceicu-Hasdeu, member also of the Imperial Academy of Sciences of St. Petersburg, Professor of Comparative Philology in the University of Bucarest, Director-General of the State Archives, a man of great learning and accomplishments, and well known to all interested in Rumania. It is expected that the work will consist of ten volumes of four parts each. The first part, A–Acàt (acacia), has lately appeared, which contains also the general plan of the work. In the introduction the editor briefly discusses three questions: What is etymology? How can languages be mixed? In what does the physiognomy of a language consist? He leans very greatly toward the predominance of the Latin element in Rumanian, a fact specially worthy of attention, because he has a profound knowledge of the chief Slavic languages. Whatever may be our opinions as to Mr. Hasdeu's theories, there can be no question of his knowledge and ability, and this dictionary, which has long been a desideratum, will be gladly received by all who are interested in the Romance languages.

Prof. Dr. Emil Schürer, of the University of Giessen, has just issued one-half of a second edition of his excellent 'Lehrbuch der Neutestamentlichen Zeitgeschichte,' first published in 1874. It appears under a new and, considering that the "Zeitgeschichte" does not embrace the history of Syria, Egypt, or any other country adjoining the cradle of Christianity, a more appropriate title: 'Geschichte des Jüdischen Volkes im Zeitalter Jesu Christi' (Leipzig: "1886"). Of the new edition, which is almost a new work, the second part is published first, the author having begun his rewriting where he expected most of it to be needed, with the intention of connecting both parts, as in the original edition, in one volume, which eventually proved impossible. The volume issued is, in fact, larger by two hundred pages (of the same size) than the whole of the 'Lehrbuch.' The new publication is incomparably more valuable to scholars, being prodigiously rich in quotations and references, and often expatiating on topics which were originally barely alluded to; but it is less handy for common or school use, and also less readable, owing to the intrusion of much dry detail into the text. A mere glance over it reveals the vast extent of the antiquarian labor that has been performed in this field, by Jewish and Christian scholars, within the last decade, as well as of the wonderful scrupulousness with which Dr. Schürer has followed it all up. The chapters on Pharisees and Sadducees, Essenes, and similar subjects show how ready he was to modify his most elaborate pages in conformity to altered critical views.

"M.," who inquired through these columns about art instruction for women in Munich, is advised to correspond with Frau Prof. F. von Lietzen-Mayer, Schelling Strasse 8, I, Munich.

The address is desired of "M. E. W.," writer of a communication in the *Nation* of November 26, 1885, page 445.

—The January *Century* has a scientific novelty in the shape of some curious and lifelike illustrations of extinct "feathered forms," of which a large proportion are purely imaginary restorations from fossil remains, and, by exhibiting to the eye what the eye never saw, make evolution graphic in a peculiarly impressive way. The number is, however, rather more noticeable for the brief articles which are becoming a pronounced feature of this magazine. Doctor Waldstein, in a very few pages, insists on the necessity of education for the artist as well as the public, and characterizes in very plain words the artist class as one of imperfect intellectual culture and unfortunately clannish instincts; and, in fact, there is no department of work in which a native dexterity, a mere bent and talent, is so unhesitatingly looked on as a guarantee of success by itself alone. There is a happy audacity in his speaking of the opinion that "we are at heart a materialistic people" as "long ago exploded." His didactic views are sustained by another short article containing notes of five of Carolus Duran's talks to his pupils, in which the necessity of thinking out a picture, as well as of reproducing forms, is the main point dwelt upon. The most vigorous article—one which enchains attention—is Mr. Linton's recollections and brief portraits of four revolutionary Republicans whom he knew in his Chartist days. His memory of them is an emotion that really burns with the true fire of the spirit, and hence sets before us the life and sacrifice of Lamennais, Mazzini, Worcell, and Herzen with extraordinary power.

—General Pope gives the history of the second battle of Bull Run as the leading war paper. It was impossible for the principal actor in a campaign which has been the subject of fierce controversy, to tell its story without feeling, and it is evident that time has not greatly softened his judgment of the conduct of Gen. Fitz-John Porter on that field. General Pope's view of it, whether the reader has taken one side or the other, is a necessary part of the debate. It is given with directness and vigor. A part of it which all will welcome is the new light thrown upon the general purpose of Mr. Lincoln at the beginning of the campaign, the circumstances of General Halleck's call to the chief command of the national armies, and the extent to which General Pope himself was acting under explicit orders in accepting the risks of a general engagement with Lee. The maps are numerous, and tend greatly to give order and purpose to the movements from August 26th to the 30th. The other illustrations contain two or three of the invaluable views from photographs of the country, and good portraits of Halleck, Sigel, Schenck, Grover, Kearny, and Stevens. Mr. Goss's "Recollections of a Private" are incidents of the same field, pleasantly told, and mingled with some broader criticisms of the campaign.

—The January number of *Lippincott's* comes to us with the new features that have been already announced—a simple and attractive cover, admirable type, with the line running across the page, and a strengthened list of contributors. This change brings the magazine boldly out of the border-land of provincialism which has been its habitat, into the group of the national magazines. Both editor and publisher are to be congratulated on the advance, and for the taste and judgment displayed in its manner. Any author who cares for the way in which his work is given to the public will be pleased to have it appear in this dress, and he may be sure of good company for his name in the table of contents. The invigoration of the staff, it is to be observed, is mainly from foreign blood, though there is promise given of some home infusion in the future. The improvement in the quality of the serial fiction is especially noticeable, but criticism of it belongs elsewhere in our columns. Grant Al-

len and Bourke Marston are the only occasional English writers of note in this issue, both of their contributions being distinctly Anglican; and Louise Chandler Moulton is the sole representative of the better American magazinists. By the way, we remark that it is unintelligible that such an inanity as "L. A. W.'s" lines should find space for itself in a number otherwise so well edited. The most excellent piece, to our thinking, is a bundle of excerpts from a half-dozen old *Westminster* reviews of George Eliot's, of which the critical value is great. Tennyson, Kingsley, Browning, Dickens, Ruskin, and Arnold are dealt with; and after the thirty years of examination they have subsequently undergone, the penetrating and catholic character of George Eliot's remarks on them, written in the way of mere quarterly review, comes out with great force, and to the honor of the splendid reputation she has achieved since penning them. In the case of Tennyson only her words proved deficient; in the others they forecast future judgment.

—The publications of the Boston Public Library are nearly always of the greatest use in those libraries which lack the means, or the energy, or the interest in bibliographical progress, to follow its example. Owing to the generous policy of the authorities, also, the special catalogues are sold at cost price, so that, in the case of the just published new edition (the seventh) of the Fiction Catalogue, any one who writes for it gets a large octavo of 238 pages for 25 cents, postpaid. Considering the large number of books enumerated, and the great variety of taste to be provided for, the most noticeable thing about the catalogue is the omissions. These are plainly divisible into two classes, the first consisting of books of a supposed immoral tendency, such as those of Zola, "Ouida," and Rhoda Broughton; and the second embracing books of all degrees of merit, but having this in common, that they are reprinted in this country only in the form of the cheap "libraries." No other explanation than their typographic form occurs to us for the exclusion of such works as the recent novels of W. E. Norris, E. D. Gerard, R. Buchanan, R. C. Francillon, P. P. Jephson, W. Besant, etc. As to the moral test, the taste of the censor seems to have been somewhat capricious, as, for instance, Balzac's 'Eugénie Grandet' is excluded, while 'César Birotteau' is admitted; and if it is the young who are to be protected, a nice point is raised by the retention of 'Tom Jones' and the tabuing of Rhoda Broughton.

—As regards the technically bibliographical features, we find in the present edition a considerable advance on all former works of the kind, especially in giving the real authorship to anonymous and pseudonymous books, though even easily accessible sources of information have sometimes been neglected. Thus no notice is taken of the fact, made public a year and a half ago in the *Nation* and elsewhere, that 'The Picture in my Uncle's Dining-Room,' 'The Old M'sieu's Secret,' and 'Where Shall He Find Her?' are all translations of Mme. Reybaud's 'Mlle. de Malepeire.' Elsewhere we find two translations of one of Erckmann-Chatrian's stories catalogued as distinct works. As to pseudonyms, the practice is most inconsistent. There can be no better test of a cataloguer's habit of mind than the way he treats "George Eliot" and "George Sand." Both these ladies were and are known by their pseudonyms only, not merely on their title-pages, but in every aspect of life, except, of course, in their family relations. The average reader knows not that they had another name, while, even with the literary class, it requires an effort of memory to recall what the names were. And not only is this true, but it is recognized as true by those whose opinion and example should determine the practice of cataloguers, viz., their literary executors, as is shown in the publication of George Sand's (not Mme. Dudevant's) correspondence, and in her husband's life of George Eliot (not Mary Ann Cross). We are pleased to see that the Boston cataloguer takes this view as regards George Eliot, though in the other case he follows the doctrinaire theory of always placing an author's books under the real, even if practically unknown, name, at whatever cost of convenience. As regards pseudonyms in general, we observe but few errors or omissions. "E. Oswald" (Bernhardine Schulze), "Marie Oliver" (Carrie L. Brown), "Moritz v. Reichenbach" (Valeska Bethusy-Huc), and "Margaret Vandegrift" are passed as real names, while "Rita," though marked "pseud.," has not, bracketed with it, the author's name (Eliza [Gollan] von Booth). In the case of Miss De la Ramée (Ouida) the name is spelled, in disagreement with other cataloguers and compilers, Rame, and, what is more remarkable, it is alphabetized under R. According to all rules, if the owner of the name is English, it should be placed under D (as De Quincey, De Vere, etc.); if French, under L.

—The 10th of December was a peculiar day at the French Academy. Letters gave precedence to Science in a body whose origin was purely literary, and whose course of action has always been removed from scientific researches. M. J. Bertrand, a mathematician, the successor of J. B. Dumas, a chemist, took his seat for the first time and was welcomed by Louis Pasteur. It is a gratification to see scholars whose lives have been devoted to science thus honored by the highest literary body of France, and showing themselves worthy of that honor by a purity, precision, force, and even artistic grace of language that leaves nothing to be desired. The reception speech of M. Bertrand was grave and temperate in its tone. Although he touched upon the chief merits of his predecessor, he did not make a panegyric of such warmth as might have been expected; but even in this the orator was true to his severity of manner, to his scientific precision. The answer of M. Pasteur was a happy contrast to the speech of the recipiendary. After felicitously and warmly congratulating the new member, and summarily stating his claims to the honor conferred upon him, he passed on to dwell upon the labors of J. B. Dumas. He spoke of him more in the tone of a loving disciple, an impassioned admirer, than in that of the director of the Academy. This personal note and the emotion of the speaker added not a little charm to the highly-finished speech of a man on whom the eyes of the world are now fixed.

—In the days of his prosperity, Mr. Henry Villard, among numerous charitable, philanthropic, and educational foundations in his fatherland, provided the means for publishing collectively the earliest historical documents relating to his native city of Speyer, in Rhenish Bavaria. The work, undertaken at the instance of the Pfalz Historical Society, was intrusted to a relative of Mr. Villard's, Mr. Alfred Hilgard, and has been executed with the utmost scrupulousness and intelligence, producing a fine quarto volume, 'Urkunden zur Geschichte der Stadt Speyer' (Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner). Neither the collections of Remling (1852-53) nor of Lehmann (1711) rendered the present one superfluous, in which both public and private sources have been drawn upon, with the general aim to elucidate the external relations of the city to other Rhenish cities, to neighboring princes and knights, and to the course of German history, as well as the municipal contests, lay and spiritual. Happily, while the French in 1689 left hardly one stone upon another, the city archives appear to have been remarkably preserved, and but few losses have occurred in the meantime. The first document goes back to A. D. 653, and the last of the 536 here brought together bears date of A. D. 1349, in which year the municipal government was reorganized on a pure guild basis. The text is either Latin or German, and the drift of it presents no unusual difficulties, while the contents afford a good deal of instruction and sometimes of amusement concerning things mediæval. Pacts between emperor, king, pope, bishop, and the city council, and leagues between Speyer and Mainz and Worms, for example, abound. So do ecclesiastical squabbles and contests over wood, marsh, and meadow; differences between bakers and millers, truces between clothmakers and weavers, and pledges of mutual support by the guilds; arbitrations; renunciations; privileges accorded to the cathedral or to the municipality; gifts to pious houses and to hospitals. Now and again, too, ferriage and tolls of the Rhine are in question.

—The Jews figure prominently in these records. Bishop Rüdiger gives notice in 1084: "Collectos igitur locavi extra communionem et habitacionem ceterorum civium, et ne a pecoris turbe insolencia facile turbarentur, muro eos circumdedi"; but this shepherdly care cost the flock annually "tres libras et dimidiam Spirensis monete ad communem usum fratrum." Typical is the pledge by King Adolf, in 1298, of all his revenues from the Jews of Speyer to insure his indemnifying the city for damages done by his troops in passing through on his Alsatian expedition: "Donamus vobis et tradimus . . . in totum iudeos nostros Spirenses . . . ita ut vos ipsos iudeos vice nostra utamini et fruamini totaliter." And in one instance a King "checks against" them so far as they were "not otherwise appropriated." In 1340 the Jews borrow of the municipality 1,100 pounds with interest at 100. The year before, on December 10, Bishop Gerhard took them under his protection for ten years on condition of an annual payment of 500 pounds farthings; and the next day the secular authorities offered a like protection for 300 pounds. In 1349, King Carl IV. relinquished to the city all his rights of property in the Jewish community. Interesting are the penal ordinances for the citizens at large. In 1314, for instance, as to opprobious language: "Wer ein mensche wider siner cristenheit schiltet und in nennet eins pherdes sun eder eins hundes eder eins andern vihes, der git fumf schillinge spirscher deme burgermesteren," etc. There was no ordinance, as now in some German cities, against piano-playing, but there being too much music in the streets at night—narrow streets, in which every note told—it was necessary to denounce the charivari of the strolling nocturnal bands: "das grosze unruge . . . vom disen nahtgengern, die nahtes gent mit phiffen, drumben, orgeln unde seiten spil," not to speak of *quinternen*, *rotden*, *vidlen*, and other ear-splitting instruments. The Rat, or city magistrates, regulated the wages of stonecutters, masons, roofers, carpenters, etc., as also the making of cloth—"Dicimus pannos debere fieri tali modo: . . . Item, omnes panni generaliter, qui hic parantur, habere debent in latitudine II ulnas." The warp must be hand-woven, etc. The appendices throw much light on these matters. There is an index of names, but no table of contents. Several photographic facsimiles adorn the volume.

STEPHEN'S FAWCETT.

Life of Henry Fawcett. By Leslie Stephen. London: Smith, Elder & Co. 1885.

"FAWCETT," writes Mr. Stephen, "had been for thirty years one of my most intimate and valued

friends. It would be strange if during that period I had not learnt to understand one of the simplest and most transparent of men."

In this sentence Mr. Stephen hits off, with exquisite skill, the most striking trait of Fawcett's character, and proves, if proof were needed, that he thoroughly understood the friend to whose fame he has raised the most touching, the most truthful, and, therefore, the most honorable of monuments. But a critic may doubt whether the clearly marked lines of Fawcett's genius may not (paradoxical as the assertion may sound) be a real hindrance to his being if not understood yet fully appreciated by the majority of Englishmen. There exists at the present day an unwholesome craving for biographical revelations, and in Fawcett there was nothing to reveal, just as there was nothing to hide. The present age feels a morbid delight in the sympathetic study of sickly, abnormal, tortuous, and inconsistent natures. In Fawcett everything was wholesome, regular, strong, and self consistent. He was all made of a piece. He was assuredly not without his faults and limitations, but his deficiencies were exactly the wants which one would expect to find connected with his virtues. Whoever cares for nothing but what is strange and *bizarre* had better not occupy himself with the 'Life of Henry Fawcett': he will find nothing there to his taste. And even those readers of whom there will always, one may trust, be tens of thousands, on both sides of the Atlantic, who can value the greatness of a large and transparent nature, must yet be on their guard lest the simplicity should conceal the rarity of Fawcett's character.

He belonged in truth—and this is the point of view from which he may most fairly be criticised—rather to a past than to the present generation. He and his friends admittedly represented in opinion the traditions of utilitarian Radicalism. But Fawcett was bound by something much closer than mere similarity of dogma to the school of Mill and of Bentham. He would, both from his virtues and from his deficiencies, have been perfectly at home with Bentham, with Mill, with Buller, with John Austin, or with Macaulay. We can scarcely feel as if he was really of the same make as the men with whom he was connected in actual life. The generation who have admired Carlyle, Tennyson, Maurice, Kingsley, and Ruskin, Newman, and Gladstone, is not the world in which, if one judged merely by natural affinity, one would place Fawcett. Mr. Stephen tells us that Fawcett could not understand why political economy should, even in derision, be called the "dismal" science. He did not feel the force of a nickname which has done more to discredit the scientific investigation into the laws of wealth than all the fallacies propagated by all the paradox mongers who for the last fifty years have flourished, and do still flourish, to the increase of the intellectual confusion of an already confused enough world. Fawcett would probably not even have understood how any sarcasm could have more weight than an argument. He did not share the feeling, perfectly intelligible at any rate to men such as Bagehot or Professor Seeley, or his own biographer, Mr. Leslie Stephen. He belonged, in short, to a type of character as common among the great men of fifty or sixty years back as it is rare in the present generation. The best way to understand him is to examine what were the traits which, while they marked him off from his contemporaries, also made him exert so much influence among men who felt, without knowing it, the lack of the gifts which he possessed.

The two features which pervaded his whole nature were simplicity and strength—a quality which is far more closely connected than most persons believe with clearness of mind and consequent singleness of purpose.

In every part of Fawcett's conduct the simplicity becomes apparent. Clear, certain, ascertained truths, whether of mathematics, logic, or of political economy (which, like law, is only a form of applied logic), were the things which really commanded his intellectual interest. Even in his own sphere as a political economist, he did not, we gather from Mr. Stephen as from our own slight acquaintance with Fawcett's works, shine by the novelty or the subtlety of his thoughts. He was absolutely wanting in the flexibility and adaptiveness of Bagehot. He had little of that desire for the reconciliation of opposite views which gives a singular interest and occasionally imparts a curious weakness to the speculations of Mill. But to put against these merits, Fawcett's clear strong mind held the doctrines which he had mastered with a tenacity and a faith utterly foreign to a generation most of whom, like Mr. Brooke in 'Middlemarch,' think every dogma true "up to a certain point," or, in other words, indolently accept doctrines which they only half believe because they have not energy to carry any doctrine whatever out to its full consequences. With Fawcett, on the other hand, to believe a view to be true was the same thing as to be willing to act upon its truth. We have no doubt that he would have sympathized with the somewhat grotesque indignation displayed by James Mill when John, then certainly not more than nine years old, wrote an essay containing the statement that something was "true in theory, but not true in practice." Fawcett, indeed, had too much genial kindliness to punish a child for a logical error, but the idea that a thing could be at once true and not true, a doctrine to hold, but not a doctrine to live by, was utterly repugnant to his whole tone of mind.

With the great thinkers of the eighteenth century Fawcett firmly believed in Reason, and was prepared to make Reason, as far as she would carry him, the guide of his life. This earnest desire to follow out in practice the truths which his mind grasped, is visible both in his dealings with others and in his conduct of his own life, and it is this simple acting upon simple convictions which so greatly distinguishes him from the crowd who have neither definite beliefs nor fixed courses of action. The truth, for example, that self-help and thrift are virtues, would probably be admitted by any man who can understand the meaning of words. But the number of persons who, either in giving charity or in the views they take of policy and legislation, are really guided by a desire to promote independence or economy, is infinitesimally small. With Fawcett, on the other hand, the belief that thrift and independence were essential elements, both of individual and of national prosperity, was a principle which regulated all his views, both of benevolence and of policy. It is curious to see, as one follows Fawcett's political career, what simplicity and vigor the genuine adherence to very elementary economical or moral axioms could give to the conduct of a member of Parliament. At every turn he tests measures proposed for his acceptance by the criterion of their effect in promoting or in undermining independence. No doubt this consideration is not the sole matter to which politicians must give attention, and Fawcett's adherence to too exclusive a test no doubt sometimes led him wrong: but the tenacity with which he held to a truth that he had realized was sufficient of itself to raise him from a politician to a statesman. The rule, moreover, which he applied to others he applied to himself. To rely upon himself, not to yield to the hardest strokes of fate, to practise self-help on the grandest scale under the most difficult of all circumstances, was the one supreme effort, as it was also the final triumph, of his life.

A reader, however, may say that at this point our criticism passes from the simplicity to the strength of Fawcett's character. The remark is true as far as it goes, but the matter well worth observation is that the directness of Fawcett's intellect stands in intimate connection with the force of his will. No one, of course, could have conquered in the contest with an obstacle which, like blindness, seemed at first sight an absolute bar to Fawcett's intended career, who had not been endowed with extraordinary physical nerve and courage. You could hardly see him walk without knowing at once that he was one of the boldest of men. But lack of physical bravery is after all not the main cause of hesitation: *Hamlet* did not want pluck or nerve. The true reason why the men of the nineteenth century seem deficient in resolution is that they are paralyzed by the worship of inconsistent ideals. Many men can act strenuously enough to obtain what they ardently desire. Feebleness in action generally means want of strong desire for a clearly perceived end. Half of Fawcett's superiority lay in the clearness and in the simplicity both of his intellect and of his desires. His power, moreover, with others as probably over himself, was in more ways than one increased by his blindness. We are no believers in the optimism which sees a disguised blessing hidden under every palpable misfortune. To the sufferer, at least, the disguise is in general thick enough to render the blessing absolutely invisible. But a calamity which cannot be called a blessing may be an opportunity. The blow which for a moment struck down Fawcett, and would most assuredly thoroughly have crushed any weaker man, enabled him to show both to others, and—a thing of even more consequence—to himself, the heroism which was in him. He fell back, almost from the moment at which he was struck blind, on his own belief in self-help; and the difficulties of his contest with fortune either displayed or created a concentration of power and depth of character which may have been a surprise even to his own heart. It is easy at any rate to believe that had he retained his eyesight, he would have risen at the bar and have ended life as nothing much above an energetic Q. C. in receipt of an income of five or six thousand a year, and, had his true public spirit lifted him to something higher than mere forensic success, he might probably have died without the knowledge that he had within him something of heroic stuff.

Mr. Cotter Morison has, if our memory does not deceive us, remarked of Macaulay that the ease and prosperity of his life deprived him of the opportunity of displaying or practising on any grand scale that high care for the public welfare, and that sturdy independence, of which one can see traces in his character and in the acts of his early political life. This opportunity for greatness was never wanting to Fawcett. Even had he only succeeded in occupying the position of a professor, he would have done more than could have been accomplished in his position by one man out of a thousand. To have held firmly to the resolution that he would take part in politics, and to have become one of the leading statesmen of the day, was not only to achieve a feat which could hardly have been performed by one man in a million, but—a thing of much greater moment—was to brighten the possibilities of existence for every man afflicted with blindness. Nor is it unnatural to believe that the concentration of thought and action forced upon Fawcett gave additional depth to his convictions, while his misfortune increased his sympathy with the sufferings of others. Mr. Stephen dwells upon the chivalrous nature of his friend, and it is clear enough that as Fawcett lived on, the chivalry and the gallantry of his nature increased. As a politician

he displayed some considerable defects. He does not appear to have been strong either in foresight or insight. Such prevision as he exhibited consisted not so much in seeing into the facts before him (he never, for instance, completely understood the educational difficulty presented by the collision of theological beliefs), but in his strict faith that economical and moral truths would sooner or later produce their effects, whether men liked these effects or not. But if he was not endowed with any prophetic spirit, he raised politics far above their ordinary level, both by his intense interest in the claims to consideration of classes who, like the inhabitants of India, find it difficult to make their voices heard in the English Parliament, and by his combined belief both in democratic progress and in the necessity that the democracy should hear the truth. He was, in short, one of those men who, to use Mr. Stephen's words, "fear to speak an insincere word, and fear nothing else." The simple clearness of his intellect and the direct energy of his conduct almost blend together. Truthfulness and strength become perfect sincerity displayed in the highest form of public spirit.

The very words "public spirit" lead us on to a peculiarity in Fawcett in which he resembled a past generation, and was unlike the men of his own time. It is, we take it, pretty clear that neither religion, nor certainly theology, had much hold on Fawcett's heart or intellect. It is of course impossible for any one to speak with certainty of the hidden feelings and aspirations of any man, and least of all of one who, transparent as he was, seems to have practised considerable reticence in matters of feeling. Still, it is probably not rash to say that Fawcett's interests were a good deal more secular than religious. Some critics of his life seem to have found a difficulty in understanding how a person devoid of all care for theological dogma could yet have risen in many ways so much above the moral level of ordinary men. The end of an article is certainly not the place in which to discuss the problems presented by the contrast between the secular and the religious ideal. One historical fact, however, may in this connection be fairly noticed. The philanthropists or reformers of the eighteenth century, such as Voltaire, Condorcet, Turgot, or Bentham, were either sceptical or indifferent on all matters of theological dogma. But no error is more misleading than the idea that such men were without enthusiasm. The desire for reforms which should benefit mankind, the passion for enlightenment, zeal for the propagation of utilitarian morality—these and other forms of public spirit were their religion. With Fawcett, as with them, public spirit was a true form of faith.

Incidents and Anecdotes of the Civil War. By Admiral Porter. D. Appleton & Co. 1885.

Admiral Porter is not only a distinguished naval commander, but he is also well known as a writer of romances. In this book he has combined the two qualities. The book reads quite like a romance, and yet it is confined solely to the naval exploits of himself and others during the war. It repeatedly disclaims the idea of being in any sense a history, though the Admiral tells us more than once that he has written a history "of all the events that came under my cognizance during the conflict, which may or not be published at some future time." This book is just what its title denotes, a series of anecdotes of the war, a string of old sailors' "yarns," most capitally spun, and sufficiently related to great events and great people to give them a never failing interest. Some of the language which represents the remarks of Grant and Sherman and others is not to be considered in the light of a verbatim report, nor are the anecdotes themselves to be judged by the standard of accuracy to which they would be subjected if they were put forth as deliberate historical statements. "These reminiscences are simply for amusement"; as such they must be judged, and there can be little doubt of their being considered a success, or of their value as throwing a side light—and sometimes a strong one—on nearly all the important naval events of the war. The relief of Pensacola, the capture of New Orleans, the operations near Vicksburg, the Red River Expedition, the capture of Fort Fisher, and the final operations on the James River—in all of these Admiral Porter was a chief actor, and he has something new and entertaining to say about all of them.

His opinions about men and events are very freely expressed, though he evidently endeavors to avoid anything that might appear spiteful or malicious. When he comes to speak of Butler and Banks, however, this requires a great effort. He cannot refrain from ridiculing at great length Butler's famous plan of knocking down Fort Fisher by exploding a powder ship in the inlet abreast of it. Some rebels who deserted on the night of the explosion were brought before the Admiral, and he questioned them as to the effect. "It was dreadful," said one of them; "it woke up everybody in the fort." For Banks and his Red River expedition he has hardly less contempt, and he more than intimates that the whole expedition had no military object, but was simply a gigantic cotton speculation. Having written his own "strictly true and complete account of the Banks campaign" (which, however, he has no intention of publishing at present), he reminds Banks that he has never yet made his report, and playfully suggests that "perhaps the General, in his declining years, may think it worth his while to use the talents he is known to possess in an eminent degree, to write a history of that campaign."

Of Lincoln and Grant, and Farragut and Sherman, the Admiral cannot say too much. His respect for them is profound, and his admiration hearty and genuine. He considers Grant's campaign in rear of Vicksburg "the most remarkable and most successful military operation of the war"; and as no accounts of it have ever been written which he considers at all satisfactory, he dashes off eleven pages of poetry in order to describe it properly. The passage of the forts below New Orleans is equally great in his mind as a naval effort, and his praises of Farragut are lavish; but he claims for himself the honor of first suggesting the expedition to the authorities in Washington, and of proposing Farragut's name to the President as the best man to command it. In order to refute the statements of the late Secretary Welles concerning this matter, the Admiral narrates in great detail the circumstances under which his proposals were made.

Of Sherman he speaks in the tone of intimate comradeship, as he well has the right to do, for no two men ever worked more earnestly and heartily in accord for a great cause than these two. They are now the only survivors of the great chiefs of the war time. "Old Tecumseh and myself still hold on, two tough old knots, with a good deal of the steel in us yet, and quite enough vitality to lay out any number of those who pride themselves on what they can do."

None of the Admiral's entertaining stories, however, have the pathetic interest of his last two chapters, in which he describes his intercourse with Mr. Lincoln in March and April, 1865. When the President saw that the war was nearing its end, he left Washington and came to City Point, in order to be in close communication with General Grant, and to be free to act without consulting his Cabinet. He arrived on March 24 and returned on April 10, only five days before his death. His last two weeks were thus passed on board of Porter's flagship, entirely unattended. He declined peremptorily all requests from his Cabinet to be allowed to join him, and refused to see the Vice-President when he came to visit him. He seemed to find in the Admiral a congenial spirit, and sat with him by the hour discussing the events of the day and telling the stories of which they reminded him. Toward the latter part of his visit the Admiral grew very anxious as to the safety of his guest, and never allowed the President to be out of his sight for a moment, night or day. With him—and with him alone—Mr. Lincoln entered Richmond while it was still in flames, the day after the surrender. Owing to a chapter of accidents they reached the city in a rowboat unannounced; on landing they started to walk through the streets.

"There was a small house at this landing, and behind it were some twelve negroes digging with spades. The leader of them was an old man sixty years of age. He raised himself to an upright position as we landed, and put his hands up to his eyes. Then he dropped his spade and sprang forward. 'Bress de Lord,' he said, 'dere is de great Messiah! I knowed him as soon as I seed him. He's bin in my heart fo' long years, an' he's cum at las' to free his chillun from deir bondage! Glory, Hallelujah!' And he fell upon his knees before the President and began kissing his feet. The others followed his example, and in a minute Mr. Lincoln was surrounded by these people, who had treasured up the recollection of him caught from a photograph, and had looked up to him for four years as the one who was to lead them out of captivity."

The rest of this extraordinary and ever memorable visit is told in equally graphic style. It forms a picture well worth preserving, and all the more valuable in that it is drawn by the sole survivor of the scene. While they remained in the vicinity of Richmond several suspicious persons attempted to board the Admiral's ship. One of them, he thinks, was Booth. The frequent recurrence of these visits thoroughly alarmed the Admiral as to the President's safety, and when the latter expressed his intention to return to Washington, the Admiral sent two ships with him as far as Baltimore, and directed the commanding officer never to leave his side until he saw his charge safely in the White House. The mission was successfully performed, and the officer returned to Hampton Roads and so reported to the Admiral. But Porter could not free his mind from the idea, after what he had seen at Richmond, that the President's life was in danger. He therefore determined to go to Washington, take advantage of the intimacy lately established between the President and himself to dissuade him from exposing himself in public, and communicate his suspicions to the Cabinet. Had he started a day sooner perhaps he might have saved the President's life. When he reached Baltimore he heard that the President had been assassinated a few hours before.

The Founders of the American Republic: A history and biography, with a supplementary chapter on ultra-democracy. By Charles Mackay, author of 'Life and Liberty in America,' etc. Edinburgh: William Blackwood & Sons. 1885. Pp. 434.

Dr. Mackay's account of the founders of the American republic is agreeably written, appreciative, and generally accurate. The founders under consideration are Washington (in two chapters), Adams, Jefferson, Franklin, and Madison. Perhaps he rates Jefferson too high, and does not do full justice to Adams as a political thinker certainly he takes pains to set forth all Adams's personal foibles and defects of temper, and says not a word of Jefferson's faults of character, which we suppose to have been as great and as manifest. We think, also, that he undervalues

Washington's intellectual powers and military abilities. But if Washington and Adams are depreciated, it is only by comparison with the hearty admiration bestowed upon the other three.

It is not necessary to read the chapter upon "The Dangers of Ultra-Democracy," because we all know well enough what those dangers are, and we do not see that Dr. Mackay tells us anything about them which we have not already been told a hundred times. Nevertheless, the chapter is worth reading, if only to see what notion of the war of the rebellion it is possible for an intelligent Englishman to entertain in the year 1885. The author is a hearty believer in the rights of nullification and of secession, which he considers the corner-stone of our liberties, and represents General Jackson (of whom he gives an account which reads like a caricature) as a fanatical champion of centralization. We cannot quite make out, however, whether he regards nullification and secession as a right under the Constitution, or only as the natural right of revolution. We suppose the latter, inasmuch as (p. 359) he speaks of the "compact" established by "the Washingtonians, Federalists, and Centralizers," as holding "its ground, after a certain unstable fashion, till the election of Mr. Lincoln." Apparently, then, the Constitution in operation until 1861 was the work of Washington and his school, and they were certainly no believers in nullification. If, then, secession was an act of revolution, it is hard to see why the supporters of the Union are censured for suppressing it.

In the following extract the author's confusion of ideas has resulted in a remarkable confusion of language; but we hasten to say that it is the only ungrammatical sentence we have met with, Dr. Mackay's style being as a rule clear and correct: "From the very first the friends of these conflicting principles were at variance, and on more than one occasion the upholders of the rights of the several States and commonwealths that claimed to be supreme within their own boundaries, and called themselves Democrats, was at issue with the Washingtonians and Federalists, who called themselves Republicans, and would have established what was virtually an autocracy and not a democracy, if their idea of the one Republic, paramount to the thirteen Commonwealths, found acceptance" (p. 359). On page 393 he says that "The time has come when the whole truth should be told, not alone as to the real origin, but as to the conduct of this unfortunate and needless war." Dr. Mackay's qualifications for accomplishing this desirable task may be judged from his statements that Bell, as well as Douglas and Breckinridge, were Democrats (p. 389); that Theodore Parker's was the "one only voice" raised in denunciation of Webster's pro-slavery attitude; that Mr. Lincoln's name "had scarcely been heard of beyond the limits of the State of Ohio" (p. 389); and that "the Southern army was composed of none but volunteers" (p. 395).

In other parts of the work we find a few errors, most of them of no importance. On page 101, Cornwallis's occupation of Yorktown is stated to have been after Washington reached Williamsburgh. On page 139, Washington is said to have been called from his retirement to take command of the army, "in view of an approaching rupture with Great Britain," it being really on occasion of an actual declaration of war against France. On page 362 the Hartford Convention is said to have "loudly and all but unanimously expressed its determination to secede from the Union [but how could a convention secede from the Union?] unless the central Government agreed to a peace with the mother country." Curtis for Custis (p. 25); Artemus for Artemas Ward (p. 63), confounding the humorist and the General; Poor Robin for Poor Richard (p. 296); and Livingstone for Livingston (p. 373) are no doubt slips of the pen; but as to the assertion (p. 401) that "the will of a bigoted and cruel majority led, in Europe and America, to the burning of witches," we should be glad to have mentioned the instances, with their date.

To expose all the errors and misstatements of this closing chapter, it would be necessary to quote nearly the whole of it; but we have room for only the following extraordinary paragraph, which, we think, requires no comment. It refers to the years before the rebellion:

"Mr. Horace Greeley, the celebrated editor of the New York *Tribune*, who exercised a powerful influence over the Anti-Slavery and Republican party of the North and West, openly and persistently advocated separation. In lines that were continually recited in speeches and writings by the Abolitionists, he described the American flag as a 'flaunting lie' and 'a blood-stained rag' that ought to be torn down from every battlement and steeple in the North, and that should be hoisted half-mast high in sign of its degradation, in every American ship on the ocean. He advocated the independence of the Northern States, or any portion of them; or, if independence were not attainable, their incorporation with Canada, and a return to their allegiance to the 'Old Country'—anything rather than continuance in a union with the Southern States, that maintained and endeavored to extend negro slavery."

Now, Horace Greeley ran for the Presidency against General Grant, and on page 403, by way of depreciating Jackson's and Grant's qualifications for this office, we are told that their military achievements "proved sufficient to render nugatory those which were founded upon the culture, experience, and wise statesmanship of the vastly superior men who were opposed to them."

A History of the United States for Schools. With an introductory history of the discovery and English colonization of North America. By Alexander Johnston, author of a 'History of American Politics,' Professor of Jurisprudence and Political Economy in Princeton College. Henry Holt & Co. 1885. Pp. xx, 473.

Professor Johnston tells us in his preface what is the special purpose which has led him to add another to our many school histories of the United States. It is, in a word, because they all more or less miss the end of a text-book of history. They are in great part story books, vainly trying to compete for the pupil's interest at the imaginative period with books devoted to that single end. "History," he says, "is a task and a method of mental discipline; our school histories attempt to relieve it, as no one attempts to relieve grammar or arithmetic, by story telling." To the colonial period has been hitherto assigned an inordinate space. So much room has been given to Smith and Pocahontas, Putnam and the wolf, "that the real history of the United States is cramped, marred, and brought to a lame and impotent conclusion." "For much the same reasons, other topics not essential to the main subject, such as the tribal institutions of the Aborigines, and the Spanish conquests of Mexico and Peru, have been left untouched." Certainly; why not? Why should our school histories, or, for the matter of that, our grown-up histories, confound the Western Continent with the United States? Why should they give the impression that the history of the soil we live on is continuous from 1497 to 1587—a time when it is practically a blank? It comes to this, that boys and girls know who Cortes or Atahuallpa was, and do not know who William Tyndale or Henry of Navarre was; and yet if United States history for schools must include the sixteenth century, the two latter should be among its central figures, and not the two former.

Let us hear another capital paragraph from Professor Johnston's preface: "As the book is not intended to be a story book, so it is not intended to be a picture book. The pictures in this volume have been introduced with regret, and only as a yielding to the present prejudice, which denies an effective audience to the school history not so illustrated. It is to be hoped that the time will soon come when the space now surrendered to the graphic additions of the average schoolboy's pencil will be utilized to better purpose." Perfectly true. In fewer words: school committees can be persuaded by pictures to "introduce" a book, over the convictions and perhaps protests of competent teachers, who know them to be a nuisance and a humbug.

The preface quoted entire would be the best introduction and recommendation to this excellent text-book, which is intended to teach the rising citizens of the United States what their country is and has been in her steady, peaceful development. The critical periods and the brilliant exploits have not been omitted—they have been alluded to with appreciation and spirit in their right places; they have been mentioned in such a way as to tempt any one who loves such episodes to find out more about them. But they are exhibited as episodes—the occasional threads of gold or black in the cheerful but not gaudy fabric that forms the staple of our true history. As we took occasion to remark in a review of another meritorious history of the United States, we have in our national records abundant room for sentiment, but not an inch for sentimentality—the *sentiment* of Mme. de Staël, which Castlereagh so well translated by "blarney." Professor Johnston's book strikes us as preëminently manly—for that matter, womanly, too; it is not the childish article which would apparently suit some "eminent educationists" who think a teacher's business is to amuse the little ones, and keep them amused up to the time when they have children of their own.

Where all is good it is hard to specify; but we would particularly select the development of the Southern colonies, the land operations of the war of 1812, the political movements from 1838 to 1848, and the comparative exhibition of the campaigns of the Civil War, as especially indicative of impartiality and due proportion in the writer's mind. In these, and indeed throughout, the writer is careful to put in, properly subordinated in type, the little circumstances so likely to be overlooked. We open at random, and find on page 167 a capital paragraph about the Jeffersonian Republicans; on page 286, a valuable note about city police; on page 318, a significant remark about the common necessity to McClellan and Lee of protecting the capital.

A variety of things we could wish altered or away. Must Governor Arnold's poor old mill again be inflated to bolster out the Vinland myth? Maclure determined the Northwest Passage in 1850 (not 1854). The States-General of France should not be named a Parliament (surely Professor Johnston knows what the French Parliaments were); and the King who got rid of it in 1614 was Louis XIII., not Louis XIV. It should be recorded that Endicott was reproved by his General Court for cutting out the cross, and that he submitted. The original form Carolana for Carolina is omitted—probably by a misprint. It is news to us that "William the Testy" was ever *Sir* William Kieft, or that *Sir* John Burgoyne was present at Saratoga. The romance of "Evangeline" ought not to have been allowed to stand as history with no allusion to Mr. Parkman's corrections. It should have been stated that Virginia ratified the Constitution most probably in the belief that she was the ninth State, while New York held a very different position, taking no part in the first Presidential election. But we have no wish to seem to detract from the merit of the book—the best

school history, as it seems to us, which has yet been presented to the public.

Literature. By Herman Grimm. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. 1886.

THE men of letters in Germany are regarded as rather learned than cultivated, and are oftener spoken of as scholars. There have been some shining exceptions—some who recall the delightful humanism of Humboldt, and give us a new view, that has always something of surprise in it, of the capabilities of the intellectual life in the country of the professors. Herman Grimm is one of these men of culture, and the collection of his essays which is here translated is a sort of contribution which Germany seldom makes to foreign literature. The volume opens, pleasantly to American readers, with two articles, written at a score of years' distance from each other, upon Emerson, in which the author's own experience in being captivated, and his attempts to persuade some of his friends to acknowledge the charm, are told with an attractive mingling of criticism and humor; and the tribute to Emerson's genius, being the confession of a singularly sincere and simple mind, has a directness, spontaneity, and clearness which is to be commended to the notice of Emerson's American eulogists. The remaining essays are upon Voltaire and Frederick the Great, in connection with whom Grimm exposes the shallow facility of Macaulay's essay, and Dürer, Bettina von Arnim, and Dante's relation to the patriots of Italian unity. There are also some loosely-joined papers upon the brothers Grimm, the author's father and uncle, which make the most agreeable portion of the volume.

There is no need to speak of each separately. Grimm is a discursive writer, and has the ease of movement that characterizes a mind familiar with ideas and principles. His culture seems to be that of art and history, and reflections upon these in a general and comparative way strew his pages. The book is singularly free from prejudice; and even in dealing with the characteristics of the intellectual activity and interests of his countrymen he points out limitations and defects with what to our eyes seems wisdom, much as Renan occasionally enlightens the French in regard to themselves. So much serenity and suavity in literary style, so many penetrating and illuminating sentences dropped by the way, such intellectual clearness and refined utterance, are rare in any country; and though the topics of this volume are as a whole of slight interest to us, and limited value, one has the feeling, on laying aside the volume, that he has met with a man of exceptionally fine perceptions, human sympathies, and catholic interests, whose excellence of nature the essays but faintly report. The book itself, however, will prove remote from most readers.

The Postulates of English Political Economy. By the late Walter Bagehot. Putnams. 1885.

THE opening essay of this little book, which gives it its title, may be cordially recommended to all readers who do not see to their own entire satisfaction what Political Economy means and what it teaches. If, as is probably the case, such readers have been confused by the conflict of schools, and by the popular attacks upon the current system which we have imported from England, they will find in Mr. Bagehot a teacher who will clarify their ideas, and place the subject before them in such a light as to compel conviction. The most valuable feature of the lesson is that it does not leave the opposing side of the argument in misty confusion, but begins by showing the learner its strongest points. Indeed, we cannot but think that Mr. Bagehot exaggerates the difficulties in the way of the Political Economy of Smith and Mill being accepted outside of England. The comparison should rather be made between two methods of viewing the subject, both of which are found in all civilized countries, than between England and the Continent. A large majority of the recognized economists of Germany, France, and America are in substantial accord with our author, while it can hardly be claimed that the masses even in England are unanimous for the English system.

The objective point at which Mr. Bagehot aims is contained in the proposition that our system of economics "is not a questionable thing of unlimited extent, but a most certain and useful thing of limited extent." It is not a system of universal theorems, like those of geometry, but a set of theorems applicable solely to modern commercial peoples. However imperfect it may be, it affords the only method of foretelling the effects of new conditions upon the interests of the world. This is emphasized by comparing its method with other methods which men have attempted to apply to the case—the "All-case method," for example. This might have been put yet more strongly by showing that the limitations and imperfections which opposing writers so much dwell upon are common to all the sciences, are in fact necessary features of all generalized knowledge, physical as well as moral.

The two essays on the transferability of labor and capital, which form two-thirds of the book, were originally published in the *Fortnightly Review;* and it is intimated by Mr. Alfred Marshall, who supplies the preface, that they were intended as part of a book having for its object to free English political economy from the discredit into which it had fallen through being often misapplied. Although the restricted field which they cover prevents their having the value of a systematic work, they are well worth careful study as examples of the true economic method indicated in the opening essay.

The great value and the great charm of the whole book lie in the fact that it is the work of a man of business who supposes himself talking to men of sense, and who points out to both opposing parties the common ground on which their view and methods can be reconciled.

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Fine Arts.

"TAMING OF THE SHREW."

IF any one had predicted, five or even three years ago, that on the 4th of January, 1886, two German operas, one by Wagner and the other by a disciple of Wagner, would be produced in this city; that the tickets for *both* the new operas would be sold for the first two performances before the date of the first; and that this first representation would attract an audience of at least 6,000 spectators, at the two houses, he would have been voted a mad visionary whom one could not safely allow to roam at large. Yet this seeming miracle has been accomplished.

We have now in this city two excellent opera companies, whose aim is not to make money by showing off the vocal tricks of a prima donna and a tenor, but to familiarize the public with the greatest works of the greatest composers, interpreted in the most conscientious manner, and with no more regard for financial results than is consistent with the natural desire to clear expenses. The devotees of fashion and the lovers of music have, as it were, formed an informal association for the mutual realization of their respective aims and desires; and in a republic where state support of the opera is out of the question, such combinations doubtless represent the most satisfactory state of affairs that could be realized.

The company which has taken up its abode at the Academy of Music lays special stress on the national side of the enterprise. The name first chosen for it was "Opera Sung by Americans," or "Opera in English"; but, for the sake of euphony and to emphasize the patriotic element, this was changed to "American Opera." The repertory is to be international, with a leaning toward German opera. If there is no American name in this list, it is due simply to the fact that the country has so far produced no dramatic composer who has felt sufficiently inspired to write a grand opera regardless of the prospects of immediate performance. Wagner was snubbed on all sides early in his career, but the confidence in his genius led him on, whenever an opera was rejected, to seek consolation in composing another, confident that his day would come. The existence of a special "American Opera" company may prove a potent stimulus in rousing dormant musico-dramatic powers; but until a really meritorious work is forthcoming we shall have to be contented with such things as come to us from the effete monarchies of the Old World. And,

after all, there is nothing in this borrowing inconsistent with the name of "American opera." For is not the essence of American nationality internationality? This country is peopled by emigrants from all parts of Europe, and if we ever have a "national" opera, it is to be hoped it will be international — uniting Italian sensuousness and French piquancy and clearness of form with German harmonic depth, variety, and dramatic vigor and realism.

Like the opera, most of the members of the orchestra were originally imported, though the majority have become American citizens. The conductor, also, was born in Germany, but Mr. Thomas came to this country at so early an age, and his name has become so identified with the progress of music in America, that it would have been as impossible to find a man more appropriate from the national point of view as it would be from the point of view of competency and experience. The remaining factors of the complicated operatic organism are almost purely American. The scenery, which receives special attention, is all painted by well-known native artists; the majority of the ballet are Americans, and the same is true of the chorus. And in regard to the leading vocalists the rule has been more strictly adhered to, that they must be natives of this country.

It is this last clause in the constitution of the American Opera Company that will have to bear the brunt of criticism. Perhaps it would have been wiser to follow simply the successful example of Carl Rosa, and give opera in English without reference to the nationality of the singers. But in some respects this experiment would have been less interesting, and at any rate we shall now no longer be open to the reproach that we leave the recognition of American vocal talent entirely to foreigners. Some of the vocalists in the American Opera Company have had wide experience as opera singers, while others have been suddenly promoted from operetta to grand opera. Until they have become accustomed to their new sphere it is therefore but just to make allowance for inevitable shortcomings. No such allowance, however, need be made in the case of Mme. L'Allemand, who takes the part of *Katharine* in the "Taming of the Shrew," not only because she is an experienced opera singer, but because her *Katharine* is a most clever and fascinating impersonation. Her dark style of beauty, together with the taste shown in her make-up, enable her to look her part to perfection. The mingled surprise and indignation are in the early scenes depicted in her face as realistically as her sweet, piteous humility when she has been tamed. She embodies Professor Dowden's conception of the character: "*Katharine*, with all her indulged wilfulness and violence of temper, has no evil in her; in her home-enclosure she seems a formidable creature, but when caught away by the tempest of *Petruchio's* masculine force, the comparative weakness of her sex shows itself; she who has strength of her own, and has ascertained its limits, can recognize superior strength, and, once subdued, she is the least rebellious of subjects." Mme. L'Allemand's voice is somewhat guttural in its lowest notes, but in its upper register it is delightfully clear, rich, sweet, and flexible. Mr. Lee's *Petruchio* cannot be said to be characterized by a "tempest of masculine force." The humorous possibilities of the part, too, are much greater than they seem in his hands; yet he takes pains with it and sings it satisfactorily. Miss Bensberg's *Bianca* is not a striking impersonation, but has its points of merit. Mr. Hamilton's *Baptista* is in one respect, and an important one, superior to any other rôle, viz., in distinct enunciation. Mr. Fessenden (*Lucentio*) and Mr. Stoddard (*Hortensio*) are well known to the New York public, and scarcely anything needs to be said of them beyond remarking that their parts were well fitted to their capacities.

One of the most interesting features of the performance was the fact that Mr. Theodore Thomas made his first appearance in many years as an operatic conductor. From the circumstance that he has no superior as a concert conductor it does not follow that he is specially qualified to be a good operatic conductor. There are specialists in conducting, as in everything else. But there is a class of conductors who are equally able as concert and as opera directors, including Bülow, Jahn, and Hans Richter; and Mr. Thomas gave indubitable evidence on Monday evening that he belongs to this class. His method of conducting is as quiet as at a Philharmonic concert; for his rule is to do all the difficult work at the rehearsals, so that no frantic gesticulations are needed when the public performance is given. Under his command his admirable orchestra—which is of course the best that has ever been heard in opera in this country—brought out all the beauties and subtle details of the score with marvellous distinctness. The chorus, also, contains, perhaps, better vocal material than has ever been brought together here, and everywhere gave evidence of the most careful and intelligent training. The ballet made its appearance in a special divertissement arranged by M. Bibeyran to the delightful rompish music of Rubinstein's Bal Masqué.

By choosing Goetz's "Taming of the Shrew" for the initial performance, Mr. Thomas added, to the many debts of gratitude our audiences owe him, the opportunity to become acquainted with one of the most successful operas of modern times; but at the same time he imposed on his singers a task of extraordinary difficulty, for there is hardly a single work in the operatic repertory that makes at the same time so many demands on the singer's vocal attention and his duties as an actor. In some respects it is even more difficult than Wagner's "Meistersinger," which inspired it; for in Wagner's opera the words are so neatly fitted to the song, and the melodic current is so broad, that the singer is irresistibly carried along with it; whereas in Goetz's opera the words and music do not so necessarily amalgamate, nor is the musico-dramatic current so irresistible. This is indeed the weak point in the "Taming of the Shrew," that both as a whole and in most of its details the music does not reflect the spirit of the text. It is often too serious, not to say sombre, for so sprightly and humorous a dramatic substratum. But if Goetz lacks Wagner's sense of dramatic fitness and his stirring climaxes, he succeeds better in imitating his declamatory precision and vigor and his symphonic orchestral accompaniment. In the orchestra lies the chief strength of Goetz. Many of the numbers have great individual merit, and throughout the opera there is a subtle attention to details and an esprit worthy of a French composer. It is stated that Goetz at first wrote the score without drums and trombones, but added the trombones when the opera was produced in Vienna. Subsequently he seems to have also added the drums, for they were in use in Mr. Thomas's orchestra. Musical readers need hardly be told in conclusion that Hermann Goetz was, like Bizet, one of those gifted and promising opera composers who seem to be fated to die young. His opera was first produced in 1874 at Mannheim, when the composer was thirty-six years of age. Two years later he died, leaving an unfinished opera score, "Francesca von Rimini," which was afterward completed by a Herr Frank.

"THE MEISTERSINGER."

THE first production in America of what will some day be Wagner's most popular opera is an event of historic significance. The performance itself, too, was of a very high order of merit, and therefore most enjoyable. In view of the fact that the German Opera Company, during their recent absence in Philadelphia, gave a performance every evening, it was to be feared that sufficient time would not remain to rehearse Wagner's comic opera properly. It is a work of extraordinary difficulty, as may be inferred from the fact that when it was first produced in Munich under Dr. Hans von Bülow, in 1868, eight months were devoted to its preparation, during which sixty-six rehearsals were held.

No wonder that a few days ago the last rehearsal of "Die Meistersinger" at the Metropolitan, which lasted eight hours, revealed a number of weak points. But it also revealed another thing—Herr Seidl's extraordinary genius as operatic conductor. Every weak point was "spotted" on this occasion—for he knows the whole score by heart—so that when it came to the public performance, the smoothness and animation of the ensemble was little short of a miracle, it being hardly necessary to make any allowance for the difficulty of the task, the limited number of rehearsals, and the unpropitious state of the atmosphere. Herr Seidl was deservedly and repeatedly called before the curtain, with the principals, after each act; for the enthusiasm of the audience was such as is only witnessed at a Wagnerian *première;* and a Wagnerian audience is sufficiently intelligent to recognize the supreme importance of having a conductor of Herr Seidl's energy and ability. Although we have heard "Die Meistersinger" more than a dozen times abroad, and although in Vienna and Munich, where the opera has been on the repertory for a number of years, some of the details are placed in a clearer light, yet for general animation we have never heard a performance superior, if equal, to Monday evening's; and this is in the first place due to Herr Seidl's thorough appreciation of Wagner's intentions. He put so much variety and "go" into his *tempi* that the performance never dragged for a moment; and although the necessary cuts were not so extensive as those made in some German cities, the opera lasted only four hours and twenty minutes, including waits.

Of the vocalists it must be said in general that they were equal to their tasks. Frau Kraus's *Eva* is one of her most satisfactory impersonations, and Herr Stritt's *Walter* is the best thing he has done here yet. Herr Staudigl sang *Pogner's* address nobly, and Herr Fischer was an impressive *Sachs*, though suffering from hoarseness, which prevented him from fully justifying the reputation he has secured in this rôle abroad. Brandt made as much as possible of the rôle of *Magdalena*, and the naïve and sportive *David* was well acted and sung by Herr Krämer, the husband of Frau Krämer-Widl, who made his début on this occasion. The comic part of *Beckmesser* was in the hands of Herr Kemlitz, who, without over-acting, brought out the grotesque humor of his part in a realistic manner. Much praise must be awarded the chorus of apprentices and the general chorus for their contributions to the success of the performance. Even the immensely difficult comic choruses of cobblers, tailors, and bakers in the last act were well done. It should be stated that in this scene the chorus was strengthened by the voluntary coöperation of a number of the active members of several of our leading German societies whose enthusiasm for Wagner, and their desire to have him correctly appreciated by American audiences, led them to submit, without any other recompense, to the arduous labor of rehearsing.

To sum up: the indications are that "Die Meistersinger" will soon become a favorite of the New York public, and never again be allowed to be absent from the repertory.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 14, 1886.

The Week.

THE task devolved upon Mr. Carlisle in the arrangement of the House committees was perhaps the most laborious and embarrassing that has fallen to the lot of any Speaker in this generation. The Democratic party has for the first time in years found itself charged with the full responsibilities of government. It comes to this task not as a united body, having a clear programme and a settled platform of principles on the leading questions of the day, but with very marked divisions in its ranks on all the leading issues. This division is so marked that the leaders of the party are not even agreed on the question what is the leading issue. Mr. Bland and Mr. Warner hold that the silver question is the most important. Mr. Morrison and Mr. Randall would assign that place to the tariff, while the President perhaps esteems the civil service the most important. And upon all these issues there are deep furrows running through the party. Mr. Carlisle was bound to recognize these differences. He was bound also to give due weight to the Republican membership and to the Republican bias on these questions. It was incumbent upon him to make the organization fairly representative of the opinions of the House as he understood them, and at the same time to avoid or minimize any elements of discord between the legislature and the executive. All this was to be accomplished by assigning to certain places on the committees which prepare legislation for the final judgment of the House, 325 men, all of whom have ideas of their own fitness more or less at variance with those of the Speaker.

At first blush this might seem to be an impossible task, no less than that of handling a kaleidoscope so that a turn of the instrument should present a predetermined picture to the eye. In the presence of so difficult a problem we think that Mr. Carlisle has done very well. His success can only be determined by the outcome. Judgment cannot be pronounced upon his work until its results are shown in legislation, but according to outward appearance he has vindicated the confidence reposed in him as a judicious and conservative statesman. The Committee on Coinage engages the larger share of public attention, and this fact goes far to settle one question of the highest gravity. It proves that the silver question *is* the leading issue of the day. It shows that the public are willing to place the tariff, the civil service, and all other things behind it and to settle that first. This is no inconsiderable gain to the cause of honest money. Two years or even one year ago it was with the greatest difficulty that Congress could be brought to consider this subject at all. The opponents of compulsory coinage could scarcely get a report from a committee in either house for or against the continuance of the coinage. The House Committee was dead against any change. The Senate Committee did finally, and at too late a day to accomplish anything, report a bill to suspend the coinage after eighteen months, provided there should be no international agreement for bi-metallism meanwhile. Now everybody is on the *qui vive*. Everybody expects action of some sort, and everybody is prepared for it. The Committee on Coinage named by the Speaker appears to us to be not decidedly in favor of a suspension of the coinage, but sufficiently so to bring on a fight, and to give the initiative to those who agree with the views of the President and the Secretary of the Treasury. If this is the true color of the Committee, it is all that the opponents of compulsory coinage could properly ask.

The Edmunds bill for the correction of the Mormons, in the form in which it has passed the Senate, saddles the United States Government with the task of administering the property of a religious corporation by means of trustees appointed by the President and in no way responsible to the beneficiaries of the trust. This is proposed, too, by way of punishing all the members of a religious body, because some of them have committed offences already indictable and punishable in the courts. This extraordinary legislation was passed by 38 to 7, and the Massachusetts jurist, Mr. Hoar, had nothing to say against it except that it took away the suffrage from the Mormon women. We trust the House will deal with this remarkable measure as it deserves. In a country in which all forms of religious belief and worship are free, the punishment of whole sects for holding obnoxious opinions by seizing their property is, or ought to be, a monstrous thing. The only American way of dealing with a corporation offensive to the public interests is by winding it up. Government trustees for the management of its affairs would be a monstrous excrescence which ought not to be permitted for any purpose, however good. The Edmunds plan is one of those things which would never be dreamed of as against a considerable body of voters. It is the numerical weakness of the Mormons far more than their polygamy which causes it to be thought of.

Senator Eustis, of Louisiana, has introduced a resolution declaratory of the opinion of Congress that the $10,000,000 of bonds called by Secretary Manning, and to be paid off on the 1st of February, "should be paid in silver dollars." This is, we believe, exactly the number of silver dollars that was recently transferred from New Orleans to Washington by a war vessel in order to save express charges, the weight of the package being 330 tons. Now, in order to carry out Mr. Eustis's notions the *Swatara* ought to be loaded up again with her discharged cargo, and sent around the Atlantic coast and up the various rivers, with a detail of Treasury clerks on board distributing silver dollars to the owners of the called bonds. And for what purpose? So that the same dollars may get into the various express offices for speedy transmission to the nearest custom-houses and internal-revenue offices, and thence back to the Treasury from which they were taken. The cost of transporting silver dollars by express is $3 per 1,000. Consequently the cost of getting the $10,000,000 back again where they belong, and where they would inevitably go, would be $30,000, plus the cost of navigating the *Swatara* and handling the coin. Under the present system, a few checks are drawn by the Treasurer of the United States on the New York Sub-Treasury, and the whole business is done. It is this system that Mr. Eustis and Mr. Beck want to break up, because, in their view, it amounts to paying the bonds in gold, although no gold is actually used. They have the fantastic notion that if silver dollars are paid out, the bondholders will not get gold value, but only silver value, for their bonds, notwithstanding the fact that the Government is all the time redeeming the silver dollars in gold at the custom-house. It is probably due to some misconception upon this point that United States bonds were depressed in the London market when Mr. Eustis's resolution was telegraphed thither. There are plenty of capitalists in this country to pick up any stray lots of bonds dropped on the other side of the water under the influence of such a panic. But it will be something at which Mr. Eustis may always "point with pride," that he caused certain timid people in a distant country to lose a part of their money

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Apropos of the recent shipment of a small lot of gold, the *Financial Chronicle's* London letter, dated December 26, says: "The announcement of the shipments from New York has come as a surprise here, and it is not yet quite understood. There is some doubt as to its being a bona-fide movement. It is considered here quite possible that the silver question and Stock Exchange speculation may have a good deal to do with the export, and hence has not that importance it would possess were it thought thoroughly a trade matter. We have at present quite enough money lying idle, and know not what to do with any increase in supplies. It would only augment the difficulty experienced in maintaining rates." And the London *Economist* of December 26, speaking on the same subject, says: "It seems hardly possible for the United States to send us much gold at present. Financial circles there are so permeated with apprehension as to the result of the compulsory coinage of silver that they would be certain to take alarm if gold in any quantity were to leave the country. There is, indeed, reason to believe that the present shipments were made with a desire to take advantage of this feeling of apprehension so as to exert a leverage on the stock markets." And in its financial report the *Economist* also says, noting the sudden advance of sterling in New York and the fact of one shipment of gold being arranged: "It seems probable that this movement is due to manipulation, possibly in connection with the Stock Exchange, and it is scarcely likely to attain any magnitude." The artificial character of the advance in sterling, and the lack of necessity for gold shipments in the week ending with December 26, seem to have been understood in London as clearly as by those of our own people

who know anything about foreign exchange. Unluckily, however, there are very many people who know nothing about foreign exchange, and therefore it is not difficult to produce a temporary scare in the stock market by an occasional manipulation of sterling. It ought none the less to be a difficult matter to secure the coöperation in such manœuvres of any banking firm with a decent reputation or decent connections in foreign countries.

The first formal Republican attack upon the Administration for its appointments to office was made in the Senate by Mr. Hale, of Maine, on Wednesday, and does not appear to have been damaging. His grievance, stripped of its cant, is that in a total of 37 Presidential postmasterships in Maine the President has made three changes, and that in 984 postmasterships not Presidential about 100 changes have been made. Mr. Hale finds no fault with the three Presidential changes, and gives the President credit for not making a "clean sweep." He is not capable of the fairness of giving the full number of the non-Presidential offices, but speaks of them as "a few hundred," and complains that out of the hundred changes made in these, eighty-seven of the new appointees had been recommended by one man, the Chairman of the Democratic State Committee of Maine. This chairman had levied upon all these appointees for his expenses incurred in going to Washington and securing the appointments. There is not the slightest evidence that either the President or the Postmaster-General had any knowledge of the chairman's doings. The Postmaster-General, as Mr. Hale admits, turned the matter over to his assistant, who appointed the men whom the chairman recommended. Mr. Hale calls this a "bargain and sale of offices," talks about it as not merely "muddying the waters" of public life, but "poisoning the fountain," and lifts up a cry for "pure civil-service reform." The only point about the changes which he is able to base his attack upon is the alleged collection of money by the chairman from the new appointees, and of that the Administration had no knowledge and cannot in any way be held responsible for it. When it is considered that there is in the State of Maine scarcely one Republican postmaster who has not been for years a Blaine worker and agent, and that, out of over 1,000 of these, all except about 100 are still in office, Mr. Hale's anxiety about the "poisoning of the fountain" is rather grotesque.

The boycotting of many newly-appointed Democratic postmasters in rural districts by the Republicans of their neighborhood is a curious illustration of the lengths to which party spirit will carry men. Less than a twentieth of the 50,000 postmasters in the United States are paid by salary; the compensation of all the rest depends chiefly upon the business of their offices, and especially upon the number of stamps which they cancel. If the people of a village refuse to deposit their mail matter at the local office, and either hand the letters which they write to a clerk in a railway postal car or send them to the post-office in the next town to be postmarked, they can deprive their own postmaster of nearly all his income, and leave him to do the work of receiving and distributing the mails without getting any adequate pay for his labor. Almost incredible as it seems to residents of a great city that people should take all this trouble to gratify a petty political spite, it is a fact that there are scores, and even hundreds, of little communities scattered throughout the land where this system of boycotting has been introduced by Republicans since Democrats were installed in the post-offices. A recent estimate by the Post-office Department puts the number of such cases at 300, and new instances are constantly reported. The system is most popular in small places where the majority of the people are Republicans, and the excitement which it causes in such villages has scarcely been paralleled since the war. Such performances cast a flood of light upon the condition of society in too many of the rural districts in this country.

The Baltimore Reform League have prepared a memorial to the Senate Committee on Indian Affairs in reference to the nomination of Morris A. Thomas as Inspector of Indian Agencies. This man Thomas is charged, among other things, with fraudulent bankruptcy and with an attempt to possess himself of the property of citizens of Maryland by methods little better than theft. One of the affidavits supporting these charges declares that when Thomas failed and went into bankruptcy, he helped himself to securities which had been placed in his hands merely for safe keeping, pretending that he had lost them in his business, but that when he was threatened with criminal prosecution he found them intact and handed them back to the owner. Other charges, of equal turpitude and supported by proofs taken from the court records and the official books of account of the city of Baltimore, were laid before the Secretary of the Interior, and were not answered by Thomas except by a general denial. The question is now an important one whether the Senate will "advise and consent" to such an appointment. There has been much "caucusing" among the Republican majority of that body in order to determine what course they ought to pursue with reference to the President's nominations in general, and more especially with reference to removals made on grounds of offensive partisanship. Those questions can easily be postponed. They are party questions, which are always in order. But the nominations of such characters as Thomas involve moral considerations weighing upon every individual Senator, no matter what party he belongs to. These considerations could not be put aside if the name of Thomas had been sent in by a Republican President. It will be surprising indeed if facts which would not be overlooked in such a case are ignored or lightly regarded in the case of a Democrat. If Thomas is confirmed, he must be confirmed by Republican votes. The responsibility of the Senate is exactly equal to that of the President, and it will not lie in the mouth of any Republican Senator to accuse the President of making any bad nominations to which he (the Senator) has given his advice and consent. To put the matter plainly, the Republican party has the power to prevent any improper appointment whatever in the higher grades of the public service, and it will be held to its responsibility. It will not be allowed to accuse the Democrats of offences to which it is itself a willing accessory.

Massachusetts has now had nearly a year's experience of the merit system in the civil service, and it proves to have worked as well there as everywhere else that it has been tried. The report of the Commissioners presents a mass of evidence of the practicability and advantages of the new methods. The largest number of appointments under the competitive system has been made in the State Bureau of Statistics of Labor and in the Boston Police Department. The chief of the former bureau bears witness that the force thus supplied to him is "very much superior to the one we should have been likely to have secured through the old method of personal application and the endorsement of friends"; that the attendance of these clerks has been more regular than that of any former employees; and that in intelligence, capacity, and attainment, as well as in attendance, the force provided by the new law "reflects the greatest credit upon the civil-service system." The Boston Police Board are no less hearty in their praise, witnessing that, from the certifications for appointment on the patrol force, they have been able to select men well qualified in every way for the service; that, in the matter of promotions, the new system brings to the top of the list those who, by their conduct, efficiency, and educational qualifications, have the highest claims to advancement; and that "it can be said emphatically that the application of civil-service rules to appointments and promotions in this Department has been attended with very satisfactory results." Incidentally, the Commissioners deal another blow at the silly old charge of the spoilsmen that nobody but college graduates would be able to get into office if men were required to show their fitness before being appointed. The whole number of persons who have applied for examination was 1,292, and of these 1,267 had received only a common-school education, the 25 who had been to college representing only 2 per cent. of all! Similar showings have been made in the Federal civil service and in this State, and it will require a very impudent spoilsman hereafter to repeat the ancient "gag" about college graduates in the face of such figures.

The report of the Massachusetts Commissioners is of especial interest in New York just now, because it bears directly upon the scheme which will be again pushed in the new Legislature to make a breach in the competitive system by exempting old soldiers from its operation. A similar attempt was made in the Massachusetts Legislature last year, but it failed, and the Commissioners clearly show from the records that the veterans need no such legislation. The Massachusetts statutes, like those of this State, give old soldiers the preference in appointments and promotions where they stand otherwise on an equality with other competitors. The demagogues have urged that the soldiers were not able to get "book learning" when they were young men because they were fighting for the preservation of the Union, and that consequently they would be unable to pass the examinations, which would be child's play for the college graduates. The records effectually dispose of this charge, for they show that the percentage of veterans who passed the examinations was larger than that of other applicants. The preference in ap-

pointment which they now enjoy, results in their getting a much larger proportion of places than others who have successfully passed the examinations with them. The report also points out that amendment of the law so as to exempt old soldiers from examination, instead of helping them to secure office, would have had just the opposite effect, since it would have enabled the appointing power to ignore them in cases where under the present rules they must be selected.

In most of the States the address to a new Legislature at the opening of its session is delivered by the new Governor, but in Ohio the retiring Executive also sends in a message a few days before his successor is inaugurated. The custom has much to commend it, especially when the outgoing Governor is a man so full of ideas as Mr. Hoadly, and the message which he sent to the General Assembly on Monday merits more consideration than it is likely to receive from a body politically hostile to him. What he says on the subject of civil-service reform is of general interest. Hardly any State in the Union stands in more urgent need of the application of reform. So thoroughly has the spoils system been accepted that minor officers and guards in the penitentiary are by law required to be appointed upon geographical principles, and the appointments have thus virtually been made by the representatives in the Legislature, or, in counties where they were opposed to the party in power, by the county executive committee of the dominant party. Naturally such a plan has worked very badly, and of 113 guards thus saddled upon the present warden, he has had to get rid of no less than seventeen for the good of the service. Governor Hoadly earnestly urges that the spoils system be abolished so far as the benevolent and penal institutions of the State are concerned. He says with truth that, so far as his own influence has gone, it has been exerted to prevent political reorganizations and changes in these institutions, but very properly holds that the necessary divorce from politics cannot be had without the aid of law. He therefore recommends that some system be adopted which will eliminate political considerations, giving his preference to the plan of competitive examinations adopted in the Federal civil-service law and the New York State law. As he reminds the Legislature, the Republican party of Ohio is pledged by its State platform "to extend this law to all grades of service to which it is applicable," and the public will watch with interest to see how it redeems this pledge.

Ohio is in about the same situation as New York regarding the employment of prisoners. The people two years ago voted to abolish the system of convict contract labor, and, as soon as a few outstanding agreements expire, this method of employing prisoners will come to an end. The financial results of the change in Ohio, as in New York, have been disastrous. The management of the penitentiary drew from the State Treasury only $47,247 more than it paid in during the year ending November 15, 1884, while during the year ending November 15, 1885, the deficit rose to $153,864. The pending question is whether the piece-price plan or the State-account system shall be adopted as the permanent policy, now that contract labor is to be abolished. Governor Hoadly points out, as Superintendent Baker, of New York, has just done, that the great objection to the State-account system is that it requires a costly plant and a large working capital. Besides, work on State account is certain to be a failure if political or partisan considerations control the choice of penitentiary officials, while even if these are eliminated, the plan of working a series of great factories by hired help, without the intelligent supervision of an interested master, has very little promise of financial success. On the other hand, the piece-price plan has the advantage of supplying the State with a market and with the intelligent supervision of interested manufacturers, while so far as it has been tried in Ohio it seems to work well. Governor Hoadly's opinion is that the management of the penitentiary must necessarily be tentative for some time to come; but the whole drift of his discussion of the subject goes to prove that the piece-price plan is the best substitute that can be found for the contract system.

The London *Daily News* announces the death of a lady from eating too much turkey, plum-pudding, and nuts on Christmas Day, and affirms that she was probably the last person who will die in that way, owing to the great change in the eating habits of the population. The practice of expressing joy or kindly feeling, especially at Christmas, by eating immense quantities of one or two things, is a mediæval custom which has lasted longer in England than in other European countries, and was temporarily stimulated or revived, the *Daily News* suggests, by Dickens, whose characters almost all indulge on festive occasions in a tremendous guzzle. The taste for this sort of excess has greatly declined in England. In fact, just now, we believe, it is rather "the thing" among men of the world to have delicate insides, and prefer a chop and a pint of Apollinaris to the most elaborate menu. In this country great feeding has always been rare, the popular taste running rather to nice unwholesome things like pie and doughnuts, than to large quantities of meat or drink. The Southern barbecue is almost the only relic among us of the great gorging of the early Anglo-Saxons.

The hotel, with its varied bill of fare, has, however, done a good deal to stimulate the American appetite, but it takes its pleasure rather in variety than in quantity. An American drummer surrounded by his breakfast or dinner at a "good house" is an alarming sight to those who do not know that he will probably not taste, or do more than taste, half the dishes he orders. What he really seeks in his order is the pleasure of having his whole possible meal "in sight" —something very dear to the plain feeder. This is really the great obstacle in the way of serving a dinner in courses—European fashion —at our tables d'hôte. When the first attempt was made to introduce it in Memorial Hall at Harvard, many of the country boys objected strongly, on the ground that they liked "to see their dinner," and therefore have the pie on the table while they were eating the meat. Then, too, it goes hard with an American to wait for a slower eater than himself before getting to the next dish. There is an excellent New Haven story of a Hartford business man so anxious to get back to work after his midday dinner that he asked his guest "whether he would mind eating his pie in the street."

The announcement that the Queen is going to open Parliament in person is another sign of her strong sympathy with the Conservatives. She opened it last when Disraeli was in power, and never once during Gladstone's last administration. The matter has no political importance, but it cheers up people in society whom the Radicals and the Irish are frighten ing.

Mr. Bryce, our London correspondent, explains that his reason for leaving his old constituency, the Tower Hamlets, one of the London boroughs now divided into seven, was not, as we suggested, any fear that the Irish vote would be thrown against him, or that he would not be returned easily, but that he desired a less laborious seat, if we may use the term. The demands of a metropolitan constituency on its member are very great both in the way of interviews and correspondence—so great in Mr. Bryce's case, who is one of the most conscientious and indefatigable of letter writers, as seriously to threaten his health. Under these circumstances he was glad to accept a very warm invitation from the Aberdeenshire Liberals, the more so as, being a Scotchman, he likes to represent a Scotch constituency.

A recent number of the *Révolté*, a French Anarchist paper, has an elaborate article calling for the destruction of all registries of births and baptisms as soon as "the social war breaks out," with the view of getting rid of the odious custom of giving people fixed and indelible names before their characters are sufficiently developed to show what names suit them. Our names, the writer says, ought to be in some sort a description of us, so that on hearing a person's name, you would get an idea at once of the kind of person he was They ought to change, too, as we go on in life, according to age, place, and circumstances. A man ought to have one name in his youth, another in middle life, and another in old age, and he ought to be able to change it as best suits "the mobility of his disposition" and changes in his manner of life. One man may find one name sufficient for his whole life, another may need as many names as he has shirts. The essential thing is that a man should be allowed to change his name when he pleases, and should not have any name, whether baptismal or surname, fastened on him by law, and no one should have more than one name. The writer points out that in family and professional and workshop intercourse, nobody has more than one name, and that generally a descriptive nickname, and this is therefore the natural revolutionary mode of distinguishing people. The way in which all this has been anticipated or illustrated in our local politics is known to all our readers. When we say Mike, Jake, Barney, Sol, or Steve, everybody knows who is meant, and what kind of man he is, far better than if his baptismal name and family name were set out in full.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

(WEDNESDAY, January 6, to TUESDAY, January 12, 1886, inclusive.)

DOMESTIC.

SPEAKER CARLISLE on Thursday announced the House Committees. The Chairmen are as follows: Turner, of Georgia—Elections. Randall, of Pennsylvania—Appropriations. Morrison, of Illinois—Ways and Means. Herbert, of Alabama—Naval Affairs. Bragg, of Wisconsin—Military Affairs. Belmont, of New York—Foreign Affairs. Curtin, of Pennsylvania—Banking and Currency. Bland, of Missouri—Coinage, Weights, and Measures. Willis, of Kentucky—Rivers and Harbors. O'Neil, of Missouri—Labor. Mitchell, of Connecticut—Patents. Throckmorton, of Texas—Pacific Railways. Reagan, of Texas—Commerce. Cobb, of Indiana—Public Lands. Tucker, of Virginia—Judiciary. Wellborn, of Texas—Indian Affairs. Blount, of Georgia—Post-offices and Post-roads. Springer, of Illinois—Claims. Spriggs, of New York—Accounts. Matson, of Indiana—Invalid Pensions. Muller, of New York—Militia. Geddes, of Ohio—War Claims. King, of Louisiana—Mississippi River. Aiken, of South Carolina—Education. Eldridge, of Michigan—Pensions. Halsell, of Kentucky—Private Land Claims. Barbour, of Virginia—District of Columbia. Cox, of North Carolina—Reform in Civil Service. Dunn, of Arkansas—American Shipbuilding.

It is believed that the Coinage Committee on the issue between monometallism and bimetallism is to be classed as a silver committee. But it will be against an indefinite continuance of the coinage of the 412½-grain silver dollar under the Bland act by about 7 to 6. It will be in favor of some provision which will continue the use of silver in the currency without continuing the coinage of the Bland dollar. The Committee, however, would be decidedly opposed to the demonetization of silver. The Ways and Means Committee represents every shade of opinion upon the tariff, and every proposition that has thus far been submitted on the tariff question will find an exponent upon this Committee. It is understood that some kind of a tariff bill will be prepared at an early day. The Banking and Currency Committee is composed in about equal proportions of the friends and opponents of the national banking system. Upon the Committee on Naval Affairs and the Committee on Rivers and Harbors the advocates and the opponents of large appropriations alike find representation. On the Committee on Indian Affairs pains were taken to give representation to the advocates of the various plans for the settlement of the Indian problem. Mr. Cox, of North Carolina, the Chairman of the Civil-Service Reform Committee, is reported as saying that he is a thorough believer in the merit system, but that the Republicans who were in office before the system was established should be turned out, and be placed on the same footing with other candidates for office. He thinks that there is more dissatisfaction with the rules of the Commission than with the law.

The Chair laid before the United States Senate on Wednesday a letter from the Postmaster-General complying with the call of a recent Senate resolution in respect to the appointment of postmasters in Maine, alleged to have been procured through the influence of S. S. Brown, Chairman of the Democratic Committee of that State. The communication having been read, Mr. Hale said that before it went to the country he desired to say a few words with regard to it. It was every day becoming the belief of the people, he said, that the civil service of the Government should not be the result of party service. Above all, the country desired that we should have a pure civil service. There should be no taint of bargain and sale about it. The Republicans had expected to go out. The Administration had taken a conservative course, and the President, though pressed to make a general sweep of the postmasters in Maine, had declined. But the people of many places had waked up one morning in Maine, and found that persons had been appointed whom nobody wanted and nobody recommended. In one case it was found that the Chairman of the Democratic Committee, Mr. S. S. Brown, had given up his law practice, closed his office, and had come to Washington to attend to the distribution of patronage under the civil-service system. Mr. Hale acquitted the Postmaster General of any endorsement of Mr. Brown. Brown had come to Washington endorsed by the Democratic party, or its committees. The Postmaster-General had turned these matters of appointments over to his assistant, who relied on Mr. Brown. But the Postmaster-General had not made complete answer to the resolution of the Senate. He had not stated whether the wishes of the people had been respected in the new appointments—which was the *summum bonum* of the inquiry. No explanation had been made of the infamous system on which the proceedings complained of had been based. Senators Vest and Voorhees replied. The debate ended with a reference of the report to the Committee on Civil Service and Retrenchment, where it will probably stay.

Senator Vance, who has introduced a bill to repeal the Civil-Service Act, says that he is in earnest and will speak in support of it; that he does not expect many votes, because those who are against the law have not the courage of their convictions, but that he is convinced from private conversations that a majority of the Senate would be glad to have the law repealed.

Senator Wilson, of Iowa, on Friday reported favorably from the Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads the bill introduced by him to prohibit the mailing of newspapers and other publications containing lottery advertisements.

Senator Eustis, of Louisiana, on Friday introduced a resolution providing for the payment in silver dollars of the $10,000,000 bonds embraced in Mr. Manning's recent call.

The reports that Secretary Manning contemplates paying in silver any of the bonds recently called in are unfounded.

The Senate confirmed the nominations of the three Civil-Service Commissioners on Monday. When the nomination of Mr. Eaton came up Senator Logan made the point that Mr. Eaton was a "Mugwump," and that the spirit of the Civil Service Law required that one of the Commissioners be a Republican. Senators Evarts, Hoar, and one or two others vouched for his Republicanism. There are said to have been fourteen votes cast against him, one-half of which were those of Republicans. Mr. Eaton wants to resign his office on February 1.

Mr. Frye (Rep., Me.) introduced a bill on Monday in the Senate for the relief of the American merchant marine. It repeals the statutes requiring the payment of fees for marine documents, certificates of inspection, etc., and provides that the collectors whose duty it is to furnish these papers shall be paid by the United States. Masters of coastwise vessels are authorized to employ a shipping commissioner to ship crews. The liability limitation clause of the last Shipping Act is extended to vessels in interior waters and to those engaged in the coastwise trade.

The House on Tuesday adopted a resolution, calling upon the Postmaster-General for information as to the advisability of changing the existing method of compensating railways for the transportation of the mails. Some members of the Post-office Committee are of opinion that the present plan is too expensive, and that a system can be devised which, while more economical, would not interfere with the expedition of the mails. The Hoar Presidential Succession Bill was favorably reported in the House on that day.

Oliver P. Burger, who has been a clerk in the Post-office Department at Washington since September, has been dismissed for circulating postal cards saying that it was easy to get into the Government service under the civil-service rules, and offering to give the necessary information how to do it to those who were willing to pay for it.

The Ohio legislative caucus on Thursday night renominated John Sherman for United States Senator. The Democrats have abandoned their hope of defeating his election. The Mississippi Democratic caucus has renominated the two present Senators, George and Walthall.

The Democrats of the Ohio Legislature on Monday night nominated Allen G. Thurman for United States Senator, giving him 38 votes to 28 for Governor Hoadly.

In the Ohio House of Representatives on Tuesday the nine Democratic members from Hamilton County were unseated and nine Republicans put in their places. This action was ample assurance of the reëlection of Senator Sherman, giving him twenty-one majority on joint ballot. Both houses voted for Senator separately on Tuesday, Mr. Sherman receiving sixty-seven in the lower house and seventeen in the Senate, and Mr. Thurman forty-one in the House and twenty in the Senate.

The new rules and amendments to rules proposed by Speaker Husted to the New York Assembly on Wednesday create three new committees—one on appropriations, one on excise, and one on revision of bills. After considerable discussion the rules of 1885 were adopted, and the Speaker was empowered to appoint the three new committees, their powers and duties to be hereafter defined.

In the Assembly on Wednesday a bill was introduced incorporating the Grant Monument Association.

The threatened strike of engineers on the elevated railroads of this city was settled on Thursday by a compromise. The agreement signed concedes all that the men asked for in the original bill of grievances, except that nine hours will constitute a day's work instead of eight, and that the following clause, No. 9, is stricken out: "That no engineer shall be censured for failing to make time in foggy weather, thereby endangering lives of people and destruction of property, as has been done in the past."

Hundreds of negroes are leaving the Carolinas, Georgia, and Alabama for the West, owing to high rents, bad crops, and a defective tenant system.

A blizzard accompanied with intense cold and snow prevailed from Friday to Monday from Dakota to the Gulf and throughout the Eastern States. Railroad traffic was generally interrupted.

The widow of Gen. George G. Meade died in Philadelphia on Thursday.

Ex-Governor Benjamin Conley, of Georgia, died suddenly in Atlanta on Sunday in his seventy-first year. He was a Republican, and on Governor Bullock's flight in 1872 succeeded him by virtue of his office as President of the Senate. He was soon ousted by the Democrats, who ordered a special election.

FOREIGN.

Robert Giffen, LL. D., proposes in the London *Statist* a scheme which would enable home rule to be granted to Ireland without exposing the property of landlords to plunder, and without imposing any serious burden on the Imperial Exchequer. The plan is for the Imperial Government first to buy out every landlord in Ireland, giving him consols at par equal in nominal amount to twenty years' purchase of the present judicial rents; second, to give the land free to the present occupiers, subject only to a rent charge of one-half or two-thirds of the present judicial rent, payable to the new local authorities in Ireland; and, third, to relieve the Imperial Exchequer of all payments

now made out of it in connection with the local government of Ireland. The plan is, in fact, to throw the cost of the local government in Ireland upon Irish resources exclusively, and to give the Irish people the rent of the country for the purpose of conducting it. Taking the rent of Ireland as settled judicially at about £8,000,000, the consols at par to be given in exchange at twenty years' purchase would be £160,000,000, involving an annual charge of £4,800,000 upon the Imperial Exchequer. At present the Government expends annually upon Ireland for the local government close upon £4,000,000, exclusive altogether of the outlay for the army of occupation, for the collection of revenue, and other imperial matters which would still remain imperial. The position as regards Irish tenants would be, that where they now pay £8,000,000. they would have to pay only from £4,000,000 to £5,500,000.

Earl Grey, writing to the London *Times*, deprecates the concession of local government to Ireland, as he believes that such power would be made the means of oppressing all who dissent from the doctrines of the National League. The improvement of the condition of the people of Ireland, he says, must emanate from themselves; it must be brought about by provident habits and greater industry. It is the imperative duty of the Government to suppress outrages and violations of law in Ireland, and until that is accomplished all concessions to the Irish people will merely serve, like sweets to children, to stop their crying.

John Morley, Radical member for Newcastle on-Tyne, made an important speech on Thursday night, which is the first distinctive Radical utterance on Irish home rule. He said: "I have not come to develop a scheme of government for Ireland. That is for our leader. Whatever the *Times* may say, an whatever his assailants, secret and open, may say, I believe there is no man in this realm who is competent to take this task in hand except the statesman who has devoted the best part of his life to the amelioration of the condition of Ireland, and whose great abilities and human sympathy will be found the only means capable of solving the great Irish question. All that I would urge upon you is not to be misled by any idea that we are in a mere Parliamentary crisis. We are in a great national crisis." In conclusion he said: "If I am in favor of finding new ways of dealing with the Irish problem, of leaving the old rut, and of approaching that problem boldly, calling upon our statesmen to give some constructive solution of our difficulties, it is because I am persuaded that in that direction it is you must look for the strengthening of the empire; that in any other direction you will only weaken the empire, tie your own hands, and make yourself powerless for carrying out those great tasks which have been confided to this nation."

A number of unofficial Liberal members of Parliament have been making overtures to the Parnellites for the coöperation of the latter in raising a question as to home rule during the debate on the address in reply to the Queen's speech. Mr. Parnell declines to reply to Liberal overtures unless they are accompanied by an express agreement to grant Ireland home rule. The Parnellites will await the Government's proposals.

A conference of Parnellites in Dublin on Monday resolved to continue with an unalterable determination their struggle to secure the rights of Ireland. The consideration of the most important questions was postponed until the arrival of Mr. Parnell. Mr. Gladstone held a reception at Carlton Terrace on Monday evening. Earl Granville, Sir William V. Harcourt, Lord Hartington, Sir Charles Dilke, and Mr. Chamberlain were conspicuous by their absence.

Parliament opened on Tuesday. Large crowds had congregated in the vicinity of Parliament House, and when Mr. Bradlaugh and Mr. Gladstone arrived they were loudly cheered. The Right Hon. Arthur Wellesley Peel, who is a Liberal, was reëlected Speaker of the House of Commons without opposition.

The Government does not intend to prevent Mr. Charles Bradlaugh from sitting in the House of Commons as Member for Northampton.

The Queen's speech will not be submitted to Parliament until next week. It has been delayed in order that members who are at a distance from London may have time to make arrangements to be in their places if a debate should arise.

There is great distress among the poorer classes in Scotland. A meeting of 5,000 unemployed persons was held in Glasgow on Friday, and it was resolved to make an appeal to the wealthier classes. No Socialistic remarks were indulged in.

The proposed American Exhibition in London has been postponed for one year—from May, 1886, to May, 1887. It was discovered that the Colonial and Indian Exhibition, in which Englishmen take great pride and which is to be held this year, would probably prove disastrous to the proposed American show.

Ten thousand Burmese rebels are scouring the country within a radius of twenty miles of Mandalay and threaten to attack the town. Fears of an émeute are felt, owing to the great reduction of the British force at Mandalay by the withdrawal of troops for the expedition to Bhamo. Prince Alompra is at the head of the rebel force and claims to be king.

The work of widening the Suez Canal is delayed, owing to the refusal of the Egyptian Government to sanction a modification of the treaty so as to allow the interest on the proposed loan of £8,000,000 to be paid out of the loan itself, instead of from the receipts of the canal, as stipulated by the treaty.

The French Government will, at the request of the Panama Canal Company, send M. Rousseau, a trustworthy engineer, to inspect and report on the condition and prospects of the Panama Canal. If the report of M. Rousseau is favorable, a loan will be granted the company to push the work to completion. If it is adverse, the enterprise will be allowed to collapse, and the Government will assume the responsibility.

A new French Cabinet was announced on Thursday, but is not received with enthusiasm, though Clémenceau and Rochefort advocate giving it a fair trial. It is as follows: M. de Freycinet, President of the Council and Minister for Foreign Affairs; M. Sarrien, Minister of the Interior; M. Sadi-Carnot, Minister of Finance; M. Goblet, Minister of Public Instruction; M. Demole, Minister of Justice; M. Develle, Minister of Agriculture; General Boulanger, Minister of War; M. Aube, Minister of Marine and the Colonies; M. Baïhaut, Minister of Public Works; M. Granet, Minister of Posts and Telegraphs; M. Lockroy, Minister of Commerce. Lockroy and Granet represent the Radical element.

Count Alfred de Falloux is dead at the age of seventy-five. He has been prominent in France as a writer and politician. He was a Legitimist, but was one of the first after the flight of Louis Philippe in 1848 to recognize the new republican form of government. He was one of the Deputies who organized the resistance to the insurgents. On the election of Louis Napoleon to the Presidency he was made Minister of Public Instruction. In 1872, at Versailles, he proposed to demand of the Comte de Chambord the recognition of the tricolor and the acceptance of the Comte de Paris in default of the heir direct. This speech roused press discussion and party anger, until the Count found that the easiest way out was to declare himself "a proved Legitimist." His writings dealt with religion, politics, and agriculture.

During the latter part of December rebels destroyed the Catholic mission-houses at Ughean, Anam, and killed a French missionary and 500 native Christians. A column of French troops was sent in pursuit of the rebels. It overtook and routed them and captured their arms and ammunition.

The Powers have summoned Servia, Bulgaria, and Greece to disarm, promising them that Turkey shall follow their example. Servia has resolved not to make peace with Bulgaria until the question regarding the disposition of Eastern Rumelia by the Powers has been solved in a manner which will satisfy the wishes of the Servian Government.

Prince Alexander and the Porte have come to an understanding on the following conditions: That the union of the Bulgarians be recognized by the Porte; that the Bulgarian army be at the disposal of Turkey in the event of war with Greece or Servia; that tribute be paid regularly to the Porte; that the customs rights of the Porte be maintained, and that Prince Alexander go to Constantinople to be invested with the Governorship of Eastern Rumelia.

The Greek Government has made overtures to the Government of Montenegro looking to an alliance against the Porte. The King of Greece will leave his capital soon for the Thessalian frontier to inspect the army. It is supposed that this will be the prelude to the beginning of hostilities. Bismarck has warned Greece against war.

The financial difficulties of the Turkish Government are increasing. The soldiers are clamoring for their pay. It is proposed to issue paper money. The Military Council will instruct the commander on the Greek frontier to attack the Greeks if they make any hostile movement.

Emperor William has signed the Spirits Monopoly Bill and submitted it to the Bundesrath. The bill proposes to compensate those deprived of a livelihood through its operation on the basis of a two years' income to each person ten years in the trade. The traffic will be controlled by a monopoly ministry, which will appoint agents to do the wholesale vending of the refined spirits, the Federal States appointing the retailers.

Minister Pendleton has induced the German Government to rescind the order for the expulsion of German-Americans from the island of Foehr.

No news of the reported seizure of the Samoan Islands by the war ship *Albatross* has been received by the German Government. Germany adheres to the neutrality agreement with England respecting Samoa. The State Department at Washington has received no advices regarding the alleged seizure. The independence of Samoa has been guaranteed by a treaty between the United States, Germany, and England. It is asserted that Germany is merely settling her differences with the reigning King of Samoa, and when she has succeeded will restore neutrality.

Contrary to alarmist reports, the Pope is in excellent health.

A party of seventy Spanish rebels, including forty belonging to the garrison, seized Fort St. Julian, in Carthagena, on Monday, and wounded the Military Governor. Troops hastened to the scene of the disturbance, and the rebels fled to a small vessel in waiting in the harbor. They shouted for Zorilla and the republic. A man-of-war has gone in pursuit of them, and Carthagena has been declared in a state of siege. Several arrests were made.

The Belgian Senate has adopted a bill providing that newspaper telegrams and other news bearing editors' notices forbidding reproduction must not be reproduced without credit.

A fight has taken place between a body of Russian troops and a tribe who were crossing the Persian frontier to winter in Russian territory. The Persian Government is said to fear a Russian invasion of Khorassan.

MR. BAYARD AND THE FISHERY QUESTION.

NOTHING could be more flagitious and unwarranted than the recent attacks, led by a prominent Democrat in Massachusetts, on Secretary Bayard for his course in relation to the pending fishery question; and their virulence naturally suggests a suspicion of an intent to forestall anything like a calm discussion of the merits of the case by appealing to and awakening popular prejudices. But what are the facts in the case?

The fishing clauses of the Washington Treaty of 1871 having been abrogated on the 1st of July last by the action of Congress, the Treaty of 1818 (between the United States and Great Britain), determining the rights and privileges of citizens of the United States engaged in fishing in British American waters, again comes in force. In this treaty the United States renounced any right to fish "within three marine miles of any of the coasts, bays, and harbors of his Britannic Majesty's dominions in North America." The interpretation of this limitation—certainly on the part of English diplomatists—has always been "that the three miles meant miles to be measured from the headlands or extreme points of land at the entrance of bays or indents of the coast," and, therefore, that American fishermen had no right to enter such bays or indents to take fish, even if the fishing were done at a distance of more than three miles from the shore. It is also to be here noted that, in agreeing to such renunciation of fishing rights, the United States relinquished to Great Britain nothing more than it claims for itself — our admiralty jurisdiction by act of Congress extending within a marine league from our shores, while in 1806 our Government thought it not unreasonable that they should have exclusive jurisdiction "within the chambers formed by headlands, or anywhere at sea within the distance of four leagues; or from a right line from one headland to another" (see Madison's letter to Monroe and Pinckney, May 17, 1806). Judge Story, in his Commentaries, also thought that the United States had a right to claim maritime jurisdiction for fiscal and defensive purposes over waters on our coasts, even though included within lines stretching from quite distant headlands, as from Cape Ann to Cape Cod, and from Nantucket to Montauk Point, etc.

But although the United States has by its own legislation clearly acquiesced in the English interpretation of the Treaty of 1818, its fishermen—especially those engaged in the cod fishery off Newfoundland—never have; and ever since the ratification of this Treaty of 1818 the attempt on the part of British colonial authorities to enforce it has led to numberless collisions between our fishing vessels and the British coast-guard cruisers, with arrests and seizures of property, prolonged litigation and diplomatic correspondence; and in more than one instance the two countries, by reason of these disputes, have been led almost to the verge of war. Now it was under these circumstances that Congress abrogated the Treaty of 1871, and, with a carelessness in respect to detail that is not a little singular, fixed upon the 18th of July, 1885, in the midst of the fishery season, as the day on which the abrogation should take effect, and the arrangement for the season's fishing entered into in the spring by the American fleet be summarily broken up. It is to be borne in mind that the privileges granted to the Americans by the treaty covered not only the right of fishing along the shores and within the bays and headlands of the British colonies, but also the right to land for the purpose of drying and curing fish, for mending and drying nets, for the purchase of ice, bait, wood, and other ship's stores, and for selling and disposing of their "catch" if they found it profitable so to do—as is the case in respect to the catch of cod below a certain size. The result of this would have been that if the Canadian and Newfoundland authorities had insisted upon their rights, and had summarily compelled the American fishermen to desist from fishing in British colonial waters after the first of July, the business of the American fleet would have been mainly broken up, large losses would have been entailed upon its owners, and a feeling of bitterness engendered which it was clearly the intent of both Governments to avert.

That such a condition of affairs was imminent is shown by the circumstance that during the last winter a bill was introduced into the Canadian Parliament providing for two armed cruisers to protect the Dominion fisheries from encroachment consequent upon the abrogation of the treaty. Accordingly, early during the last year, at the promptings mainly (it is understood) of the authorities of Newfoundland, who had no desire to have their shores and waters made the scene of turmoil and possible conflict, a proposition was made to the Administration by the British Government, through its Minister at Washington, that the fishing ventures of the American fishermen in British colonial waters, commenced prior to the 1st of July, 1885, should be allowed to continue until the end of the fishing season the same as if the treaty had not been abrogated; on condition that the President of the United States would call the attention of Congress to the matter at its next session, and recommend the authorization of a commission on the part of the United States and Great Britain to consider the subject, and if possible settle the questions at issue in an amicable manner. It is for promptly acceding to this friendly proposition, with the sanction of the Executive, that Mr. Bayard is now abused and accused of having transcended his authority. The last charge rests upon the circumstance that in the memoranda exchanged between the two Governments it was understood, but not stipulated, that the same immunity accorded by Great Britain to the citizens of the United States engaged in fishing in British-American waters, should be extended to British vessels and subjects engaged in fishing in the waters of the United States; and this, it is claimed, Mr. Bayard had no right to do. But the shallowness of the pretence here set up becomes apparent when it is understood that if there is any fishing by British subjects within American waters—*i. e.*, within three miles of the shore—it is probably accidental and exceptional rather than intentional.

In short, the secret of this whole business—the abrogation of the treaty in the first instance, and the opposition to any attempt to settle any pending difficulties relating to the fisheries in a rational manner by another treaty—grows out of a desire to increase the price of fish food to the great mass of the American people by imposing high protective duties on the same. And the parties to this project start with the assumption that the British colonial authorities have not the same right to control their own local waters which this country claims and exercises in respect to its own waters, and scout the very idea that anything like a reciprocity of interest is involved in the controversy. As we seem to learn little in respect to any of the great questions of the day except through the hard school of experience, it would on some accounts appear to be desirable that no attempt should be made at present to renew the fishery treaty, in which case the American "Bank" fishermen would probably, in about six months, be calling for the protection of armed vessels, and the country, in addition to its present business embarrassments, would have the prospect of more or less serious complications with Great Britain to think about.

OUR FOREIGN LEGATIONS.

THE Troy *Times*, of which our late Minister to Vienna, Mr. Francis, is the editor, has a long article in answer to the *Nation's* advocacy of the abolition of our foreign legations. He pleads, on behalf of the legations, first "the wisdom of the fathers" who established them, forgetting that the fathers knew nothing about the electric telegraph and the compound marine steam engine. He next pleads that consuls cannot communicate with foreign governments at all, and we cannot by any legislation empower them to do so. This is true, but they can communicate with their own Government in about two hours from any part of the world, and their own Government can communicate with any other in about the same time, and settle claims for "damages suffered, illegal arrests," and so on, when serious, by special envoy. Mr. Francis—for we may presume it is he—further says that

> "From his friendly relation with colleagues of the diplomatic corps, the minister may learn essential facts respecting the movements and intentions of other governments oftentimes bearing upon important interests of his own country and upon affairs respecting the common interests of nations. The duties of the diplomatic officer are of grave character, and involve serious responsibilities pertaining to the intercourse and good understanding of nations."

A minister undoubtedly "may" learn such things, but, as a matter of fact, the American minister does not. We believe there has not been a case since the close of the war in which our ministers have sent home any news of importance to us about "the movements or intentions of foreign governments" which might not have been learned from the newspapers, except during Blaine's Chilian trouble, which he got up himself. If Mr. Francis knows of any other case, let him produce it. He further says:

> "It is not true that because our ministers, as a rule, do not speak several languages, and because the law requires them to appear at diplomatic assemblies in plain dress in contrast with the showy uniforms of colleagues, they are therefore subjected to the pain of ridicule and shame of

humiliation. The English language is spoken everywhere, and by the larger proportion of fairly educated persons abroad; it is spoken at the foreign offices with which ministers are in communication; it is largely understood and spoken in diplomatic and court societies. Our Government requires its ministers to write in English all notes addressed to foreign offices. Our ministers, though not generally skilled linguists, have no difficulty in making themselves understood, nor of understanding others with whom they have to deal in diplomatic intercourse."

Our charge was not that our ministers "do not speak several languages," but that, except in England, they rarely speak the language of the country to which they are accredited. At this moment we happen to have a minister in Paris who speaks French fluently, and have had of late several in Berlin who spoke German, but this state of things is rare. In the first year of the war, the American Legation at Paris, where the Confederate envoys were intriguing sharply, had not a single person who could speak French or read the newspapers except a hired interpreter, who, it was currently reported, sold Mr. Dayton's conversations with the Minister of Foreign Affairs to Slidell. Moreover, the English language is *not* "spoken everywhere," or "by the larger proportion of fairly educated persons" in any country. And our ministers *have* difficulty in making themselves understood—difficulty that in most cases amounts to impossibility. Mr. Francis must not suppose that his having filled a diplomatic post himself qualifies him to give flat denials in matters of this sort, of which every American who has visited a foreign capital is more or less cognizant. The truth is, that there is generally no worse authority on the position of the American minister abroad than the good soul who fills the place, and feels all the glory of it. Of what people are saying around him he generally knows nothing, and his brother diplomats are of course polite by profession, and take care of his self-love much better than he can do it himself. If he could get admitted sometimes to their inner gossip about him and his ways, it would make him a much better authority on the value of American diplomatic service than he is now.

Of course the explanation of all this is very simple. Qualifications for a particular place are hardly ever considered in filling our legations abroad. The considerations which govern the appointments are almost always considerations of home politics. One man gets this because he gave a good contribution to the campaign fund; another gets that because he stumped or wrote vigorously during the canvass, or because he lost his seat in Congress, and "hung round" a good deal. Why should a process of selection which has not the smallest relation to the work to be done produce any better results than we have described? Why should a rattling country editor, or rousing stump orator, or a wealthy business man necessarily make a good diplomatic officer? There is no reason in the world. If our diplomatic service, filled as it is, served its ostensible purpose fully, it would shake one's confidence in the principle of cause and effect. Everybody knows that the real reason why it is kept up is to furnish party rewards to politicians of some prominence, for whom nothing sufficiently dignified can be found at home. There is no real use for it. All the watching we need done can be done by consuls; any slight difficulties can be settled by telegraphic correspondence; any serious one by special envoys, who would be sure to be selected, and always are selected, with reference to their qualifications for the work to be done.

There is no day in the year, probably, under the present system, in which an American minister is not, in some quarter of the world, discrediting his country in the eyes of foreigners by his ignorance or bad manners. At this moment our Minister to Japan is a standing scandal. We have sent there a Texan cowboy sort of man, who thinks it fine and "American" to be brutal and insolent to his colleagues and the natives, who are themselves among the most polite and ceremonious people in the world, and who, far from knowing any language but his own, probably is rather proud of the fact that he does not. The social gossip of every city in Europe except London is full of funny stories and traditions of the queer people who come over to represent the United States. The following bit of news just received is a specimen of the materials for ridicule and amusement which American ministers are constantly furnishing their colleagues, in some capital or other:

"One of our naval officers on the west coast of South America writes home that Mr. Buck, the new Minister to Peru, has been guilty of appearing at an official dinner in a business suit. The dinner was given in his honor, and he was the only one of the guests who did not appear in evening dress. It was afterward disclosed that Mr. Buck did not have such a thing in his wardrobe, and the officer writes that he and other of the Minister's friends have since succeeded in finding one for him."

This gossip is now and then silenced for a while by the appearance on the scene of a thoroughly accomplished American, who knows how to fill his place; and occasionally such a man, like the late Mr. Marsh in Italy, is allowed to remain long enough at his post to efface all memories of any other kind. But these cases are rare. A new Administration comes in, and, presto! the courtier, scholar, soldier, gives place to some child of nature, fresh from the woods and bent on showing the effete societies of Europe how freemen ought to behave.

A STUDY OF "RING RULE."

THE closing number of the third series of the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science has for its subject "The City of Washington: Its Origin and Administration." About half of the *brochure* is devoted to a study of the late Territorial Government (in which Alexander R. Shepherd held supreme dominion), and of its historical sequel, the triumvirate commission now charged with the administration of the city.

As the study is intended by its author, Mr. John Addison Porter, to be "suggestive rather than exhaustive," it might disarm criticism for its sketchiness if, unhappily, from the fault of his method, the writer had not made the latter half of his treatise almost as misleading for what it contains as for what it omits. In a prefatory note Mr. Porter explains that he has derived no special knowledge of his subject from any one of the numerous volumes on Washington. "In fact," he adds, "material for the study was chiefly obtained from local newspapers," the files of which at the Capitol are described as "very complete and of unusual interest to the student of American history and politics." In thus uncovering his method of research, Mr. Porter discloses at once the secret of the inaccuracy and insufficiency which we find in the whole treatment of what he calls "the reign of the Board of Public Works" in Washington while the star of Mr. Shepherd was in its brief and baleful ascendency. It is matter of notoriety that the "local newspapers" of Washington during that epoch, with a few transient exceptions, were conducted in the interest of the so-called "Washington Ring." So completely were these organs won over to the thick-and-thin support of the Board that its adversaries in Washington were at last compelled to seek the hospitality of journals in Baltimore and New York for the publication of their grievances. It is no matter of surprise, therefore, that in drawing his "material" from such partial authorities Mr. Porter has inadvertently fallen into anachronisms and errors of statement which would have been detected at once if he had made more careful reference to official public documents, equally accessible at the Capitol with the files of the "local newspapers."

We can notice only a few of the numerous inaccuracies in this part of the Study. Referring to the prosecution which in the year 1872 conducted the first inquisition into the methods of the Washington Board of Public Works, Mr. Porter says that it "failed to substantiate any one of the many counts on which it had boasted that it would secure the conviction of the Board." We do not know what the prosecution "boasted," but we do know that, in the unanimous judgment of the Congressional Committee charged with the investigation of that year, at least one of the "counts" *was* "substantiated"—the count directed against the unexampled profligacy of the Board in dispensing advertising and printing patronage to the "local newspapers." On this "count" the Board was "convicted," and, besides, its members were censured for not being "sufficiently mindful of the small extent of their jurisdiction," for not duly considering "the slender constituency upon which all the public burdens were to rest," and finally (what was really the gravamen of nearly all the counts filed by the prosecution) for not taking sufficient care "to have rigid economy prevail in every department." The Board, it is true, was continued in office, but with a public reprimand which to men of sensitive public virtue would have sounded rather like a rebuke than the "moral victory" which Mr. Porter describes.

After reciting how the Board signalized their "victory" by the display of "despotic powers"; how they built miles upon miles of sidewalks, carriage pavements, country roads, sewers, water mains, gas mains, etc.; how they laid a dozen different kinds of wood pavements, and how they planted no less than 25,000 shade trees—and all this in the short space of eighteen months—Mr. Porter concludes the glowing record with the still more glowing assertion: "In short, they *created* Washington as it is known to-day."

The slightest familiarity with the municipal history of Washington during the last eleven years would have protected the writer from risking such a stroke of rhetoric in a grave historical paper. What the Board of Public Works "created" for Washington, "as it is known to-day," can be chiefly found in an enormous public debt, piled up mountain high, beyond all precedent in even American municipal administration, and this, too, largely for "street improvements" which because of their utter worthlessness it has been found necessary to make over again under the present methodical and honest Government. We may instance the single matter of the fifty-odd miles of wood pavements. The first cost of these pavements was more than $4,000,000, a debt on which Washington is still paying interest, though the abominations of desolation have at last been entirely replaced by new pavements of good construction—the replacement within six years alone, from 1878 to 1884, having absorbed nearly a million and a half dollars ($1,420,250). Mr. Porter is equally at fault in his cosmogony of Washington when, after enumerating the sewerage system of the city among the "creations" of the Board, he pronounces it "adequate and complete." If he had turned to the annual report of the Commissioners of the District for 1884, he would have found that the sewers bequeathed to the present Government by the Shepherd Board were constructed on an erroneous theory of surface rainfall; that the largest of them was choked with backwater at every heavy shower; that at many points they soon fell in because of careless construction; that their bottoms soon wore out because laid with rotten bricks; and that even the roots of the trees sometimes struck through their tops as through common mould (Report for 1884, p. 176).

Mr. Porter says that at the beginning of the investigation in 1874 the Board "assumed a shrewd attitude," and professed themselves "entirely willing that the examination should be made." What attitude the Board may have shrewdly assumed in the "local newspapers" we know not. But it is a matter of public record that Governor Shepherd, in his own name, and in the name of his associates, formally and vehemently protested in a memorial to Congress against what he called "further needless and fruitless investigations." The first investigation was enough for him, and he thought it ought to be enough for everybody else. Mr. Porter says that up to the very end of the inquiry "it was a neck-and-neck race" whether the Shepherd Board or its opponents should win their case. On the contrary, the members of the Joint Congressional Committee made no scruple, toward the end of the scrutiny, in betraying their righteous impatience at some of the Board's irresponsible methods—an impatience which found expression in a unanimous report favoring the summary extirpation of the whole Territorial Government root and branch.

Mr. Porter infers the beneficence of "Ring Rule" in Washington from the fact that real-estate "operations" rose in the city from $4,000,000 in 1870 to $12,000,000 in 1873, without pausing to consider how large a part of this increase resulted from the "confiscations" of the Board, which forced property out of the hands of its owners into the maw of speculators. He praises the "foresight" of Mr. Shepherd "in narrowing many of the ways," as if that plan had not been already in partial execution; his "foresight" in "transforming the sewerage system" of the city, as if he had not left it so deformed that the real transformation came after him; and his "foresight" in adopting "concrete for the roads instead of Belgian pavements," as if, in his original and "comprehensive plan" of street improvements, formulated in 1871, Mr. Shepherd had not virtually excluded both, by holding that "the value of property in the District of Columbia would not warrant the general introduction of wood or other expensive pavements," or that, "if used at all, they should be confined to a few of the principal avenues." This was the "foresight" which presaged the construction, within less than three years afterward, of more than fifty miles of worse than worthless wood pavements, some of them stretching into the waste and uninhabited parts of the city, and costing, altogether, as has been already said, more than $4,000,000! Such was the "foresight" of the man whom Mr. Porter holds up to our admiration as a "master mind," many of whose plans showed "a positive genius for municipal administration." True, a committee of Congress, composed of enlightened Republicans and Democrats, after carefully scrutinizing his "municipal administration," unanimously reported that, as a cure for the abuses which had become organic in the Territorial Government, no remedy would suffice "short of its abolition." True, when President Grant, soon after the close of the inquest, nominated this "master mind" as one of the Commissioners of the District, the Senate of the United States summarily laid the nomination on the table with almost entire unanimity—there were only six dissentients, we believe. In spite of all this, Mr. Porter still holds that Mr. Shepherd, at the very crisis of his downfall, "had done more than any one man to make Washington beautiful and prosperous," albeit that, as we read on another page, "the people of the District were pumped dry." The prosperity of a city, accordingly, seems to be something which can be divorced from the prosperity of its inhabitants, and may sometimes be greatest when the latter are left "flaccid and drained," like mice in an exhausted receiver.

A DRIVE FOR TROTTERS.

The *Turf, Field and Farm* has an article calling for the provision of a trotting drive on the west side of the Park for light vehicles, and complaining of the favor shown the saddle horses in the exclusive use of a bridle path. There is no doubt that, considering the place which the trotting horse occupies as a national amusement, there ought to be some place near the city in which he could be shown and enjoyed by the very few who can own him; but the difficulty is that a special drive for trotters would be, were there room for it on the west side of the Park, which there is not, simply a racecourse, with all that the name implies. What owners of trotting horses want is a track to "speed" them on; for ordinary "jogging" the ordinary roads do well enough. But speeding means racing, and racing means the attendance of vast crowds, who would soon ruin any adjacent vegetation, and in fact destroy every semblance of a park. We can think of nothing just now better fitted to ruin the trees, grass, and shrubbery of the Park, and drive women, children, and quiet men away from it, than the introduction into it of a trotting course. If such a thing should be provided by the city, the Harlem Flats are the place for it. There is no place on the west side of the Park level enough for it.

The owners of trotting horses would do a great deal to ennoble and dignify trotting if they could somehow dissociate it from liquor. Nothing does more to degrade it as an amusement than the need which nearly every trotting man seems to feel of filling himself at some period in his jaunt with more or less rum, gin, brandy, or whiskey. The result is that roads frequented by trotters are sure to be lined with groggeries, which makes them always undesirable for the general public.

This alone would seem to make it necessary that trotters should have a park all to themselves, and there is no doubt that such a park or drive would be a great addition to the attractions of New York as a place of residence. All the great trotters in the country, as *Turf, Field and Farm* says, are apt sooner or later to find owners in this city, and there is naturally, both among strangers and residents, a strong desire to see them at work. A horse that any body is willing to give $20,000 or $40,000 for is always more or less of a curiosity, even if he cannot be seen showing off his paces, and there ought to be some better place to see him than the Seventh Avenue Boulevard, on which trotting horses now do their speeding. There is no good reason why better provision should not be made for them. All they need is a straight piece of road with a soft road-bed kept watered, with raised sidewalks for the spectators, and reserved exclusively for light vehicles. It would hardly be necessary to prohibit other pleasure carriages from entering it, as they generally have a wholesome dread of the trotting man doing twenty miles an hour on three or four cocktails, and priding himself on the closeness with which he can shave anything he meets or overtakes.

It would be mere affectation, however, to discuss the duty of the city toward trotters without mentioning that there is a moral view of the trotting horse which would make a good many taxpayers unwilling to go to any expense about him. In the first place, a really good trotter is always, or almost always, a rich man's toy. No person of moderate means can afford to own one. In the second place, the trotter in a very large number of cases causes the ruin of the poor young men who have a taste for him. As soon as a poor man gets a fancy for a fast horse, his bank or his till is very apt to suffer sooner or later. There is no more seductive form of extravagance. The man who begins modestly with a three-minute horse and thinks this is all he will ever desire, has not speeded him "on the road" or "talked horse" at the stable very often without a feeling that true happiness can-

not be had short of a two-forty horse; and the two-forty horse has not been enjoyed very long before a two-thirty or two-twenty horse is found necessary to a full and rounded life, together with a Brewster wagon, and costly robes, and a gorgeous white coat. These rises in the scale of enjoyment, of course, cost awfully. Every ten seconds of increase in speed has to be paid for at a tremendous rate, and there are few men of small means who, once started on this road of extravagance, have the courage to draw off before they "burst up." There are but few trotting horses in this city to-day which at some period in their career have not wrecked a fond owner.

And then, after everything has been said for the strain put on nerve and muscle by holding a trotter, or still more a pair of trotters, going at a high rate of speed, it still remains true that driving a wagon with legs tightly wrapped up, is not exercise for a young or middle-aged man of sedentary habits. It gives him fresh air and a gentle jogging, which are all that an old lady needs, but a man who has sat over a desk all day needs something much more active and stirring in order to be really well. We presume that, if the truth were known, the amount of "kidney trouble" among highly fed business men, fostered or hastened by confining their exercise to light-wagon driving, with frequent drinks on the road, would be found rather startling.

ENGLAND: MR. GLADSTONE AND THE IRISH QUESTION.

LONDON, December 31, 1885.

NOTHING was more surprising all through the late elections than the silence of both members and constituencies regarding Ireland. If you had asked any thoughtful politician which was the most serious question before the country, which would most tax the wisdom of Parliament, he would have answered, the question of Ireland. Yet candidates referred in few and vague words to the subject. Some did not refer at all. The practice of questioning them on their views has become common of late years, and sometimes this process of interrogation lasts for half an hour after nearly every meeting the candidate holds. They were questioned on all imaginable English and many foreign subjects, but scarcely at all about Ireland. Was this because candidates and members did not recognize the gravity of the position, or because they tried to turn their eyes away from a disagreeable subject, or because they really did not know what to think, wish, or propose regarding Irish troubles and demands? Probably all these causes had something to do with this strange silence, but the last cause most. Anyhow, we had this phenomenon of a whole nation ignoring, while it elected its governors, the first and chief problem those governors have to face.

The election was hardly over, and Mr. Parnell's Parliamentary strength perceived to have been doubled by it, when the newspapers began to discuss the situation, and men asked how the Queen's Government was to be carried on with neither English party in a majority of the whole House of Commons. Suddenly, about the 16th of December, it was announced in the press that Mr. Gladstone had made up his mind to propose a scheme of home rule—*i. e.*, a scheme for yielding to Ireland a separate Parliament. This statement did not come from him, and he declared it presently to be unauthorized and not to represent his mind correctly. Such a disavowal, however, admitted more than it denied. The inner circle of his party already knew that Mr. Gladstone's mind had advanced much on the question, so no one now doubts that he is prepared to create a new Irish Parliament in Dublin, though as to the details of the scheme, and the relation of such a Parliament to the imperial one at Westminster, he still stands uncommitted. How his view came out has not been fully ascertained, but it is generally believed that he addressed, in his capacity of Privy Councillor, a letter to the Queen, suggesting that the subject should be dealt with by Parliament, and offering to do his best to coöperate with the present Government in its settlement; that the Queen, as in duty bound, laid this letter before her Ministers; and that through them or some person about the court its contents, or an inaccurate version thereof, found their way to publicity.

The country was startled, needlessly and unreasonably startled, because the situation was already so grave that nothing Mr. Gladstone might intend could make it more so, and because those who had keenly scrutinized his previous utterances must have seen in which direction his mind was travelling. Startled, however, it was. Among most of the Liberals, respect for their leader and faith in his wisdom struggled with alarm at the novelty of the proposal. Having been accustomed to regard the Irish Nationalists as enemies, and having just suffered grievously at the polls from their hostility, they were not prepared to hear that these Nationalists were substantially in the right, and that the Irish demand ought to be granted. Their thoughts, their comprehension of the whole position, had lagged far behind those of the leaders who perceived the difficulty of resisting the wishes of so enormous a majority of Irish members as Mr. Parnell commands; and it was now first that they woke up to see facts as they are. The Tories were at first frightened, thinking it might be all up with their prospects; but after a day or two, when they perceived how much surprised Liberals also were, and how doubtful it was whether his party was prepared to follow Mr. Gladstone, they began to rub their hands in glee. Now, at last, had come that disruption of the Liberals for which they had been waiting and praying so long. Now was their arch-enemy delivered into their hands, abandoned by his followers, discredited before the country. The Tory press could ascribe his action to nothing but a fierce longing to get back to power: for the sake of this he was prepared to surrender to Mr. Parnell, and purchase his vote of eighty-six by sacrificing the unity and greatness of the empire. Stories flew about of secret communications between the Nationalist leader and the old man at Hawarden; even interviews were spoken of, although there is no foundation for any such tales. While the regular party men took this tone, the moderate Tories, and moderate Liberals no less, became seriously uneasy. They had all along thought an Irish Parliament a dangerous, indeed almost a fatal, experiment; and Mr. Gladstone's adhesion to the notion seemed to bring it within the horizon of practical politics. They acquitted him of being moved by the desire for office, because if that had been his object he would evidently not have written to the Queen and proposed to help the Government, but would have tried to turn Lord Salisbury out by Mr. Parnell's help before revealing his own purposes. But they thought his change of views (not understanding how far they had developed months and months ago) sudden and alarming, calculated to increase that distrust with which he has long inspired them. The more advanced Liberals, and those especially who have been attached to Mr. Gladstone personally, were disposed to consider fairly and favorably any proposal he might make. Still, they regretted the way in which this proposal had come out. It had the advantage, an immense advantage, of being recommended to the nation by his persuasive eloquence. It seemed to have been made, primarily to the Queen, incidentally, as it turned out, to the country, without consultation with some of his most important colleagues in the late Ministry. And in point of fact its disclosure was followed, after several days, by a letter from Lord Hartington, addressed to the Chairman of his Election Committee and published as soon as written, in which that statesman, who has hitherto been deemed Mr. Gladstone's heir apparent in the leadership, declared himself opposed to the notion of a separate Irish legislature. This letter, having been written after a consultation with Mr. Goschen and Sir William Harcourt, was taken to express their sentiments also, and produced no small impression. Since then the newspapers have been full of articles and letters on the topic, which, of course, dwarfs all others. There have been few speeches, because the Christmas holidays have intervened, and because men are waiting to express themselves in Parliament, which, it is now rumored, will proceed to active business soon after the middle of January.

A more perplexing position cannot be imagined. That nobody knows what will happen when the new House of Commons meets is the least part of the difficulty. Nobody seems to have any scheme for dealing with the Irish question, and yet it is plain that nothing else can be done while it stops the way. Hitherto the English advocates of home rule have, with few exceptions, been silent. Either they don't know their own minds on details, or they are waiting for Mr. Gladstone. Mr. Parnell is silent; so are his followers. Whether they have a practical scheme; whether, if they have it, they will propound it; whether their silence is due to internal divisions, or to a fear of the extreme or Fenian wing, reported to be not very strong at present in Ireland, but believed to be strong in America—all this is mere matter of conjecture. Accordingly, the assailants of home rule have it all their own way in our press. They descant on the difficulties, indeed, the perils, open and hidden, of an Irish Parliament, and they have an easy task, for those difficulties can hardly be overstated. They show how it would be necessary either to construct a new constitution for the three kingdoms in granting a separate legislature to Ireland, or else to admit an amount of independence scarcely short of complete separation, and they point out that there is no security that by either scheme friendly relations would be established between the two countries. The Duke of Argyll points out, in a letter full of his usual force and eloquence, that the parallel of the United States is inapplicable. Minor writers insist that to yield up the control of the police to an Irish authority would not merely endanger the person and property of any unpopular individual, but would enable such an authority to raise and drill a large armed force. The Protestants of Ulster—Liberals calmly, Orangemen fiercely, but scarcely more earnestly—insist that they must not be left to the mercies of an Irish Parliament, and predict civil war as the probable consequence of such an experiment. But while so much argument and invective are directed against the suggestion, no one deals with the other side of the question, and tells us in what manner the double problem which confronts us is to be solved.

It is a double problem because it has a Parliamentary side as well as a local side. Eighty-six members of the House of Commons, acting as a compact body on all occasions, will be able (unless checked by some new rules of procedure) to paralyze the House of Commons. It is not merely that they will be able to protract discussion to

interminable lengths, but that by the use of their votes they will make it almost impossible to carry on the ordinary business of the country, except by keeping a very large body of Ministerial members always in attendance. It is found hard enough now to keep the legal quorum of forty during certain hours of the evening, or when there is a dull subject under discussion; how much harder will it be to have at least one hundred always ready to outvote the Nationalists when they choose to make themselves disagreeable, which presumably they will do whenever they see their chance? Stricter rules may be introduced, but this is what the Tory party has hitherto objected to, lest the freedom of debate should be curtailed for all members; or the Nationalist members may be suspended, but what a mischievous precedent wholesale suspensions will set. As for the difficulties in Ireland itself, the painful experience of 1880, 1881, and 1882 enables us to realize them. If there is another strike against the payment of rent, if agrarian outrages reappear, as is to be expected, fresh coercion acts will be called for, and Ireland will again be dealt with as a hostile country. England is doubtless so much the stronger country that she can govern by the sword. But will the English democracy persevere in so governing? Will not every year aggravate the situation, till at last either home rule is conceded or the English have become so exasperated as to abolish representative institutions in Ireland altogether, and rule her as in the days of Cromwell?

The perception of these difficulties makes some of our politicians who see all the objections to an Irish Parliament slow to declare themselves against it. But for the moment the tide runs against Mr. Gladstone—or the plan attributed to him—even in his own party. Of the Liberal members of the new Parliament whose opinions have been ascertained, only a small minority express themselves in favor of an Irish legislature. The rest, while prepared to go more or less far in the grant of county boards and other reforms of local government, stand firm for the maintenance of the union as at present. In these circumstances a change of government does not seem likely to take place at the beginning of the session. But how will a ministry in a minority of eighty-two be able to live through a session, even if it receives support against the Irish from a section of its Liberal opponents? Y.

WHAT ARE THE CAUSES OF THE CONSERVATIVE REACTION IN ENGLAND?

OXFORD, December 26, 1885.

THE well-to-do classes in England have for the moment gone over to Conservatism. This is the prominent fact of the situation and the true result of the elections. The electoral returns, indeed, hardly show the full strength of the dominant Conservative sentiment. The Tory vote in the towns is balanced by the Radical vote in the counties, and (what is of more consequence) hundreds of men who either voted Liberal or did not vote at all, have become more than half Conservative in their hearts. There were many Liberal voters who would have felt a chastened satisfaction at the return of a decisive Ministerial majority. My aim in this letter is not to describe the present state of public feeling. It must be patent enough in every English newspaper which reaches New York. My object is to state briefly the causes which have brought about a condition of opinion as noteworthy as any which I have witnessed during my lifetime. They will not be discovered by even the most candid of partisans, but they are not hard for any one to find who stands outside politics and keeps open his eyes and ears.

(1.) The consideration which lies at the bottom of all the other causes which I am about to enumerate is that the Constitution of England has, for the last twenty years at least, been growing far more democratic than the average sentiment of educated Englishmen. The last extension of the suffrage has revealed to every one that the country, which is still governed by nobles and by rich men, has adopted or slid into a democratic polity. There is a momentary want of correspondence between the institutions and the habits of the nation. This want of harmony produces two results. Radicals like Mr. Chamberlain demand changes which correspond with the theory of a democratic constitution, but which do not really answer to the wishes of the most influential classes. Well-to-do persons, whether calling themselves Liberals or Tories, refuse to sympathize with innovations which may correspond with the form, but are at present alien to the spirit, of the Constitution. There is no need that I should show in detail how naturally this state of matters fosters Conservatism.

(2.) Mr. Gladstone's last Ministry has been a Government of failure. This is a point on which among fair judges no real difference of opinion can exist. Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues, when they went out of office, had not a friend left among Continental statesmen. They had sacrificed a great deal (rightly enough, in my judgment) to maintain the friendship of France, and yet they had nearly embroiled the country with the French Republic. Of the fiasco in Egypt it is painful and needless to say much. Gordon's death and the whole train of events which led to it are known to all the world, and will not soon be forgotten by large bodies of Englishmen. Last of all, their Irish policy had not conciliated Ireland. When it became known that not a single Liberal was returned for an Irish constituency, the political failure of Mr. Gladstone's Irish policy, which had long been suspected by observers, became visible to every one. Let it be noted that I neither mean to assert nor to imply that for the whole of these failures the Liberal Cabinet was responsible. A later generation will recognize the immense service rendered to the whole United Kingdom by the conduct of the Government at the time of the Phenix Park assassinations. To their Ministry's moderation and firmness it is due that the nation was not carried away by a burst of passion as natural as that which marked the outbreak of the Indian mutiny, and even more calamitous. But failure, even when excusable, is none the less failure, and a government whose guidance leads to disaster has no right to expect confidence or popularity. The late Cabinet, moreover, so mismanaged matters as to incur condemnation by whatever criterion their conduct was judged. Their policy in Egypt was at least as much opposed to the principles of Mr. Bright as to the principles of Lord Salisbury.

(3.) Mr. Chamberlain's radicalism may (it is possible) have gained votes for the Opposition in the rural districts. But it has shaken the allegiance of the Liberals in our cities. The shock given by his proposals did not arise nearly so much from their violence as from their inconsiderateness. Tory pamphleteers and orators accuse the Radical leader of dishonesty. In this, as is constantly the case with partisans, they miss their mark. The charge which, to judge from his acts and from his language, he cannot easily rebut, is want, not of honesty, but of knowledge. It is hard to believe that he understands these laws of political economy which he seems to think may be set aside as easily as an Act of Parliament can be repealed, and it is absolutely certain that a politician who, with a light heart, suggests the disestablishment of the Church of England, knows nothing of the sentiment prevailing among large bodies of his countrymen. Moreover, Mr. Chamberlain's recklessness is but an example of a vice which, from the nature of things, is apt to infect Radicals. A party which demands rights or privileges for the people is apt to assume its own necessary popularity; and leaders who rely on the support of the crowd constantly forget that the supposed opinion of the people is in many cases little better than a political fiction, and that even the support of numbers will not for any length of time, in a country like England, enable a politician to dispense with the confidence of men of common sense. The tone adopted by some extreme Radicals toward Mr. Goschen—a statesman whose influence and position have been immensely raised since the beginning of the electoral contest — is a specimen of the tone used toward the whole body of so-called moderate Liberals. These men have their defects, but the alienation of Whigs or moderate Liberals means the strengthening of Conservatism, and, should the alienation continue, the ultimate triumph of the Conservative party.

(4.) Among educated Liberals faith in Mr. Gladstone's judgment has vanished. There has always, indeed, lurked among Whigs and Radicals of the type represented by the late Mr. Fawcett a distrust of Mr. Gladstone's political methods. No one of common sense ever doubted or can doubt his public spirit. No one, except the writers in the *St. James's Gazette*, can believe that he is prepared to sacrifice the interest of the nation on the altar of his own vanity. But it is quite possible to believe, and thousands of Liberals do now believe, that the late Premier is wanting in balance, is guided too much by the impulse of the moment, and is, in some respects, essentially out of sympathy both with the creed of ordinary Liberals and with many of the strongest of English sentiments. He may no doubt be, as his admirers assert, morally superior to the mass of Englishmen. What is certain is, that somehow or other his character differs from the character of the men of whom he has been the leader. It is equally certain that nothing but the continued success of a statesman's policy will ever make him popular, or even tolerated, among a people whom he does not understand, or who do not understand him. That the policy of the Liberal Ministry has, apparently at least, led to failure after failure, I have already pointed out. That the peculiarities of Mr. Gladstone's genius or temper make him incomprehensible to the majority even of his followers, is apparent enough from incidents familiar to all your readers.

What, for example, can an ordinary Englishman of common sense think of the treatment received by Gordon? If the General was sent to Khartum with Mr. Gladstone's full cognizance and approbation, what is it possible to think, in face of the calamities which ensued, but that either the Prime Minister exhibited the most extraordinary lack of foresight, or the General (which, without further evidence, one is not justified in believing) was the victim of something like treachery? If, on the other hand, as I see suggested in the *Nation*, Mr. Gladstone sent the English hero to risk life and credit in deference, not to Mr. Gladstone's own judgment, but to the clamors of the London press, what can one think of the Premier's firmness or principle? Trifles, however, are, in matters of character, as significant as important transactions. All the world has been the witness to Mr. Gladstone's disastrous controversy with Professor Huxley. The controversy may be well termed a disaster for two reasons: it proves that the most eminent of English statesmen can write with dogmatic assurance on topics of which, from the nature of things, he can know little, and of which, after the Professor's rejoinder, there is reason to believe

that he knows nothing. It shows, further, that the pilot on whose political sagacity England will have probably to rely at as desperate a crisis as any through which the country has ever passed, is occupied with the interests of theology rather than with the immediate and pressing problems of politics. It is said on good authority that Lord Palmerston used seriously and with some temper to maintain that Bacon was the author of the plays attributed to Shakspere. If his Lordship had, while at the head of the Government, or even when in temporary retirement, published essays in support of the paradox by which he was captivated, he would assuredly not have retained the public confidence in his good sense.

Look, lastly, at the whole series of rumors, denials, and explanations which half reveal and half obscure Mr. Gladstone's attitude toward home rule. It were unfair positively to assume his responsibility for the conjectural statement of his views, but he certainly is responsible for his opinions still being a matter of conjecture. All England believes that he is favorable to some form of home rule. If this belief be well founded, then it is hardly possible to use language grave enough to describe the evil done to the whole United Kingdom by the mode in which the leader of the Liberal party has suffered his opinion on a matter of vital importance to be irregularly revealed. If, on the other hand, the general belief be unfounded, why is it that Mr. Gladstone cannot dispel the prevailing error? Lord Hartington has not half his leader's command of language, but Lord Hartington has contrived in a few plain sentences to make his position perfectly clear. This Mr. Gladstone cannot or will not do. It would be impossible not to attribute this failure simply to want of will, were it not for a hazy recollection that years ago, when an impertinent fanatic asked Mr. Gladstone whether he was not a Roman Catholic, Mr. Gladstone could neither leave the question alone nor dispose of it by a plain answer. Nor will Americans have forgotten the difficulty there has been found in defining satisfactorily Mr. Gladstone's attitude toward Southern secession. No doubt all this unconscious mystification (for such it may fairly be believed to be) arises from idiosyncrasies in the great statesman's character which are compatible with the highest talents, and also with indubitable zeal for the welfare of his country. But if American critics will consider how utterly impossible it would have been for Mr. Lincoln or Mr. Seward to have commanded the faith of the North, or, for that matter, of the South either, if he had from any peculiar turn of mind concealed his view of secession under unsatisfactory explanations or inconclusive denials of authoritative rumors that he contemplated granting to the South everything which the Confederates could demand except nominal independence—such a critic will understand why Mr. Gladstone, in spite of his great services to the nation, inspires among hundreds of his own followers every feeling of respect except faith in his judgment. A. V. Dicey.

THE "EUMENIDES" AT CAMBRIDGE, ENGLAND.

London, December 17, 1885.

To many that were present at the representation of the "Œdipus" given at Harvard in May, 1881, a doubt must have occurred as to how much of the impressiveness of the play was due to its ample and appropriate setting. Sanders Theatre, if not designed with a view to such uses, at any rate accords in its general plan with what is known of the Greek theatres. The arrangement of the orchestra space and the steps leading from it to the stage needed small alteration, while the great height and breadth of the proscenium arch furnished room for a scene of unusual grandeur, and the spaciousness of the auditorium gave to the spectator that sense of freedom that must have been felt by the Athenians, as they sat on the carved slope of the Acropolis to listen to the verses of Sophocles.

Without any of these advantages, the performance of the "Eumenides" of Æschylus recently given at Cambridge, by members of the University, proved deeply interesting. The little hall used for the occasion, and somewhat humorously named the Theatre Royal, is provided at one end with a stage about eighteen feet square. In front of this and only a yard lower, a space was arranged for the evolutions of the chorus; still further forward toward the audience sat the band. The tragedy was shortened, and divided into a prologue and three acts, for each of which there was a separate scene. The prologue showed a terrace looking off upon a rocky glen, the site of the Delphic Oracle. The *Priestess* appears, and, after a short invocation, enters to consult the divine voice, but returns immediately and falls to the ground horror-struck at what she has seen. The first act takes place in the interior of the shrine, a heavy Doric temple opening upon the sacred cave. The *Furies* are lying about the stage asleep, while *Orestes* clings for protection to the central altar, behind which stands *Apollo*. The god promises to protect the suppliant. To evade the fury of his pursuers he sends him, under the guidance of *Hermes*, to the temple of Pallas at Athens. The ghost of the murdered *Clytemnestra* enters, and with much effort arouses the sleeping *Furies*, who descend to the orchestra to sing their chorus of rage at the escape of their victim, and are then driven forth by *Apollo*.

In the second act *Orestes* reaches the Temple of Pallas—built in advanced Ionic style—and, invoking the protection of the goddess, falls at the base of her statue. The *Furies* enter one by one, tracking the victim by his footsteps. They discover his asylum, and sing a song of fury and vengeance. At the end of this, *Pallas* appears in answer to *Orestes's* prayer, and, having listened to both sides of his cause, promises to have it tried before a jury of Athenian elders. The *Furies* sing a third chorus, and are driven from the temple by the goddess, who stands at the door, spear in hand, and protects the suppliant with her glittering ægis.

The scene of the third act is the summit of the Areopagus. A herald having sounded the summons at *Pallas's* command, the goddess mounts her lofty seat, and the cause is tried. *Orestes* admits that he slew his mother, the accusing *Furies* urge the enormity of the crime, while *Apollo* testifies that he incited *Orestes* to commit the deed and gave absolution for it. The jury being equally divided, *Pallas* gives her casting vote for acquittal, and finally appeases the anger of the *Furies* by offering them a residence in her city and an honored place in its theogony.

While treated with unfailing earnestness, all the characters, except, perhaps, those of the priestess and the chorus, were played with marked and intentional formalism. The question precisely to what degree the Athenian actors were realistic in the presentation of their parts, will probably long remain open. On the one hand, we have the fact of their stilted shoes, their padded garments, and their rigid masks. On the other, in one of his dialogues Plato makes an actor talk of acting in a way that is hard to reconcile with any theory of merely conventional expression. Whether the young men at Harvard were right or wrong in their attempt to interpret Sophocles with all the help they were able to derive from action and elocution, it is clear that the Cambridge undergraduates adopted a different course with Æschylus. The speeches were delivered with calm dignity, and illustrated with slow and measured gestures. The result was far from being dull.

In addition to the chorus music and an orchestral prelude to each scene, the action of the play was accompanied by a running musical commentary, and if the spectator now and then found the formalism of the actors inexpressive, the music must have suggested the meaning to him. Although distinctly modern in quality, Mr. Sanford's composition admirably suits the spirit of the play, and, there can be no doubt, contributed much to its success. Especially was this the case with the awakening of the *Furies* and with their discovery of *Orestes* at the statue of Athena. Some scenes, however, received an almost melodramatic note from the excessive emphasis given by the kettledrum. The members of the chorus sang with spirit and apparent accuracy, and, besides acting out their own part with intelligence, greatly heightened the effect of several scenes on the stage by making inarticulate sounds, reinforced by the band. Although the smallness of the orchestral space and the insufficient difference in level between it and the stage seriously hampered their movements, they contrived in the choric dances to combine a pleasing rhythm of motion with a large measure of dramatic expression. Their dresses were grotesque without absurdity, and the judicious use of dull foil ornaments lent an effect of weirdness.

The chief characters were, of course, played by young men of marked athletic beauty. The *Apollo* in particular quite reminded one of the antique statues in many of his poses. But decidedly the most interesting figure in the performance was that of *Pallas Athena*, played by a "sweet girl graduate" from Girton College, whose acting in the "Electra," given there some time since, is said to have been of distinguished excellence. The young lady's picture of the clear-eyed goddess was charming in its exalted dignity and simple earnestness, and her soft precision of speech was most grateful to the ear. To one, however, accustomed to the Continental method of pronouncing Greek, or to that in use in our own colleges at home, the English sounding of the letters seemed often harsh, especially in the recurrence of the *ow* (cow) sound for the diphthong alpha upsilon, and of the *z* sound for sigma.

In the matter of the dresses, one felt a lack of intelligent supervision of the draping of the garments, and of sufficient rehearsal in wearing them. To reproduce on a moving model the effect of classic drapery, one must not only know the proper shape of each garment, but must also have a closer acquaintance with the nature of modern stuffs than is usually found within the walls of a college. In a few cases, however, the imitation of archaic stiffness was excellent, as in that of the Athenian herald, who looked like one of Flaxman's figures come to life.

As has been hinted, the scenery was rather unsatisfactory. It would doubtless be hazardous to attempt, with the imperfect material furnished by modern archæology, a reconstruction of the wooden prototypes of the Greek temple; but we need not on that account rest content with the ignorance and crude color sense of a provincial scene painter. The play would have been more impressive had its two temple scenes and the rocks of the Areopagus been painted less harshly.

It is in no carping mood that these few flaws in the representation of the play have been suggested. All who took part in the work showed obvious and conscientious earnestness, and their success was of the highest interest and impressiveness. L. E. O.

DAUDET'S 'SAPHO' DRAMATIZED.

PARIS, December 28, 1885.

ALPHONSE DAUDET holds a peculiar place in our modern romantic literature. He does not belong to the old-fashioned, somewhat artificial school, which may be said to be still represented by Octave Feuillet; he does not belong any more to the true naturalist school, which has Zola for its master. He is realistic without being systematically vulgar; he does not absolutely prefer odious, hideous, loathsome subjects and characters; he is not a pessimist, and there is in him an irrepressible touch of the gay, cheerful, and optimist South. Though he has ridiculed the South in his 'Tartarin' (which might be in many respects compared to the productions of Mark Twain), in 'Numa Roumestan,' and quite recently in 'Tartarin sur les Alpes' (a New Year's book of the season, which has met with much success, partly owing to its charming illustrations), Alphonse Daudet is a child of the South; there is no real sadness, no true melancholy in him. There is a vein of true sentiment, sometimes an outburst of real pathos, in some of his works: in 'Fromont jeune et Risler aîné,' in 'Jack'; but on the whole the balance always falls on the side of humor, gayety, and hope. What is very remarkable and even admirable in all Daudet's productions is what I cannot call otherwise than life. There is an extraordinary vitality and movement through all his work—no system, no elaborate style, no perception of effort; his descriptions are photographs, but they are not dry: "il y a de l'air," as the painters say of a landscape. His characters also have "de l'air": they are all more or less volatile, they have nothing statuesque, they are carried away on the current of life—a current which is sometimes so rapid that you can hardly follow it. In this respect also Daudet belongs truly to the South; he is not a dreamer, he is essentially an actor: "Act, act, in the living present."

There does not seem to be much system in his choice of subjects. He does not pretend, like Zola, to give us a new "Comédie Humaine." His receptive mind takes in to-day one thing, to-morrow another: he is a mirror. You can always recognize some living character in his novels; every Parisian knows who the 'Nabab' was, and can give the real names to all the characters of that novel, as well as to those of 'Numa Roumestan.' The poet of 'Jack' is still living; the verses which are cited by Daudet in the novel were really written by this poet "without a heart." I confess that I do not know whom Daudet had in view when he wrote his last novel, 'Sapho,' for this takes us into a world which is not familiar to me—the world of the studios of painters and sculptors. This world is, in many respects, quite apart. It is very different from the real world, though I hasten to say that the artists of very great eminence are a part of this real world; but the rising artists, the beginners, those who are only known in a small circle, form a sort of society which has a freedom unknown in the regular society. In dress, in manners, in almost all the details of life, this artistic world affects a license and has an originality which make it worthy of study. It is not the "demi-monde," but it has its illegitimate *liaisons*, which sometimes assume the seriousness of marriages. The women who are met among the painters, the artists, the literary men who live in their company, are not venal, and in this respect they are much superior to the women of the "demi-monde." They are more intellectual, more imaginative; they are living in a higher stage. They are to be seen on varnishing day, with their friends, as anxious as they can be themselves, as curious, as uneasy. There is something of the old "Bohemia" left in this world of painters, but it is no longer the "Bohême" of Henri Mürger, composed only of very young men and women: it is a Bohemia where you meet men with gray beards, and old models who have become semi-respectable matrons.

This curious world is very well painted in 'Sapho.' Daudet shows us a young diplomat lost in it, and falling in love with one of its stars. As usually happens, the innocent youth does not look back on the past, he only thinks of the present; he forms a *liaison* with Sapho, and it is only gradually that he learns that she has been the friend, the mistress, of almost all the men whom he meets; he becomes gradually disenchanted, a retrospective jealousy torments him, but he cannot break the chain. Daudet has painted in his novel very artistically the slavery of these curious connections formed outside of the social rules; his analysis is painful, minute, excellent. It was an unfortunate idea, however, to try to transform the novel into a drama, and, though Daudet has been helped in this attempt by a clever dramatist, M. Belot, "Sapho," as a drama, as it is now played on the French stage, is a failure.

The reasons for it are obvious. The character of the illegitimate marriage, if the word is allowable (there is a very coarse French word for it which I dare not repeat), is very peculiar. Its essential and necessary elements are habit and a certain sort of materialistic love, which also takes the form of habit. In a novel you can show a man struggling against this form of love, and you can show also the woman putting on him the shirt of Nessus, forcing herself on her lover, coming between him and his family, having Time for an ally, and habit and the natural laziness and weakness of a feeble heart. On the stage the element of time disappears; you must show us the human passions at their crisis. All the slow influences which bring a lover under a yoke, which by degrees destroy his sense of pride, of responsibility, which debilitate him and bring him always back, contented or discontented, at the feet of Sapho—all these influences disappear. The quarrels of lovers in Molière are delightful, but they are mere episodes, and they never deceive us; in "Sapho," the hero and the heroine quarrel in a very different manner. First the man takes *Sapho;* in another act he leaves her; in a third act, he takes her again; in the fourth, he takes her and leaves her again. This perpetual divorcing and marrying is very tiresome and very senseless, especially as, in a few hours, the author cannot explain so many revolutions of mind.

There is, besides, no real drama in the development of the character of Sapho. She has no morality, and it seems perfectly natural to her to leave one man and to follow another: she is unconscious of her own depravity. She wants a home, but it is indifferent to her whether this home is permanent or temporary. She is like a child who should consider any woman as a mother. If she has a preference, it is for the man who is the least worthy of respect; and the morality of the novel is only to be found in this secret preference. Sapho has had many lovers—poets, painters, sculptors; she has always in her heart preferred an unfortunate engraver, who has for her sake committed forgery, and who is in prison. She probably feels her superiority over a man who has made such a sacrifice for her, and when his term comes to an end she is drawn to him by an irresistible attraction. She abandons the young diplomat whom she has separated from his friends, from his family; who has become her slave; who has given up his career for her. She leaves him, and returns, without any apparent reason, to the man whom she despises, but who has been in prison for her.

The painful scenes which mark the development of the passion of the young diplomat, the heartlessness of Sapho, the tragical dulness and bitterness of their "faux ménage," are admirable elements for the novel, but they are totally unfit for the stage. The drama, as it is played, can only be endured by virtue of the secondary characters, who are very cleverly drawn, and are always amusing in Daudet's works. But is it not a singular eulogy to say that the secondary parts of the play are much superior to the principal? These secondary parts are essentially Parisian; they belong to a well-defined latitude; such as they are, they are perfect pictures of life.

I cannot much recommend this new system of drawing a drama out of a novel. In a pecuniary point of view there is certainly much to be said for it. There is no doubt that a moderately successful play will win for an author much more money than a very successful book. The railways bring every day to Paris an army of foreigners and of *provinciaux*, who fill all the theatres every night. A play with the name of Daudet, of Dumas, of Sardou, of Pailleron, will always make money, even if it is not good; and if it is good it will net its author a small fortune. Such considerations, however, do not concern the critic; and it is an undoubted fact that a bad drama hurts the novel which has furnished its elements. I had read 'Sapho' once with pleasure; after having seen the drama I tried to read it again, and I could not find my former satisfaction. There was something between the author and me; I could no longer give to Sapho, to her lovers, imaginary faces; I saw before me the actors and actresses who had personified their parts. Everything was changed; it was a new world, the vulgar world of a theatre. Nothing was left to my own mind. 'Sapho,' as I read it now, seemed like a new book, and a very inferior book. The finest thoughts are those which have never been expressed. There is also a certain ideality left in a printed book which is lost when the thoughts and the characters come before us in a living form. I would never advise a good novelist to succumb to this terrible temptation of the stage. The dramatist and the novelist ought to be different men; they require different qualities, and almost irreconcilable faculties. The dramatist needs precision, action, almost brutality; his color must be strong, often coarse; he must take us into the midst of passions and show us their culmination. The novelist has Time on his side: he can work like nature itself, he can reveal to us the most hidden springs of passion. He is a thinker, a philosopher. The dramatist is essentially an actor.

Correspondence.

THE COMMITTEES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A full month, at least a fifth part of the average of Congressional sessions, has passed, and not only is no business done, but the committees who are to prepare the business, not to speak of doing it, have only just been announced. What a medley they form! Square men in round holes, and men that are not square in holes which at least ought to be so. There seems to be no pretence that they are made up with reference to the settlement of vital questions of national interest on broad principles of statesmanship, the object being simply to reconcile the furious jealousy of partisans, though why, for any honest purpose, any human being can want such positions it is difficult to perceive. If the Speaker has great power in this respect, he has to pay dearly for it. Daniel in the lion's den would furnish a fair comparison—that is, supposing the lions to

have given way to their natural appetites. But if the committees were not ready for business, business enough was ready for them. Bills by the thousand are heaped upon their heads, with no order of precedence and no standard of relative importance. Wrangling, intrigue, and anarchy are the only words which will describe the situation. It is this desperate struggle which has evolved the despotism of the Committee on Appropriations, the latter again resulting in the lamentable expedient which has been resorted to for relief.

The President is reported to have said, in relation to the silver question, that the subject had now passed beyond his control or direction; that he had not the slightest desire to influence in any way the consideration of Congress beyond the methods employed by him in his official message to direct their attention to the subject. If by this he means that he will not employ official favors to influence the votes of members, there can be nothing but praise for his decision. The supposed necessity of a contrary course is a curious reminder of the argument and practice which Sir Robert Walpole used in carrying on the British Government in a time of fearful Parliamentary corruption, a century and a half ago. It is to be hoped that we may find a shorter road to avoid the danger. But if the President means that, his functions being purely executive, it is not his business to help Congress and the country out of the slough into which they have fallen, it is much to be regretted that he should take this limited view of his duty. It was not to elect a mere mechanical instrument that ten millions of voters went to the polls in November, 1884. There is nothing extravagant in saying that he is bound to use every faculty and every discretion given to him within the Constitution and the laws to promote the welfare of the nation which has placed in his hands so solemn a trust. He, and he alone, more than any man or body of men in the country, has the power to open an avenue of escape. There would surely be no thing impertinent or revolutionary in asking Congress to take into serious consideration a report signed by eight Senators of both parties, approving of the admission of Cabinet officers to the floor of both houses.

At present the silver men have it all their own way. Expense being no obstacle, they can manufacture an apparent public sentiment at discretion. They can air their oratory in both houses without encountering any opponent able from his position to urge the national interest effectiyely against their schemes. They can block the action of the houses in the hundred ways offered by the legislative chaos. A Secretary of the Treasury joining in the debate, demanding precedence, or, as the French say, "urgency" for the question, with his responsibility for the national finances and backed by the national will, would soon put them in a different attitude. That is the way, and the only way, in which a satisfactory solution is possible of attainment.

There has been no President since Lincoln to whom such language could be addressed with any chance of success; but the increasing confidence of the country in the character and independence of Mr. Cleveland justifies the use of it.

G. B.

Boston, January 11, 1886.

THE PRESIDENTIAL SUCCESSION BILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have not seen the text of the Hoar Presidential Succession Bill, or any summary of the debate on it, but on reading your remark that the Secretary of State, on becoming acting President, could appoint a new Cabinet (with the exception of the Secretary of State), I wondered who in the event of the Secretary's death after such a Cabinet reorganization would succeed him; the next member in order of the new or old Cabinet? If the latter, on what grounds, since he is no longer a Cabinet officer? Is there any provision for this contingency, and if not, have we not here another "interesting question"?

C. R., JR.

New York, December 25, 1885.

[The bill leaves no room for doubt on this point. Its language is: "In case of removal, death, resignation, or inability of both the President and Vice-President of the United States, the Secretary of State, or if there be none, *or in case of his removal, death, resignation, or inability, then the Secretary of the Treasury* . . . shall act as President." Of course this means the Secretary of the Treasury who is in office at the time when the Secretary of State dies, whether he be the appointee of the dead President or Vice-President, or the selection of the Secretary of State who has become acting President.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a recent issue you took the ground that under the proposed new law the Secretary of State, should he become acting President, must nevertheless remain Secretary of State, just as a President *pro tem.* of the Senate, who should become acting President of the United States under the old law, would remain President *pro tem.* of the Senate. "The reason," you add, "in each case is the same, because it is only by virtue of holding the office of Secretary of State or President *pro tem.* of the Senate that he can act as President."

A similar interpretation of the Constitution of Maryland would leave this State at this moment without any one authorized to "discharge the duties of" Governor. The Constitution provides (Art. 2, sec. 7): "In case of any vacancy in the office of Governor during the recess of the Legislature, the President of the Senate shall discharge the duties of said office until a Governor is elected, as herein provided for"; namely, by the Legislature at its next session.

In accordance with this provision, a "vacancy in the office of Governor" having occurred some months ago, Mr. Lloyd, who had been elected President of the Senate at the opening of the January session, in 1884, assumed the "discharge" of "the duties of said office," and has continued to discharge them ever since, and will continue to discharge them, if he lives, till the election of a Governor by the Legislature at its coming session, some two weeks hence.

But Mr. Lloyd was elected Senator at the November election, 1881, and the Constitution provides (Art. 3, sec. 2) that each Senator shall "serve for four years from the date of his election." Now, Mr. Lloyd's successor in the Senate was elected on the 3d of last month, to "serve for four years from the date of his election." It follows, therefore, that Mr. Lloyd ceased to be Senator, and so ceased to be President of the Senate, on the 3d of last month; and that thereupon, if your argument is sound, his authority to discharge the duties of Governor was then vacated, and that the Secretary of State failed to do his duty under Art. 2, sec. 7 of the Constitution in not convening the Legislature to fill the vacancy.

E. J. Stearns.

Easton, Md., December 26.

[There is no doubt that the framers of the Maryland Constitution intended that the vacancy should be filled by the man who held the place of President of the Senate when it occurred. The language used is equivalent to saying "the *then* President of the Senate" shall become acting Governor and so continue until a new Governor is elected. The Federal Constitution does not provide that a particular officer shall succeed and hold the place until a new election, but only authorizes Congress to declare "what officer shall then act as President." It is a mooted question whether, under the law of 1792, a President *pro tem.* of the Senate who might succeed to the Presidency in this way would be entitled to discharge the duties of acting President in case his term as Senator expired before a new election for President were held; and this doubt constitutes a strong reason for changing the order of succession to a line of officers like the members of the Cabinet, who have no fixed term.—Ed. Nation.]

PLACE-SEEKING A POPULAR WEAKNESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is very common talk among persons and in papers of the political proclivities which distinguish the *Nation*, that the people at large, those who do not expect office and do not want it, take little interest in the distribution of the governmental patronage so long as the public is well served by those in office. In this I think they are mistaken. I think the virus of the spoils system has infected very deeply the whole body politic of the country. Place-seeking has become a game in which a majority of the people are very much interested. Their sympathies are strongly enlisted with the contestants on their side. They feel very much as does a man who takes an interest in base-ball, and who, if a betting man, always stakes his money on the club which happens to represent the city in which he resides, and in any event, becomes intensely excited in the outcome of each game. Like some cutaneous eruptions, this strange manifestation is a symptom of deep-seated disease. The newspapers understand what the abnormal appetite of their readers demands, and publish long despatches every day from Washington acquainting their readers with the varying aspects of each struggle for perhaps a $1,500 per annum post-office. They describe the contest in much the same language a war correspondent would use in depicting a battle scene. To-day the friends of Smith, aspirant to the Postmastership at Podunk, "are fighting a gallant but hopeless battle." The next day "they have sent for reinforcements." Perhaps the day following, the succor has arrived in the shape of an influential delegation from the Podunk district armed with new affidavits, and "the tide of battle is turned."

If a change was impending in a $1,500 clerkship in any mercantile office, the newspapers would not spend their money freely in telegraphing and publishing facts and speculations as to the prospects of each applicant. Why do they do it in the case of a person seeking employment under the Government if the explanation I suggest above is not the true one? O. S.

Chicago, Ill., January 7, 1886.

THE DEATH-RATE FROM CONSUMPTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The argument of Dr. Henry B. Baker, the able Superintendent of Vital Statistics of the State of Michigan, rests mainly on the following point, which he thinks has been well established, namely: that the death-rate from consumption

increases rapidly after the age of fifty. This point, he says, was first demonstrated in the vital statistics of Michigan for 1870. Let us see how solid a basis these statistics furnish.

In the first place, how are the vital statistics collected in Michigan? By the Supervisors of each township, who make an annual inquiry of the inhabitants of their respective townships as to the deaths which have occurred during the year! Mistakes enough are made when the law compels the certification of the cause of death by the physician in attendance before a permit for burial can be obtained. By what figure shall we multiply these mistakes when the cause of death is reported by a member of the family in which the death occurred, very often months after its occurrence? The world over, many deaths from disease attended by wasting, the other symptoms being more or less obscure, are set down as due to consumption; and these cases are more likely to occur under the age of five and over the age of fifty. In Michigan, a young and comparatively thinly-settled State, one would naturally expect an undue proportion of these cases; and that such an expectation is justified by the facts, the subjoined figures will show.

Secondly, it clearly appears that all deaths were not returned. According to the report, the death-rate for Michigan in 1870 was only 9 1-3 per thousand, a rate which shows in a moment that, at the most, not more than three-fifths of all deaths can have been reported.

Thirdly, the total number of deaths from consumption in Michigan in 1870 is given as 1,451. Now, merely for the sake of argument, let us suppose that in these 1,451 are included all the deaths from consumption during that year in the State, and no deaths from any cause other than consumption. It is surprising that a statistician of reputation should venture to base any argument on such small figures, and they the figures for only one year.

Let us for a moment contrast the Michigan statistics for 1870 with those of Massachusetts for the years 1875–1884 inclusive:

	Michigan, 1870.	Massachusetts, 1875-84.
Total deaths from consumption.....	1,451	56,053
Under the age of 5 years.....	135= 9.3 per ct.	2,705=4.8 per ct.
Between the ages of 20-40.....	602=41.5 per ct.	27,801=49.9 per ct.
After 50.....	348= 24 per ct.	11,459=20.4 per ct.

A glance at these figures is enough to show that the Michigan statistics—and consequently the deductions drawn from them—are of very little value. The death-rate from consumption does not increase rapidly after fifty, but reaches its maximum between the ages of twenty and forty.

Doctor Baker asks for the statistics of the proportion of consumption to inhabitants at ages definitely stated, a distinction being drawn between the foreign and the native-born. I think that a table showing this could be made out from the Massachusetts registration reports, and regret that it is impossible for me to give the time necessary for its preparation.

Regretting that my demand on your space is so great, but promising to ask no more in connection with this subject, I remain,

Yours very truly,

FRED'K C. SHATTUCK, M.D.

BOSTON, January 8, 1886.

REALISM AND IDEALISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have followed with great attention the discussion of realism and idealism. May I enter a protest against the meaning which Mr. Kenyon Cox in his interesting letter desires to give to the word naturalism? It is not that I do not accept Mr. Cox's distinction between realism, idealism, and naturalism; what I wish to protest against is the use of the word naturalism in the sense he uses it, because it would lead to confusion. The French, who are our masters in the fine art of criticism, whether of life or of literature or of art, and who have most carefully elaborated the terminology of criticism, have already adopted the word naturalism as meaning, in brief, ultra-realism. As romanticism is the revolt against classicism, so naturalism is the pushing still further of realism. Racine and Voltaire were classicists; Hugo and old Dumas were romanticists; M. Augier and M. Dumas, *fils*, are realists; M. Daudet and M. Zola are naturalists. And M. Zola has set forth the theory and practice of naturalism in many heavy tomes of polemic criticism and of solidly constructed fiction. Cannot Mr. Kenyon Cox call his naturalism—a very different thing from M. Zola's—by another name?

BRANDER MATTHEWS.

NEW YORK, 121 East 18th Street.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The very interesting discussion by Mr. Stillman in the *Nation* of December 31 of Realism versus Idealism scarcely disguises Mr. Stillman's partisanship of the idealistic school. The extraordinary phase of contemporary art known as realism or naturalism seems to Mr. Stillman sufficiently explained as a result of deficient imaginative power. I cannot venture to meet Mr. Stillman on his own ground of plastic art, or to broach a discussion as to the amount of imaginative faculty evident in the realistic painting and sculpture of our day, *e. g.*, in the French school of realistic painting; but the explanation which Mr. Stillman offers scarcely applies to the department of art in which the realistic theory has been most extensively popularized—I mean in fiction, especially novel-writing.

Mr. Stillman, indeed, seems almost to regard realism as an essential feature of modern fiction; but few critics would deny a distinction, not merely of degree but of fundamental conception, between the fiction of Thackeray or Hawthorne or George Eliot on the one hand, and that of Balzac, of Zola, of Alphonse Daudet, or of Tolstoi, on the other, far transcending the differences between any two members of either group. Balzac's work would probably be generally accepted as a typical example of realistic fiction, but it is scarcely conceivable that any one should deny to Balzac exuberant creative power, and few would deny a high degree of the same endowment to Balzac's more distinguished pupils, although the imagination displayed by these writers differs in kind, or, let us say, in direction, from that of another school. The realistic delineation of character and life cannot be regarded as merely mnemonic or objective any more than that of Shakspere or Thackeray or Hawthorne. Who would venture to assert that Balzac could possibly have known by actual experience a tithe of the characters and situations that he exhibits, or could have conceived them otherwise than by the imaginative intuition of genius? Nor can it be said of the masters of realistic fiction that they only see in their *dramatis personæ* what others might see in living personages, or that they merely "record external behavior and appearance." On the contrary, they conceive clearly the springs of being in their creations, and grasp well the unity of each moral nature; but they do not exclude, and in fact, give great prominence to, much that the idealistic school would regard as accidental, and appropriate only to the lower forms of comedy or to purely sensational fiction, such as the merely fortuitous occurrences of life, all manner of catastrophes and events not springing from the action of the characters or the moral principles involved in the story, the purely material surroundings of the personages, etc. What the idealistic school would regard as the mere frame or background of a romance, the realistic school raises to coördinate importance with the moral action. In this respect, Mr. Stillman's distinction between the idealistic and realistic tendencies cannot be controverted.

If, however, it be granted that realism in fiction is not due to a paucity of imaginative power, the introduction of the purely physical and fortuitous which characterizes it must be explained by some novel conviction or need felt by the writers of the realistic school—some fresh phase of human experience to which one group of minds may be more sensitive than another. It is my own belief that realism, in fiction at least, is due to the rapid disappearance of faith in a Divine government of the universe controlling human affairs as a beneficent Providence. Surely no experience could be more likely to leave its trace upon the art of any period than the transition, which a vast proportion of thoughtful persons of our own century have known, from trust in a moral order pervading human destiny to a recognition of the eternal antagonism of inhuman, irrational natural force. Now the novel is essentially a form of drama; and in all drama above low comedy the interest of the plot is based upon some conflict, whether of human emotion and will in antagonism with some supernatural power, as is usually the case in Greek drama, or of the will and passions of an individual or individuals pitted against another group of characters or against some moral principle or social prejudice, as in modern drama. When, however, all gods, Pagan or Christian, are dethroned, and we have recognized how infinitesimal is the domain of human science and moral law as compared with the outlying region of occult force, a far sublimer theme for drama offers itself in the desperate conflict of man with elemental nature, with the purely physical impulses of his own organism, with the fortuitous complications of human intercourse, with all that excludes and defies rational insight and rational volition. This antithesis of man's moral being to blind nature or chance seems to me the keynote of realistic fiction.

In idealistic literature the purely fortuitous scarcely appears; the occurrences of the drama are represented as results of some supernatural agency or moral law, and the narrative is pervaded by belief in the ascendency of mind, divine or human, over matter. Vice itself receives a certain moral character from the underlying conception of free-will. In realistic fiction life is shaped by the mysterious workings of heredity, the iron link of cause and effect replaces free-will, character is warped beyond recognition by the play of circumstance, and man appears not as the lord of creation, but as some pigmy in conflict with the Titans.

In fine, realism in fiction seems to me a very distinct product from realism in landscape-drawing, although there is sufficient superficial analogy between the two phenomena to explain the common application of the term.

Mr. Stillman concludes his letter by asking what relation the real has to music. Did not Wagner spend his life in attempting to demonstrate that music has an essential relation to the real?

T. R.

NEW YORK, January 4, 1886.

AN ELOCUTIONARY AFFECTATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Please allow me a little space to protest against a disagreeable affectation which teachers of elocution are trying to introduce into the pronunciation of English. They insist that we shall in speaking separate *at* from *all* in *at all*, and from *any rate* in *at any rate*—whereas, in the

natural utterance of any cultivated man in either England or America, *at all* is as much "one word" as *attempt* is, and *at any rate* as much "one word" as *attenuate* is.

Let any one read aloud a sentence of English—of this letter, for instance—and he will notice that we (unless we are thinking of what some one has told us is right) separate a word from the word which comes after it only when the sense or ease of utterance is the cause of such a separation. In any sentence whatever of considerable length, many more words are joined to their fellows than are separated from them.

Now there can be no closer connection in sense than between a preposition (*e. g.*, *at*) and its object (*e. g.*, *all*), nor any succession of syllables easier to utter than an unaccented one ending in a consonant (*e. g.*, *at*) and an accented one beginning with a vowel (*e. g.*, *all*). It is true, we speak of a man's "running his words together so you can't understand him," but this is when he runs them together in unnatural groups, or it may mean merely that he speaks too fast and indistinctly. R. L.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., January 4, 1886.

"A.B." AT WASHINGTON AND LEE UNIVERSITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On p. 8 of this week's *Nation* your Boston correspondent gives a list of colleges where a knowledge of Greek is not required for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. To this list Washington and Lee University should be added. The only academic degrees offered by this institution are A.B., M.A., and Ph.D., there being several schemes of study for each of these degrees. In one of the schemes for A.B., only one of the two languages, Latin and Greek, is required, and only a partial course of that one.

Yours truly,

S. T. MORELAND.

W. AND L. UNIVERSITY, January 9, 1886.

Notes.

CASSELL & Co. will directly begin publication of "Cassell's National Library," a series of reprints, issued weekly under the editorship of Professor Henry Morley, which "will represent all periods and forms of thought." The first volume will be Macaulay's 'Warren Hastings.' White's 'Selborne,' Hallam's 'Middle Ages,' Franklin's Autobiography, Luther's 'Table-Talk,' Byron's 'Childe Harold,' are other works named in the prospectus. The volumes will be octavo, of about 192 pages, and will be sold for ten cents each, or $5.00 by the year—a cheapness hardly to be matched on such a scale.

Scribner & Co. announce for the present month Lieutenant Greely's narrative of the Franklin Bay expedition, in two volumes octavo, under the title, 'Three Years of Arctic Service,' and with more than a hundred engravings and maps.

For this month, too, is set down the appearance of D. H. Montgomery's 'Leading Facts of English History,' and Prof. P. V. N. Myers's 'Mediæval and Modern History'; and for June of Esyenbach's German Grammar, revised by William C. Collar, head master of the Roxbury Latin School (Ginn & Co.).

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce for immediate publication a volume entitled 'Progressive Orthodoxy,' made up of the editorial articles on this subject which have appeared in recent numbers of the *Andover Review*.

Mr. Howard Seely, a recent graduate of Yale, and author of 'A Lone-Star Bo-peep, and Other Texan Ranch Tales,' published by himself, has prepared a new edition, with additional tales, to which Dodd, Mead & Co. will give their imprint. The work will appear shortly.

William S. Gottsberger will publish this week Count Leo Tolstoi's historical novel, 'War and Peace,' translated from the French by Clara Bell, in two volumes.

The *Forest and Stream* Publishing Company will issue a third and enlarged edition of W. P. Stephens's 'Canoe and Boat Building.'

Henry Holt & Co. will be the American publishers of Sir Henry Maine's 'Popular Government,' and of 'The Father's Tragedy,' and other poetic dramas, by Michael Field; also, of Zeller's 'Outlines of the History of Greek Philosophy,' translated by Sarah Frances Alleyne and Evelyn Abbott.

W. A. Croffut is preparing an illustrated history of the Vanderbilt Family, to be ready in May.

The Messrs. Goldsmid, of Edinburgh, are to print in their "Collectanea Adamantea" an unabridged translation of 'Manon Lescaut.' That so expensively issued during the holidays by the Messrs. Routledge, a correspondent informs us, was probably made by D. C. Mozlan, and was first published by Joseph Thomas in 1841.

We learn that seven essays have been received in competition for the Naval Institute Prize for 1886, the theme being: "What changes in organization and drill are necessary to sail and fight our war-ships of the latest type?" The best essay receives $100, a gold medal, and life-membership in the Institute. The subject of the essay for 1887 is: "The Naval Brigade: its Organization, Equipment, and Tactics." The signatures must be mottoes, and the essays be handed in by January 1, 1887.

We have received the January issue (No. 1 of vol. 1) of *Lend a Hand*, a magazine published at No. 3 Hamilton Place, Boston, as a sort of clearing-house for societies and individuals "engaged in public improvement" "on different lines of philanthropy"—in other words, an organ of associated charities. As may be inferred from the title, the Rev. E. E. Hale is at the head of the literary part of the enterprise.

The first number of the *Philanthropist*, also, is before us, an eight-page paper published monthly in this city for the promotion of social purity. Mr. and Mrs. Aaron M. Powell are the editors.

Robert Clarke & Co. have brought out a second edition of Mr. Appleton Morgan's 'The Shakespearian Myth.' The author adds a new preface, correcting himself on two points in the former edition, and referring to "the very great elaboration the Baconian theory has [meantime] received . . . at the hands of Mrs. Henry Pott, Mr. Ignatius Donnelly, and others." "Elaboration" is a neutral word, but we fancy that Mr. Morgan implies by it something different from the *reductio ad absurdum* which the works named have actually wrought on the theory.

Ginn & Co. have added to their "Classics for Children" Ruskin's 'King of the Golden River,' with Doyle's illustrations indifferently printed; 'Æsop's Fables,' edited by J. H. Stickney, with cuts and a supplement containing some of Elizur Wright's translations from La Fontaine, and specimens of Kriloff's Russian fables; and Scott's 'Talisman,' edited by Dwight Holbrook, who annotates without abridging the text.

The new edition of Marryat's 'Masterman Ready,' issued by Frederick Warne & Co., makes a square volume of 334 pages in clear print. The "original illustrations" are plentiful, but of uneven merit, and at best not to be praised highly. The present generation will, we doubt not, take kindly to this book as did its predecessors; but writers for the young have meantime made a vast stride forward in the naturalness of their conversations as compared with Marryat's example in this work.

Apparently it is customary to make an annual printed volume of the vetoes of the Governor of Pennsylvania, and that containing Governor Pattison's objections to the legislation of 1885 fills 229 pages octavo. The vetoes number 90 in all, but some simply annul items of appropriation bills. Characteristic slipshod law-making is revealed in Veto 61, in which the Governor says: "This bill and its title do not correspond. The title misrecites the enactments of the bill. Moreover, the title itself is inaccurate, and refers to an act that has no existence." There is much food for reflection in these pages, the moral of which is not simply local.

Mr. Griswold's General Index to the *Nation* (vols. 31–40), already announced, occupies thirty-two pages. The somewhat more closely set Index to vols. 1–30 filled forty-two pages. Bound together, the two will be found very convenient for reference. The price of the new Index is $1.25.

Mr. J. H. Hickcox's excellent Monthly Catalogue of U. S. Government Publications will complete its first volume during the present month. With No. 9 a new and useful feature was introduced of briefly indicating the chief issues of the month. The same number contained a list of the Signal Service Professional Papers, while No. 10 gave a list of the Professional Papers of the Corps of Engineers. We notice that the *Publishers' Weekly* has abandoned its own list of Government publications in favor of Mr. Hickcox.

Mr. Ernest Ingersoll has prepared a little handbook to the National Museum at Washington (Brentano), very well calculated for popular instruction, and furnished with numerous engravings. It is general in its description of the several departments and collections, and there is no reference to room or case or object numbers. It would seem as if the Museum were used to some extent by dealers to advertise their wares, under the guise of a loan exhibit.

The chief item of interest in the Fourth Annual Report of the Managing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens concerns the publication of the great mass of inscriptions gathered by Dr. J. R. S. Sterrett last summer in Asia Minor. There are no funds in the Committee's control applicable to this purpose, and outside aid must be relied upon. There will be at least five scholars in the School during the present year.

A suggestive little paper in No. 23 of the *American Journal of Philology* is Mr. P. B. Marcou's "Two Points in French Style." In tracing the shortening of the French sentence from Montaigne downwards, he found that with this author a mean sentence (out of 100 consecutive sentences) contained an average of 6.02 verbs, with Fénelon 4.48, Voltaire 3.89, Sainte Beuve 3.95, and Daudet 3.38. (The ratio of words to verbs Mr. Marcou determines to be as 6 : 1 or 7 : 1) The other point dwelt on is the extent to which French writers, for the sake of euphony, emphasis, or piquancy, put the adjective before the noun instead of in its regular place after it. Rousseau uses this license freely; Chateaubriand less so, but with manifest discrimination.

"A Constant Reader" thinks it would be a favor to others holding similar views on the tariff with himself to know of the active free-trade weekly paper called the *Million*, published at a cheap rate at Des Moines, Iowa. We cheerfully name it and recommend it. Its contributors include the principal tariff reformers of the country. Nor should we omit mention of the *Freeman*, a kindred periodical published at Indianapolis—"an independent political journal, devoted to the advancement of honest politics, civil-service and tariff reform." Both these papers are conducted in the region most necessary to enlighten,

for it is now true, and will be for some time, that in the Government of this country the West is in the saddle.

From Mr. Christern we have prospectuses of several significant works: 'Anvers et l'Exposition Universelle de 1885,' by René Corneli, a fine folio souvenir of Antwerp's notable exhibition, with full-page and other illustrations, to be published in twenty parts; Jacob Falke's 'Hellas,' freely done into modern Greek by N. G. Politou, with all the illustrations; a critical edition of the 'Lusiad,' in commemoration of the tercentenary of Camoens's death ('Os Lusiadas,' Leipzig: Giesecke & Devrient), with many illustrations on copper and in color; and 'Handbuch des Getreidebaues,' by Fr. Koernicke and H. Werner, the first comprehensive work in German on grain-growing.

Some idea of the disestablishment literature called out by the English elections can be gained by the list of the titles of eighty-two pamphlets and sermons on the subject received by the *Guardian* up to November 25, 1885. This list, judging from the titles, represents apparently only the Church side of the question.

The latest additions to East African literature are G. Rohlf's 'On the Climatology and Hygiene of East Africa,' and the first volume of Cardinal Massaia's account of his more than thirty years of missionary work in that country. In this volume he treats at length of the condition of the Orthodox and Coptic Churches. It may be added that the Italian interest in East Africa, as shown by the various exploring expeditions recently sent out, is largely owing to the labors of Cardinal Massaia.

'Schmidt und Smith, Hottentottisches Blaubuch,' by C. M. Seyppel, is worthy of note simply as a sign of the times. A German and an Englishman, after various burlesque adventures, are taken prisoners by the Hottentots, and before being eaten are allowed to plead for their lives. Smith accordingly sets forth in glowing terms the advantages of being annexed to Great Britain, but meets with no favor, the mention of the Queen being received with shouts of derision at the idea of being ruled by a woman. Schmidt, on the other hand, with a few words ending with a promise of Bismarck's protection, gains the submission of the savages, and immediately proceeds to tie the German flag to the top of a neighboring palm, while Smith retires discomfited. A few years ago such a book would have been impossible.

There was in the life and character of Karl Richard Lepsius, whom learned Germany, many years before his death in July, 1884, distinguished by the designation *Altmeister der Ægyptologie*, much that could be worthily depicted only by the hand of a biographer skilled in describing sentiment, energy, and active achievement. At the same time, his biography had to be written by an adept in his science, a first-class Egyptologist. Fortunately for the many admirers of the lamented scholar, and particularly for those to whom the information concerning his investigations and discoveries, as a student and travelling explorer, had to be offered in a popular manner, the task has been undertaken and executed by Georg Ebers, a writer equally famous as a romantic delineator of psychological traits and situations and as an Egyptian archæologist. His biographical memorial—the work, in part, of a disciple's gratitude—forms a volume of 400 pages, entitled 'Richard Lepsius: ein Lebensbild' (Leipzig, 1885). It will be welcome to a large circle of readers.

The "Wiener Neudrucke," a collection of reprints in which it is intended to include inexpensive reproductions of the most important and rare works which have been published in Austria from the Middle Ages to the beginning of the present century, now comprises eight volumes. Among the latest additions to the series is Stranitzky's 'Lustige Reyss-Beschreibung in verschiedene Länder,' edited by R. M. Werner from a copy in the Royal Library at Berlin, having neither date nor place of imprint. The editor gives valuable bibliographical details regarding the various editions of this work, which appears to be a satire upon the romances of travel so much in vogue in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Works relating to the development of the drama in the theatres of Vienna, and those written in the dialect of Vienna, or treating of the history of the city, also find places in the collection. Future issues will include Abraham-a-Sancta-Clara's 'Mercks Wien,' Brunner's 'Jacob und seine Soehne,' Collin's 'Lieder für die oesterreichische Landwehr,' etc.

—Whether as ex-ruler or as soldier, the name of Grant easily heads the list of the famous dead of 1885. Indeed, considering the sale of his posthumous memoirs, he is not far from leading the popular authors who have passed away. Yet in this particular he must reckon not only with Victor Hugo and Asbjörnsen, but with "Josh Billings," and even (such is the bedfellowship of literature) with T. S. Arthur. The military list thus initiated is brilliant, and recalls many of the greatest campaigns of the century: McClellan, McDowell, and J. W. Phelps in this country; Prince Frederick Charles, Manteuffel, and Vogel von Falckenstein in Germany; Serrano in Spain; the French Admiral Courbet; the ill-fated Chinese and Sudanese Gordon, and the all-conquering Mahdi. The featureless Alfonso of Spain is the only reigning sovereign of any prominence who died last year. All the American statesmen were second-rate—Colfax, Frelinghuysen, Hendricks, Gratz Brown, Robert Toombs; and of a far higher grade were Charles Rogier of Belgium, Terenzio Mamiani, Rudolph Gneist, and Holland's great though still youthful jurist, Modderman. Pascal Duprat, that good fighter of the Second Empire, is also remembered as a littérateur, though his light pales before Hugo's or Edmond About's. Of their class, in various degrees, were N. I. Kostomaroff, the Russian historian, J. P. Jacobsen, the promising Danish novelist, the Austrian poet and novelist, Alfred Meissner; Walter von Goethe, last of the name; Bishop Wordsworth, the nephew and biographer of the poet; Lord Houghton, F. J. Fargus ("Hugh Conway"), Helen Jackson ("H. H."), Richard Grant White, and Susan Warner, author of 'The Wide, Wide World.' Scholars like Georg Curtius and H. A. J. Munro would adorn any necrology; and William Veitch and Samuel Birch also deserve mention here. The librarian and biographer and benefactor of students, John Langdon Sibley, and that bookish bookseller and publisher, Charles Welford, may fitly be named in the same connection. Science loses the zoölogists Henri Milne Edwards, John Gwyn Jeffreys, and William B. Carpenter; a great archæologist in Worsaae; an interesting student of ethnology in Eugène Bodichon; the explorers, Gustav Nachtigal and Robert von Schlagintweit; the chemist, Benjamin Silliman. Three eminent civil engineers, Dupuy de Lôme, John B. Jervis, and Commander Gorringe; and a remarkable inventor, with the sad lot of his demon-haunted class, W. B. Woodbury, to whom we owe so many useful applications of photography, conclude the present division.

—Besides Modderman and Gneist, the law reckons comparatively few losses, and mention of Lord Cairns in England and John Norton Pomeroy in this country will suffice. Eminent as clergymen or theologians were Cardinal McCabe, Archbishop McCloskey, Bishop Fraser of Manchester, J. H. Scholten, and Daniel Schenkel. Three conspicuous figures—one indispensable—in our great religious agitation for the abolition of slavery, Maria W. Chapman, Elizur Wright, and Orson S. Murray, diminished the ranks of the veteran survivors in 1885; and Lord Shaftesbury's is the most significant name among the other philanthropists who have ceased from their labors. Paris honors DeLiesville, who gave back to the public his priceless antiquarian collection. A princely philanthropist was missed in W. H. Vanderbilt, whose maximum distinction is his inherited riches. The causing of wealth in others is the fame of James Marshall, the discoverer of gold in California. A. de Neuville and William Page among painters; Franz Abt, Ferdinand Hiller, Sir Julius Benedict, and Leopold Damrosch among musicians, are art's contributions to the list of the departed; and those who for fifty years have sung the familiar hymn "Federal Street" will perhaps wish to associate with the foregoing its unpretentious composer, the late Henry K. Oliver, of Massachusetts.

—The Perkins Institution for the Blind, at South Boston, Mass., has been making a very promising experiment in the introduction of the kindergarten system for the younger scholars, and the results have already been remarkable. Pupils who were sinking gradually into sluggishness and idiocy, averse even to locomotion, and unable so much as to tie the strings of their shoes, have been reclaimed, and have made remarkable progress. Boys and girls who seemed entirely helpless, and had no command whatever of their hands, have been aroused to energy and activity through its ministry. And last summer the enthusiastic Director, Mr. Anagnos, gave a pathetic and most interesting exhibition, in which the little pupils in physiology showed their understanding of their lessons by modelling the heart and other organs; baby botanists made plants; tiny geographers shaped maps; and some little boys who had gotten into zoölogy moulded turtles, polyps on the coral reefs, etc. There is no other field where the stimulus of Froebel's object lessons is so needed to keep the minds of the poor sightless little ones from the hopeless stagnation caused by the want of stimulants to thought and action such as their eyes furnish their more fortunate brothers and sisters. The Perkins Institution is not able to establish this preparatory department within its walls, but a new building has been erected, and it is hoped that funds can be obtained to put the new juvenile department speedily in operation.

—The movement for the abolition of compulsory prayers at Harvard has recommenced among the students in earnest, with an organization which means, we hope, permanence until the end is attained, and with an admirable statement of reasons. It is not surprising to find the *Unitarian Review* opposed to this "revival," which it pronounces "an insult to the memory of the religious founder of this institution"—in refreshing disregard of the holy horror with which John Harvard would have looked upon the Unitarian tenets of the editor and his affected solicitude "Christo et ecclesiæ." Nor can cant much further go than when it is declared incredible that signatures should have been largely obtained for this self-evident truth: "That voluntary attendance upon prayers would necessarily betoken genuine interest in the religious exercises"; and this truth of experience, "That the sense of compulsion accompanying the present attendance upon prayers is not conducive to the development of sincere religious feeling, but, on the contrary, produces indifference, if not hostility, to the observance." The fact is, that if we may force a man to prayers, we may force him to church, and we cannot now think of anything more useful for the editor of the *Review* than a

compulsory course of attendance on ultra-Calvinistic preaching. His plan for finally suppressing the agitation is as amusing as anything that goes before. He would have the President and all the members of the Faculty make it a duty to attend prayers regularly. It is, however, well known that a majority of the Faculty are in hearty sympathy with the anti-compulsory movement. Among these are professors whose orthodoxy, unlike the *Review* editor's, is above reproach, and who would, as a sign of their respect for religion and abhorrence of the present system, rather absent themselves from prayers persistently than attend in order to discourage the feeling of revolt.

—The *Rundschau* for December contains two interesting addresses by the famous historian Von Sybel, upon the education of women. The first was delivered in October, 1883, as the opening address in the Victoria Lyceum, an institution which can perhaps be best described for Americans by calling it the Berlin Annex. The address is chiefly a memorial tribute to Miss Archer, the founder of the Lyceum, who died at Montreux in 1882. But few biographical details are given. We learn that Miss Archer received but a slender education in the home of her parents, and that she grew up under circumstances which offered little gratification to her natural thirst for knowledge, and only a meagre scope for her energetic character. To achieve her own mental independence, she determined to go to Germany. There she first attended a school in Lüneburg, and then went to Berlin and commenced giving lessons in English. As a teacher she was immediately successful, but the greater her success and the more clearly she became conscious of her own intellectual needs, the more she pondered upon the badness of the situation as regarded the higher education of women. As her pupils opened their hearts to her, she found many of them to be in a condition of mental apathy. Others impressed her with the superficiality of their attainments, and even the most ambitious seemed to be unable to help themselves to further acquirements. The graduates of the *Töchterschule* had no means of further culture except in the way of private reading, and for this they lacked direction and had not learned how to direct themselves; and so it was no wonder that so many of them lapsed into an "empty and frivolous existence." Meditating constantly upon this condition of affairs, Miss Archer became possessed of a desire to remedy it if possible. What to do, however, was not easy to decide. She had neither the means nor the influence requisite for the founding of a university or even a gymnasium for women; so she decided to avail herself of the fashionable appetite for popular lectures. She projected a lecture institute, and succeeded in winning for her plan the interest of the Prussian Crown Princess, who lent to the enterprise her name and her sanction. In 1869 the Lyceum began its work with four courses of lectures and seventy students. But Miss Archer soon observed that the listeners were not, as a rule, ready for the academic pabulum which was offered them. The word "langeweilig" came often from their lips, and many were evidently using the courses of the Lyceum simply as a diversion. She saw that classes for disciplinary work must be established. As to the studies best adapted to this purpose, she did not hesitate: nothing could take the place of mathematics, Greek, and Latin—the Latin grammar being, in her judgment, peculiarly fitted to develop that *Ordnungssinn* so essential in women. Such classes were accordingly provided, and the Lyceum prospered. Pecuniary aid soon came from private sources, then from the city of Berlin, and lastly from the Prussian Government. In 1883 the Lyceum offered twenty-seven lecture courses, with about the same number of classes for drill work, and had 900 students. In 1885 this last number had increased to 1,200. So successful has the Berlin establishment become, that it has been imitated in various other German cities.

— Von Sybel's second address, delivered at the opening of the Lyceum last October, is devoted to a general consideration of the woman question from the German point of view and in its educational aspect. There is little in it that will sound new upon this side of the Atlantic, for notoriously we have not very much to learn from Germany with regard to the education of women. The speaker's attitude is conservative. He is in favor of allowing women to learn whatever they like, so it only be appropriate to them; but he is also in favor of denying them the best, the most natural, and the most efficacious means of satisfying their craving for knowledge, namely, free access to the universities. He touches upon the familiar question whether women should study the same things that men study, and finds himself compelled to raise a voice of warning. Experience shows, he says, that the range of higher study which is suitable for women is a limited one. A female lawyer, politician, philosopher, or even theologian is a monstrosity, although in medicine, history, art, literature, and—botany, woman is quite in her place. The inference from this would appear to be that in this second set of subjects, at least, women should have, if they want it, the best instruction attainable, and that is presumably to be found at the universities. This disagreeable conclusion is, however, ingeniously evaded by Von Sybel. He observes that a boy requires all the time from his tenth to his twenty-fifth year to fit himself for a learned career, and that such a long period of study is for women, who have so much else to do (housework presumably), simply out of the question. An argument of this sort shows how deeply rooted in the German mind is the idea that the so-called philosophical studies of the university have no theoretical *raison d'être* except as a preparation for teaching. It seems not to occur to Von Sybel that a young woman of brains might wish to hear university lectures, say upon art, or upon botany, without intending to make herself a rival of Lübke or of Sachs. The remainder of the address is devoted to advice. It closes with a long quotation from the last chapter of Proverbs.

—"For two years and a half," says Élisée Reclus in his Preface to his friend Kropotkin's 'Paroles d'un révolté' (Paris, 1885; New York: F. W. Christern), "Peter Kropotkin has been in prison, cut off from the society of his fellow-men. His punishment is hard, but the silence imposed upon him regarding the subjects most dear to his heart is quite differently painful; his confinement would be less oppressive if he were not gagged." To a man so overflowing with sentiments tender or fiery; with love and sympathy for toiling mankind, and hatred and dread of rulers, employers, and possessors; with harrowing pessimism as to the present of society in all its forms and aspects, and with the brightest Messianic hopes, based on altruism, socialism, and "the commune"; with glowing or scathing words and phrases, imbibed from prophets and apostles, Jacobins and Nihilists—from Isaiah down to Tchernyshevski—to such a man enforced silence must indeed be the last of martyrdoms. This martyrdom must yet last for years unless abridged by the clemency of the President. Meantime, "what commonplaces," Reclus exclaims, "are we going to be treated to, what lying utterances are to wound us, what selfish half-truths are to be drummed into our ears?" To counteract these emanations of *bourgeois* egoism the famous French geographer and anarchist has collected, annotated, and published in book form the articles contributed some years ago to the journal *Le Révolté* by his Russian coworker in the dissemination of geographical science and anarchic principles. The book is a perfect gospel of salvation, which is to come after the necessary demolition, by the tawny arms of laborers, of thrones, altars, and magisterial benches, of villas, banks, and private workshops. The revolution is coming—bloody and terrific—and with it an everlasting reign of altruism and Arcadian bliss. The Jews who saw the walls of Jericho totter, the Crusaders who stormed the ramparts of Jerusalem, were not half so convinced of the unmixed happiness they were bringing to the Holy Land as the bearers of the ark of anarchism and crusaders of "the commune" are of the felicity which is to dawn on all mankind as soon as the Bastile of individual property is breached. Till then, Prince Kropotkin tells us in his inexhaustible eloquence, everything is hell—politically, economically, physically, morally; afterwards, everything is paradise—sloth, envy, passion, mendacity, rapacity, and the like vanishing like nightmares. With such clear visions of what is coming, life in a dungeon must be sweet. Isaiah had similar visions when he prophesied of the wolf and the lamb dwelling together and the lion eating straw like the ox—but he seems to have prophesied of distant times.

—In speaking of the opening performance of the American Opera Company we called attention to the fact that the word American, in this connection, could only be taken in the sense of international, so far as the operas to be performed are concerned. The second opera produced by this company, on Friday evening, is in itself a curious illustration of the tendency to become international which music has always had. Gluck's "Orpheus and Eurydice" is practically an Italian opera by a German composer, which has been revised in a French spirit, and was sung at the Academy of Music in the English language by American singers. Gluck wrote this opera with an Italian libretto for Vienna, where it was produced in 1762 with great success. Twelve years later, when it was to be brought out at Paris, he added several excellent numbers, but arranged the part of *Orpheus*, which had been assigned originally to a male alto, for a high tenor. As this change did not improve the effect, Berlioz took occasion in 1859 to restore the original alto part, assigning it to Mme. Viardot Garcia; and in this form it produced, as Berlioz tells us, one of the greatest successes he had ever witnessed. Mr. Thomas followed the precedent of Berlioz, and not only for this, but for enabling American audiences for the first time really to appreciate this work through an adequate performance, he deserves the gratitude of all lovers of classical music. So far as his share of the interpretation was concerned the performance was absolute perfection. The orchestra played with a delicacy and a refinement of shading that cannot be too much commended, and in the choruses one could not admire sufficiently the sensuous beauty of tone that seems to be characteristic of American choral bodies, whatever may be said of the harshness of voice of individual American women.

—As for Gluck's opera—the revival of which comes opportunely within one year of the centenary of Gluck's death—it must be admitted that some parts of it are thin and antiquated, and can only be enjoyed if we put the historic spectacles over the mind's eye. For the sake of the second act, however, and some other numbers, this opera will always be revived at intervals. Considering how short is the life of operas

general, the fact that it is revived at all is a remarkable thing. But, as Schumann remarked of another opera of Gluck, "So long as the world exists, such music will always be revived, will never become antiquated"; and the enthusiastic Berlioz quotes Jules Janin's words, that "it is not ourselves that take up again the old master-works, but it is the master-works that take us up again." In the history of music "Orpheus" occupies a remarkable place, inasmuch as with it Gluck broke away from Italian traditions and began to embody some of those principles of the music of the future, or dramatic music, which have found their full realization in Wagner. Gluck's reforms consisted chiefly in his refusal to be a mere slave of vain *prime donne* and tenors by writing arias in which musical worth was subordinated to the necessity of giving the singer a chance to display vocal agility. Gluck accordingly pruned his melodies of all superfluous ornamentation, and tried to restore harmony between the contents of the text and the expression of the music. Further than this, however, his reforms did not go, and the detractors of Wagner who formerly insisted that he merely carried out Gluck's ideas and reforms, only betrayed their woful ignorance of the history of music, their lack of insight. Gluck retained all the old operatic disconnected forms of aria, duo, ballet, etc., while Wagner substituted in the place of these disjointed numbers a continuous orchestral undercurrent sustaining the vocal melody and declamation; and besides this he introduced, in his system of ever-recurring leading motives which characterize each person and dramatic idea of the plot, a principle of which Gluck never dreamed, and which for the first time made music really capable of telling a story in its own language.

NEWCOMB'S POLITICAL ECONOMY.

Principles of Political Economy. By Simon Newcomb, Ph.D., LL.D. Harper & Brothers.

THIS book was written with a view to making political economy less controversial and more practical. The author holds that the strictly *a priori* method and the historical method are both alike defective; that the true method lies in a union of the two. Like every other science, political economy is partly "pure" and partly applied. Like every other science, it must rely on practical research rather than on abstract reasoning; but the research, in order to be fruitful, must arrange and interpret its results in accordance with logical principles. Thus the abstract and the practical sides must help each other. The author's aim in the book before us was to give an exposition, in scientific form, of the principles of economic science as to which all who understand the subject are in substantial agreement. He would exclude from pure political economy all mere views, and, as far as possible, all doubtful or controverted doctrine, relegating such matters to the field of investigation.

His view as to the place and function of general principles in the science leads him to endeavor to state and develop them in the form best suited to the use of observers and investigators. Other economists try to show the working of economic laws under the simplest conditions. They make much of the individual, and avoid all unnecessary complications. They carry the student far from the madding crowd, to a region where wages are paid in kind and commodity is exchanged for commodity by barter. Professor Newcomb, on the other hand, treats matters from the standpoint of actual affairs. He leads his reader into the haunts of active business, and speaks to him the language of the shop and the counting-room. In his book, as in the great world of business, trade occupies a more prominent place than production, and the medium of exchange is at least as much thought of as the things exchanged. Men produce only to sell, and sell only for money. The action of economic forces is traced by their effect on the flow of money to and from individuals and classes. Changes in the flow are treated as the source of far-reaching economic effects. Where other books speak of value, this one speaks of prices. Where other books speak of saving capital and lending capital, this one speaks of saving and lending money. Most of the author's reasonings about wages, profits, supply and demand, cost of production, etc., are conducted in terms of the cash account, and embrace all the complications of the industrial system. His aim being to make his readers intelligent observers, he naturally brings them face to face with the actual things to be observed.

This method has some obvious advantages. It has the great advantage of seeming reality. Practical men might, perhaps, be ready to accept, when presented in that way, doctrines which they reject when presented in the old way. And since the practical man shows no sign of coming to political economy, it would surely be a great blessing if political economy could come to the practical man. Also, if it should be found possible to diminish controversy, and to bring professed economists more into the attitude of friendly coöperation, much good would certainly accrue to the influence of their science on the conduct of affairs. If Professor Newcomb's book should contribute even a little toward so desirable results, we should all be greatly his debtors. On the other hand, we must not allow the agreeable prospect to blind us to the great dangers of his method. Daily familiarity with money and the ways and phrases of practical life makes it seem easy and natural to use them in economic reasoning. But unfortunately, when so used, they are apt to play tricks. Money, especially, seems to have no end of deceits. It belongs to the surface of the subject, not to its depths. The man who uses it as a vehicle for his reasonings about fundamental principles must scan warily every step he takes, or it will lead him into confusion and fallacy, cheating him with reasons that prove nothing, and explanations that do not explain.

For examples of these dangers, we regret to say that one need not travel outside of Professor Newcomb's own book. He is a Malthusian. He also sees clearly that the wages of labor must be paid out of capital. Yet we have not found in his book any statement of the law of wages. He has much to say about *changes* of wages, but seems to regard the average rate as a thing not needing to be accounted for. He even at times uses expressions at variance with the law of wages, as when (p. 400) he avers that increase of population without increase of capital would cause higher prices; or when (p. 403) he speaks of a general fall of prices as the result of an increase of capital. Without a law of wages, a satisfactory law of profits is of course impossible. Professor Newcomb, however, undertakes to explain the source and rate of profits independently of wages. This he does by drawing attention to the labor-saving power of machinery, railways, etc. He defines capital as a labor-saving agent; the saving belongs to the capitalist and determines his profit (p. 89). Seeing clearly that circulating capital has no power to save labor, he endeavors to account for the profit it yields by observing that, if it yielded none, there would be no circulating capital; and that abstinence is itself "something which can command money in the public market." But he fails to consider that *all* capital is originally circulating capital, and can be turned into machinery only by being paid to laborers. Profits, then, must obviously start from wages as a base, even on his own theory. But the theory that attributes to capital, as capital, a labor-saving power, does not bear examination. Capital, as such, is merely savings—resources for the support of industry. The labor-saving devices we owe primarily to those who invented them. Of course capital is necessary in order to make use of inventions; but to call capital itself "a labor-saving contrivance" is the same as to call pig-iron a steam-engine. Further, the author himself, in his chapter on the "effect of labor-saving improvements," shows very clearly that the benefit of the saving brought about by machinery goes to the consumer and not to the capitalist.

Cost of production he defines as consisting of wages, interest, taxes, etc., all expressed in money. This definition has long since been shown to have the great defect of confounding the cost of producing a thing with the rewards of the producers. It leads to much confusion and difficulty. Professor Newcomb himself finds it necessary to make so much abatement and correction (p. 257 *et seq.*) that it may be doubted whether ordinary readers will see clearly what "net cost of production" really stands for, or what it would be good for if anybody could discover it, which is confessedly impossible. The net cost of production of a gold watch, for example, is not the sum total of the amounts actually paid for getting it made. It is rather the smallest sum that would suffice to keep the men who make it from going out of the business. So it has no control over the value, except perhaps to fix a point down to which the value cannot permanently descend.

Perhaps the most striking proof of the defects of Professor Newcomb's method is to be found in the conclusion to which it leads him regarding the connection between demand for commodities and demand for labor. Reasoning on the flow of money from man to man, he concludes that when a person has money to spend, it makes no difference to the laboring class whether he spends it in hiring laborers or in buying commodities. For if he buys goods he thereby supplies the producer of those goods with the means and a motive for making more goods. This is an old fallacy—one of those perennial fallacies that are many times killed, but never die. We should have no hope of making any impression on it by anything we could say in this notice. But we must remark that Professor Newcomb, in his criticism of Mill's position (p. 434), seems to us to argue somewhat beside the point. Mill distinguishes two cases, first, the case of a man who has produced an article for which there is no demand. In this case a part of the circulating capital has been made useless, has practically been lost. If, now, a purchaser should step down from the moon and relieve the man of his mistake by buying his product, Mill admits that the mere fact of the purchase would affect the demand for labor. The lost capital would be restored, and could be used again in paying wages. It must be noted, however, that the sale would only restore things to the position they were in before the mistake was made. The true view of the case then would seem to be, not that the sale would create a demand for labor, but that the mistake of the producer has destroyed a part of the demand. Further, unless we are assuming the man to be a fool, we must not assume that he would use his recovered capital in paying men for making a fresh stock of the same unsalable commodity. So that it is true only in a restricted sense that the sale in such a case would supply the means for making more goods; and it is not at all true that it would supply a motive.

The other case spoken of by Mill is the ordinary one of production in answer to demand—

the case in which no mistake has been made. Mill assumes that ordinarily production is carried on with an intelligent eye on the market, and holds that when men buy things that were produced only because men wanted them, the buyers are merely carrying out the final stage of production by division of labor. Of course exchange must keep pace with production, otherwise the operations of capital are interfered with. But the friction of exchange ought not to hide the true nature of the case. Men use division of labor because, in spite of all the delays, risks, and trouble connected with the exchanging of products, the world gains immensely by the use of it. The greater the delays and friction, the more capital is required for carrying on a given amount of production. Quick sales are therefore beneficial. They lessen the cost of producing things and promote high wages. This we believe to be the true relation between demand for commodities and demand for labor, in the ordinary case. Those who maintain the contrary view confound the ordinary case with the case of mistaken production, and virtually assume that all production is of the mistaken kind.

The point is far from being one of merely speculative importance. Most of the false theories and mischievous legislation under which the world has suffered, and still suffers, are directly traceable to the fallacy that demand for commodities is a demand for labor. In the book before us it pervades, and to a large extent vitiates, the author's discussion of the very practical subject of taxation. Taxes, he says, take away from us money we should otherwise spend for ourselves. They therefore lessen our demand for labor, and tend, if there were no compensation, to lower wages. But the Government must spend the revenue in some form, and in whatever form it spends it, a demand for labor is set up precisely equal to the loss of demand on our part. Thus he reaches the conclusion that neither taxes nor Government loans can affect the total demand for labor, or lower wages. So that we are to believe that taxes on the active capital of the country, even taxes so heavy as to absorb the greater part of it, would not injure the laboring classes, provided only the revenue be promptly spent. It would even seem to follow that if a special tax were imposed on the laborers themselves, they would not be really burdened by it, since the Government, by spending the increase of revenue, would set up a new demand for labor, and thus raise wages by the amount of the tax. However this may be, the author seems to conclude that it matters little who pays the taxes:

"The really important question growing out of taxation is, not how the tax is to be levied, but how it is to be expended. In whatever way it is levied, it will have come out of the pockets of the community, and different classes will probably have to pay nearly the same in any case" (p. 483).

Again:

"We need scarcely fear that any tax levied according to a general law will be permanently inequitable" (p. 493).

His view is, apparently, that the tax comes out of the monetary circulation, is restored again, and in the end diffuses itself over the community.

By the same reasoning he maintains that the state could not help the poor by levying taxes to be expended for their benefit, say, in building better houses:

"If the wealthy are taxed, the money they can spend in other directions will be diminished by exactly the amount of the tax. . . . The final result would be that the cost of building the tenement houses would come out of servants, builders of locomotives, and the occupants of the houses themselves" (p. 521).

Again, as to the socialistic scheme for giving employment to the unemployed poor, he says:

"In order to pay them wages the Government must levy a tax. This tax would be taken right out of the monetary circulation, and would cause a diminution in the ability of taxpayers to employ labor exactly equal to the increase in the power of the Government to do so. Thus, at best, the injury would equal the benefit" (p. 523).

We shall make no comment on these doctrines beyond remarking that they seem to us to supply a very good *reductio ad absurdum* for the theory that demand for commodities is a demand for labor. We are still of the opinion that if every spendthrift in the country were required by law to part with half of his income for the benefit of the poor of his neighborhood, both parties to the transaction would become aware of a very substantial difference in their circumstances.

In spite of the serious defects we have pointed out, Professor Newcomb's book contains much that is excellent and highly instructive. Many of his chapters are admirable for sound doctrine and clear, incisive reasoning. In some respects it will undoubtedly be found a valuable contribution to the science. The plan, for example, of treating circulating capital as a flow rather than a fund will be found a permanent improvement. The copious questions and exercises interspersed throughout the book supply valuable food for reflection, and will be especially serviceable to teachers. As a whole, then, the work is characterized by great excellences and great defects. It reads like the work of an acute and able thinker who is continually hampered, and at times led quite astray, by a wrong method of treating his subject.

RECENT NOVELS.

Oblivion. An Episode. By M. G. McClelland. [Leisure Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

White Heather. By William Black. Harper & Bros.

Suzette. By Mary Spear Tiernan. Henry Holt & Co.

Mustard Leaves, or a Glimpse of London Society. By D. T. S. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Mrs. Herndon's Income. By Helen Campbell. Boston: Roberts Bros.

THE scene of 'Oblivion' is laid "in the Appalachian Mountains," well south, but too remote from the country Miss Murfree describes to be in any way an imitation. With less of color than in her pictures, the effect is that of a strong etching. The author has forestalled comparisons by a word of preface to the effect that the story was written in entire ignorance of 'Called Back.' The resemblance between the two books is confined to the single incident of the loss of memory, and almost of all mental power, by a young and beautiful woman. Hugh Conway's story is very simple, dealing with incidents only, and never attempting to trace development of character, or to study the effect of incidents upon it. 'Oblivion' presents both, and for that reason is on a far higher plane, even if less successful within its own limits. 'Called Back' only demands the belief that anything may happen in a novel, from the basest murder to the luckiest of chance meetings, and all goes smoothly. The author of 'Oblivion,' with large confidence that betokens a brief experience, has undertaken to combine in one plot at least three different studies: first, the growth of a second life after the loss of memory; second, the effect of love for a refined and beautiful woman upon a man noble by nature but untrained and uncouth; and third, the situation when this woman recovers her memory, and the complications of the two lives present themselves for disentanglement. This last is a knot which to the author' feeling at least can only be cut violently, for the lady is at once a beloved wife and the betrothed of her chivalrous deliverer and protector, while she is dead to all her world.

Any one of these three studies would fill a book, though for ourselves, never liking the school that would turn the romance into a clinic, we find the first quite enough developed here. The second is so freshly and delicately outlined as to give it the charm of an idyl. It is the best of the book, and so touches the sympathy of the reader that the conclusion comes as a positive pain. The want of practice in making up a plot tells more than anywhere else in the tendency to make the difficulties of the situation so extreme, so inevitable, that the only way out is a violent one. It goes so far sometimes in books otherwise well written as almost to leave the impression that precious lives have been sacrificed solely to end a story. It would be easy to point out grave faults in style besides these mistakes in construction, but there is in the book such a power of imagination so bent on high things, so touched to fine issues, that we are fain to dwell on the promise of a future which shall add to present ability a trained artistic skill.

The essential part of 'White Heather' is as pretty as anything Mr. Black has ever done. He leaves the west coast, of which we had had a little too much, and transports us to the loneliest of Scotch lakes in the early days of the season for salmon-fishing, finding an opportunity for new pictures, even after all he has given us, in the brilliant air and dazzling contrasts of winter sunlight and snow. The main theme is the superiority of country life, unambitious and untroubled, over the hurried, tempted life of the great city. Old as the theme is, Mr. Black has so embodied it in fresh young lives as to make it new again. All of the book that is Scotch—be it out on moor or loch, or in Glasgow—is in perfect keeping. There is over-much of the hero's verses, for he is that sort of poet whose song is wakened only by the charms of the woman he loves. The salmon-fishing, too, is a bit over-done for any one not a sportsman. Still, in the portrayal of brisk, stirring, out-of-door life, and with it the love of ingenuous youth for gentle maidenhood, Mr. Black has now no superior. Some of his later work has, no doubt, given the impression one feels in listening to a voice that is no longer young, singing a hackneyed strain. With Mr. Black the voice may be worn, but it has always been sweet and pure, and the strain always tender and noble.

Thus much for the genuinely Scotch part of the book. There is another curious side to it, which has afforded no little amusement while the story has been coming out as a serial. The good genius of the piece is an American, or we should say genii, for the man has a daughter who is rather more important than he, since if he has the money she has the facile invention which uses it. They are not exactly caricatures, for their qualities are such that no one need be ashamed of them. It is their speech which astonishes. Even omitting the worst of it which Mr. Black represents the young girl as adopting in a kind of defiance, East, West, or South never heard the like, nor has any English writer before attempted to impose upon American lips such a fantastic jumble. The *Texas Siftings* seems to have replaced the 'Biglow Papers' in certain circles as the standard of American speech. Nobody would take the trouble to resent such misrepresentations, but their presence in fiction explains the exclamation the well-bred American is sure to hear in England sooner or later, "*You* are not an American!"

'Suzette' is not exactly a picture of Richmond in the forties, being rather a chronicle of pleasant family life. The old city, with its generous

homes and its traditions, fills in the edges and the corners of the canvas much after the fashion in which the garden is introduced, or the hills, in the pictures which artists describe as figures with landscape. Miss Tiernan follows very closely the method of grouping by contrasts—the lonely little heroine, almost a waif, in the chill grandeur of the great house, and the beloved daughter and sister in the bustling life of a home which affection makes glad in spite of slender means; two men, the one growing into a lonely recluse, the other frank-hearted, giving and winning confidence. The types are none of them new, but they are saved from being conventional by the freshness of the author's fancy and the ingenuity and originality of the incidents. The surroundings, too, are novel, for all Southern cities are still very remote from us, and life in them as it was forty years ago is utterly different from the hurried rush of city life to-day. A small circle, living on generation after generation without change, develops a community of interest known nowhere else. The life was certainly narrow, yet its sympathies were thereby the deeper. It is easy to call it indifferent, idle, or by a harsher term, but in it all there was a placid leisure of a charm such as survives in the pages of 'Sir Charles Grandison.'

The author is least successful with her hero, Geoffrey Amberst, for she is not equal to the delicate shading which would make a character only repelling, not repulsive. The little trio of himself, his mother, and Suzette suggests 'Nathalie,' but barely suggests it, for their story is so involved with other lives as to give far greater variety of events and situations. The telling incident which, to use a paradox, we are not told, but only what led to it and what came out of it, is the escape of a slave to freedom by the aid of Suzette. Yet the book has not the least concern with "questions" of any kind. The incident appears, as did those on the much larger scale of 'Homoselle,' simply as a part of the life men and women lived then and there. The Southampton insurrection of fifty-five years ago has more than once supplied sensational material for fiction. The distinctive merit of the use of it by Miss Tiernan in 'Homoselle' was in the penetration which looked beyond the surface facts, and rightly gauged the qualities of the negroes themselves as they then were, which made failure inevitable. The two books, in spite of all their shortcomings, their occasional trite expressions and quotations, the evident lack of literary association, the want of finish, of balance, form a notable contribution to our knowledge of the South. There is the complete absence of *parti pris*, the utter unconsciousness, which make the value of the competent witness. The only impartial testimony is the testimony which is of equal weight on either side. 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' was the fervid plea of a righteous indignation. The replies, novels all forgotten now, were only some form of angry denial. These unpretending narratives of Miss Tiernan, which tell of slavery only because the lives of the masters could not be represented without it, justify all the accusations of the abolitionists, and at the same time clearly reveal the perils, the overwhelming difficulties, of the situation of the masters themselves.

The heroine of 'Mustard Leaves' is the familiar American girl of ravishing beauty. The son of the Duke of Babylon espies her as he is about to take the stage in a White Mountain village. He forces his way into her mother's home, and, spite of his offering the girl a gross insult within the first half hour, he speedily persuades them to go to Europe. After a brief sojourn in Paris, she becomes through his efforts the success of the London season. Prevented by poverty from marrying her himself, he contrives a match for her with a millionaire baronet, meaning then to win his own base, selfish ends. She is soon broken-hearted, and, with barely strength enough left to resist the evil tempter, flees to Paris. There turns up the friend of her childhood, who had early appeared in the distance as a divinity student and a waiter at a summer hotel. He starts to take her to her mother, who has returned home. The steamer founders in mid-ocean and she is drowned in his arms. It is the international story run wild. We have sketched it, not supposing a protest would be of much use, but to show the reader what absurdities may be gravely put together as probable. "D. T. S." does not even know New England, for at the very outset a man is presented as the "'Squire" of the village, who has spent his life in the grocery store. There is cleverness enough to put together a few pages which, at a cursory glance, might pass for a picture of London fashionable life. A little scrutiny detects the counterfeit. One ready to take gloomy views of society might find unfortunately in the newspapers some evidence for the assumption that almost all the men in Mayfair are *roués*, and all the women live in an atmosphere of petty backbiting and of dubious scandal, but when it comes to manners and customs, the writer is so utterly at sea that there is no need to be distressed by any estimate of morals from such a tyro. How could any one imagine that the most angry husband would believe his wife such a fool as to make a ruinous visit to a gentleman's apartments, leaving her carriage, liveries and all, standing before his door for an hour in broad daylight? The name 'Mustard Leaves' suggests a purpose of satire, an aim that is lamentably missed, for the very good reason that no form of literary work requires such intimate knowledge of the subject as satire. There is no need to delay for further proof of the ignorance of "D. T. S." both as to scenes and characters.

Again we have to regret the crowding of many subjects, each enough to fill a whole story, between the covers of one novel. It is of the more consequence because, up to a certain point, Mrs. Campbell does her work extremely well; how well would perhaps be best shown by comparison with such a book as 'Fashion and Famine.' That deservedly dropped out of sight a generation ago, but it was a very fair specimen of the florid, romantic treatment of social questions. In 'Mrs. Herndon's Income' Mrs. Campbell has stated and partially illustrated too many of them for us to attempt even a catalogue. In the broken reading necessarily given to a newspaper serial there is time for more reflection than the novel is likely to excite, and in that form the story may have had already greater usefulness than it can again. It starts anew the question whether as realism (in the common acceptation of exactness of detail) comes to be more and more demanded of a novel, its employment as an instrument of special pleading will not be greatly limited. We are not entering upon any discussion whether it is best so or not, but simply pointing to the facts. The book before us, any one can see, is a very partial, a very imperfect statement of the wrongs and the sins it deprecates. It is not true, because the truth is a great deal worse, and because the omissions and the suppressions make what is told often inconsistent and contradictory. Yet, had Mrs. Campbell filled out the whole story, the *Christian Union* would never have printed it. 'L'Assommoir' is the most tremendous temperance story that ever was written, as accurate as it is harrowing, but it is hard to say to whom it can have done any good. The men and women it describes are not intelligent enough to come within reach of it, to be helped by its reasoning, while on higher levels most persons would say, better run the risk of ignorance than be so terribly enlightened. It will be asked: Do you then mean that with Dickens as an example to look back to, the novel cannot be made a servant in the cause of philanthropy? This question, we have already said, we are not prepared to answer. Rather, we add another: If the present tendencies continue, will they not bring us to the end of the novel for such purposes in communities that still hold the theory that purity and nobleness are best guarded when the unclean and the ignoble are, not falsely concealed, but never dragged forth for their own sake?

PINDAR.

Pindar: the Olympian and Pythian Odes. With an Introductory Essay, Notes, and Indexes by Basil L. Gildersleeve, Professor of Greek in the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore. Harper & Bros. 1885. 12mo, pp. cxv, 395.

ABOUT three years ago we had occasion to commend an edition of selected odes of Pindar by Prof. T. D. Seymour, of Yale College. We expressed the opinion that it was eminently adapted to the needs of undergraduates, and that for those who intended to continue the study of Pindar beyond the narrow limits to which the amount read in college is necessarily confined, it would be well to begin by reading Professor Seymour's edition as a sort of general introduction. We have as yet seen no reason to change our opinion. The present edition of the Olympian and Pythian odes, by Professor Gildersleeve, not only contains a much larger portion of the works of Pindar, but it is in all respects on a more extended scale. The introductory essay is much longer, and treats very fully a great many matters which Professor Seymour does not mention. The special introductions to the different odes are very elaborate, and contain a large amount of historical learning and refined analysis. The notes are numerous and minute, and, while perfectly intelligible to any pupil who is qualified to study Pindar at all, they will be the more fully appreciated the more advanced his scholarship is. Prof. Gildersleeve says, indeed, that "the whole book is intended for beginners in Pindar," but we suspect that the interval between beginners in Greek and the "beginners in Pindar," whom Professor Gildersleeve is accustomed to instruct, is much greater than between the beginner in Greek and the average undergraduate.

In some respects the book has been prepared under exceptionally favorable circumstances. A fellow and a scholar of the Johns Hopkins University have assisted the Professor in preparing indexes and reading proofs; "the metrical schemes are due to the generosity of Dr. J. H. Heinrich Schmidt," who kindly placed at the editor's disposal the MS. of his unpublished 'Pindar'; and graceful acknowledgment is also made of the assistance of such well-known scholars as Prof. C. D. Morris, Dr. Alfred Emerson, and of Doctor Drisler, who has the editorial supervision of "Harper's Classical Series," of which this edition of Pindar forms a part.

Professor Gildersleeve's introductory essay commences with a life of Pindar, in which he gives, with much interesting comment, the few facts that have been handed down to us. Most noticeable are the evident side-glances at our civil war, like this from page xi (the italics are ours):

"One question always arises when the Μαραθωνομάχης and Pindar are compared, and that is the attitude of the Theban poet during the Persian war. Was Pindar in thorough sympathy with the party of the Theban nobility to which he belonged by birth, by training, by temperament, or was he a friend of the national cause—*as it is safe to call a cause after it has been successful?*"

And again:

"It is no discredit to Pindar that *he went honestly with his State* in the struggle. It was no

treason to Medize before there was a Greece, and the Greece that came out of the Persian war was a very different thing from the cantons that ranged themselves on this side and on that of a quarrel which, we may be sure, bore another aspect to those who stood aloof from it than it wears in the eyes of moderns, who have all learned to be Hellenic patriots. *A little experience of a losing side might aid historical vision.* That Pindar should have had an intense admiration of the New Greece, should have felt the impulse of the grand period that followed Salamis and Plataia, should have appreciated the woe that would have come on Greece had the Persians been successful, and should have seen the finger of God in the new evolution of Hellas—all this is not incompatible with an attitude during the Persian war that those who see the end and do not understand the beginning may not consider respectable."

We have not space even to enumerate the various topics which Professor Gildersleeve treats in his introductory essay. We can notice only one or two points. Under the heading "Approach to Pindar," he sketches the manner in which he thinks the artistic study of an ode should be prosecuted. He apparently agrees with the recommendation of Rauchenstein to commence with the "easier odes," but asks (p. lxiii):

"Which are the easier odes? . . . The fact is, a man who has read himself into Pindar is a poor judge of the relative difficulty of the odes unless he has made actual trial in the class-room, and the experience of most lovers of Pindar has of necessity been limited, as Pindar has seldom been read in our colleges."

We suspect that were it not for his experience in the class-room, Professor Gildersleeve would be a poor judge of the relative difficulty of different portions of the works of almost any of the Greek classical writers. His study of Greek has been so wide and so deep, so minute, we might say so microscopic, that the language has become interwoven with his intellectual constitution; all intelligible passages are to him equally easy, and a passage which is obscure or unintelligible to him, we have little doubt would have been equally obscure or unintelligible to an educated Athenian of the 80th Olympiad. He points out, however, the order in which he thinks it best to study the odes, and then the manner in which they should be studied. "The first thing to be mastered, not theoretically, but practically, is the form"; and before any attempt is made to get at its meaning, it must be read over and over aloud until the student has become perfect in the rhythmical recitation of the ode. To enable the student to do this our editor has not only given with each ode Schmidt's schemes of the metres, but he has placed dots under those syllables of the Greek text upon which the stress falls. Having mastered the rhythmical recitation of the ode, much as if it were a piece of instrumental music to be played with the voice, the next thing is to master the meaning, and here, of course, the commentary will come in. "Finally," what to many will seem a little odd—"the introduction by way of review" is to be studied. We do not think it a matter of vital importance whether the student first masters the form or the meaning so far as either can be comprehended without the other, provided he really masters both in the end; and as to the special introduction to each ode, we are quite sure that, whether for better or worse, it will be the first thing that every student will read.

As noticed above, Professor Gildersleeve has been enabled to lay before his readers the very latest results of the profound investigations of Dr. J. H. H. Schmidt, according to whom Pindar uses three fundamental forms of metre, corresponding to the 2:4 or duple, the 3:8 or triple, and the 5:8 or quintuple time of writers on music. We have no space to enter into the details of protraction, correption, and other points. We shall confine our remarks to the last species, reminding the reader that the difference between music in 5:4 and in 5:8 time is merely one of notation, and that any given piece in the one kind of time can equally well be written in the other without changing its character in any respect whatever. For a large part of the first half of the present century it was supposed that many of the peasant dances in the Palatinate and Bohemia were genuine examples of music in 5:4 or quintuple time, and many of them were so printed. But subsequent investigations have shown that this was a mistake, and that the music is really a combination of duple and triple time. Indeed, while there is no doubt that a few pieces in quintuple time have been written by modern composers, yet it is extremely doubtful whether any such music ever *grew*. An error is never fully comprehended or susceptible of complete refutation till its origin is discovered. The origin of the error of supposing that these peasant dances were in quintuple (5:4) time is easily pointed out. Any strain of music which consists of alternate bars of duple (2:4) and triple (3:4) time, or *vice versa*, can, without any essential change of its character, be converted into quintuple (5:4) time by simply omitting the alternate cross-bars. The first specimens of these dances that were reduced to writing were of this kind. Why this was the case is also clear. Out of the multitude of these dances, all equally accessible, those which were apparently in quintuple (5:4) time were the only ones the rhythm of which was intelligible to those who endeavored to reduce them to writing. But investigations of living musicians have shown that the dances which can be reduced to quintuple (5:4) time form but a small fraction of the whole number. Louis Köhler, in his collection of national dances ('Volkstänze aller Nationen der Erde,' Collection Litolff, vol. 514), has published a considerable number of these peasant dances (*Bauerntänze*). They are all marked with the double-time signature 3:4 2:4, and, unless we have made some mistake in our examination of them, there is only one in the whole number which can be reduced to quintuple (5:4) time. In all cases each section or strain is repeated. In most cases the strain commences with an anacrusis and ends with an imperfect bar, which, together with the anacrusis, when the strain is repeated, or with the anacrusis of the succeeding strain when we pass to it after repeating the preceding strain, just forms a complete bar.

It may be a matter of interest to metrical students who are acquainted with the elements of music if we give the metrical schemes of one of these dances. It can be easily done in the same manner as Schmidt's Pindaric schemes. Commencing with the first complete bar, and considering the last bar as complete for the reason mentioned above, the scheme of the first strain of No. 21 of Köhler's collection is this: 2 3 2 3 2 3 2 3. Here each figure represents a bar and the number of quarter-notes or their equivalent contained in it. It will be observed that by combining two bars in one these eight bars of complex (2:4 3:4) time can be reduced to 4 of quintuple (5:4) time, so that the scheme would be: 5 5 5 5. But there is an insuperable objection to this. When so combined there would be nothing to indicate to the player whether the secondary accent should fall on the third or the fourth quarter-note, and unless the secondary accent of the quintuple bar were marked with the same clearness as the primary, the dancers would not know how to regulate the figures of the dance; that is if they counted their steps, as learners do, they would not know whether to count them 1, 2, 1, 2, 3, or 1, 2, 3, 1, 2. In other words, if the music were written in quintuple (5:4) time, both the player and the dancers would inevitably convert it into one of the forms of complex-time, either 2:4 3:4 or 3:4 2:4.

There is no definite limit to the number of ways in which duple and triple time may be combined, and perhaps the time will come when in all the Greek metres we shall be able to return to the prosodial principle, recognized for more than twenty centuries, that the only Greek syllables are shorts and longs, standing to each other in the simple ratio of 1 to 2. At any rate we feel that, although Professor Gildersleeve has given us the latest, he has not given us the last word on Greek metre and rhythm.

We will conclude with the expression of a hope, which is that the sale of this volume of the Olympian and Pythian odes may be sufficient to induce Professor Gildersleeve to prepare, and to warrant his publishers in issuing, a second volume on the same plan, containing the Nemean and Isthmean odes and all the fragments, not merely a selection. His introductory essay is in all respects adapted to a complete edition of Pindar's works. The references in those parts which treat of the dialect and syntax of Pindar are quite as numerous to the lacking portions as their comparative bulk demands. In many cases they are more numerous than the references to the odes contained in this volume; for example, under the suffix -θεν he gives one reference to a Pythian ode, while there are two to Nemean and two to Isthmean odes. Should our hope be realized, we should have an edition of Pindar which for completeness and usefulness would long remain unsurpassed; and it would serve as a specimen of American learning and scholarship of which we should all be proud.

The Campaigns of Stuart's Cavalry. By H. B. McClellan. Richmond: J. W. Randolph & English; Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885.

THIS volume fills, and fills well, a gap in the literature connected with the civil war. Though called on the title-page, 'The Life and Campaigns of Major-General J. E. B. Stuart,' it is really a history of the cavalry of the army of Northern Virginia while under his command, but a small space being devoted to the personal history of General Stuart apart from his military career in the Confederate army. In the many narratives, more or less valuable, which have been written of the campaigns in Virginia, the operations of the cavalry have been described in a fragmentary and often in a very meagre and inadequate way. For the first time we now have a history of these operations (so far as conducted by Stuart) which gives a connected view of them as a whole. This has been done, too, by one who, as Adjutant-General of the cavalry corps, not only knows what he is talking about, but who has evidently spared no pains and labor to get at all the facts about transactions in regard to which the official reports are imperfect, or misleading, or altogether wanting. The tone of Major McClellan's book deserves unqualified praise as the frank, manly, straightforward story of a soldier who is more anxious to be just than to glorify his own side, and who can see and admire the gallant deeds of his foemen as readily as those of his comrades.

But this is only one of the excellences of the book. While the style is perfectly simple, unpretending, we may say unadorned, it is admirable for its lucidness and ease. Cavalry operations are often complicated and confused, and the battles of large bodies of horsemen, scattered as they usually are over a great extent of country, are matters not easy of description. But Major McClellan is not excelled by any writer we know in the clearness with which he sets forth the movements of troops before battle, and the well-defined, perfectly comprehensible picture he presents of battles themselves. The story of Stuart's raids is admirably told, and the great cavalry

fight, for instance, between Stuart and Pleasanton, on June 9, 1863, which opened the Gettysburg campaign, is so well set forth that, with the aid of the map, it is perfectly easy to follow the varied and intricate movements of the day without confusion and without fatigue. Major McClellan possesses the happy faculty of not overburdening his narrative with too much detail, while he yet retains enough to secure vividness. He thus describes the opening of the struggle for Fleetwood Hill, the centre and key to Stuart's position on June 9, and which, from the supineness of General Robertson, had almost fallen into General Gregg's possession before Stuart knew that he was near:

"My first courier found General Stuart as incredulous concerning the presence of the enemy in his rear as I had been at the first report of the North Carolina scout. Major Hart states that Stuart turned to him and ordered him to 'ride back there and see what all that foolishness is about.' But simultaneous with my second message . . . came the sound of the cannonading, and there was no longer room for doubt. The nearest point from which a regiment could be sent was Jones's position, one and a half miles distant from Fleetwood. The Twelfth Virginia, Col. A. W. Harman, and the Thirty-fifth Battalion, Lieut.-Col. E. V. White, were immediately withdrawn from his line, and ordered to meet this new danger. But minutes expanded seemingly into hours to those anxious watchers on the hill, who feared lest, after all, help *could* not arrive in time. But it *did* come. The emergency was so pressing that Colonel Harman had no time to form his regiment into squadrons, or even in platoons. He reached the top of the hill as Lt. Carter was retiring his gun after having fired his very last cartridge. Not fifty yards below, Col. Percy Wyndham was advancing the First New Jersey Cavalry in magnificent order, in column of squadrons, with flags and guidons flying. A hard gallop had enabled only the leading files of the Twelfth Virginia to reach the top of the hill, the rest of the regiment stretching out behind in columns of fours. It was a trying position both to the pride and courage of this regiment to be put into action in such manner that a successful charge seemed hopeless; but with the true spirit of a forlorn hope, Colonel Harman and the few men about him dashed at the advancing Federals. Stuart reached the hill a few moments later. . . .

"And now the first contest was for the possession of the Fleetwood Hill; and so stubbornly was this fought on either side, and for so long a time, that all of Jones's regiments and all of Hampton's participated in the charges and countercharges which swept across its face. . . .

"Colonel Harman was severely wounded in a personal encounter with the officer leading the Federal cavalry. Lieutenant-Colonel White, having reformed the two squadrons of his battalion, swept around the west side of the hill and charged the three guns which had been advanced to its foot. The cavalry which supported these guns was driven away. Not so, however, with the gallant gunners of the Sixth New York Battery. They had already distinguished themselves at Chancellorsville on the 2d of May under General Pleasanton, and on this occasion they stood by their guns with the most determined courage. Lieutenant-Colonel White says in his report: 'There was no demand for a surrender, nor offer to do so, until nearly all the men, with many of their horses, were either killed or wounded.'"

Major McClellan is perhaps over-careful to defend the fame of his chief against the military criticisms which have been often made on some of his operations. Stuart was one of the great cavalry leaders of the war. On the Southern side, he divides with Forrest the palm for skill, daring, and genius, and his achievements entitle him to rank among the great commanders of horse. His judgment was cool and good, his military intuitions of a very high order, his daring proverbial, his skill in handling men very great, while his physical energy and endurance had few parallels. The author has well explained the difficulties which had to be overcome in the equipment and maintenance of the Confederate cavalry, growing out of the insufficient supply of horses and arms to be had. Yet Stuart maintained an easy superiority over the Federal cavalry opposed to him during the first two years of the war. An immense improvement, however, took place in the Federal cavalry in the spring of 1863, and from this time forward the struggle was far more desperate and uncertain. Stuart was confronted by foemen worthy of his steel, and the failing resources of the Confederacy made his task increasingly arduous.

But his ability was too great, and his achievements too solid, to make it necessary to defend him from every charge of error. The saying is trite but deserves to be remembered: "The man who has made no mistakes has never fought any battles." The achievement which first gave Stuart great reputation was his daring raid around McClellan's army on the Chickahominy, and he showed ever after a *penchant* for similar operations. This first raid not only was a brilliant feat, but it conduced in the highest degree to the success of Lee's plan of campaign against McClellan. Indeed, that campaign may be said to have been based upon the information that Stuart brought. But no such importance, either in design or result, attached to the Chambersburg raid; and while the skill and boldness with which it was conducted were creditable in the highest degree, the exhaustion due to it probably counterbalanced the advantages secured.

One of Stuart's great days was that on which he commanded Jackson's Corps at Chancellorsville, and, after a fierce and sanguinary struggle, wrested victory from Hooker. Arriving on the field at midnight, when the operations of the corps had been for some hours paralyzed by the fall of Jackson, he showed immense energy in acquainting himself with the condition of the field and the disposition of the troops, and deserves great credit for the vigor and skill of his attack next morning. He fought out the battle according to his own conceptions of the situation, instead of attempting to carry out Jackson's ideas. In this he was right; but it does not follow that, had Jackson been permitted to complete his own movement of the night before, even more striking results might not have been obtained.

In regard to Stuart's movements before Gettysburg, Major McClellan has said well what can be said in behalf of his chief, and he has not hesitated to criticise him—mildly, it is true—for sacrificing time of inestimable value for the sake of saving a train of captured wagons or paroling a few hundred prisoners. There can be no question but that General Lee's instructions allowed Stuart great latitude in consonance with the confidence which Lee reposed in the indefatigable commander of his horse, but it is just as certain that his prolonged absence was unexpected and severely felt by Lee, and that to this absence the battle of Gettysburg, at least as to manner and place, was due.

The brief sketch of Stuart's life before the war, the account of his participation in the capture of John Brown, and the glimpses given of his personal character and habits, add much to the charm of this interesting book; and we can only wish that the author had dwelt more on the personality of a soldier not more renowned for his brave deeds than for his singularly pure and lovable character. No deed of cruelty to citizen, no outrage upon woman, has ever been laid to his charge. Courteous as brave, running over with a joyous gayety which nothing could depress, he was hardly less earnest in his religious convictions than Stonewall Jackson himself.

The oversights are few. On page 88 Morse's Neck should be Moss Neck, and on page 386 Hanover Junction is once printed when Warrenton Junction is meant. Rosser and the horse artillery hardly receive the credit they deserve for their part in the fight at the Boonsboro' gap, September 14, 1862. On page 129 it is not accurate to speak of Starke's division as reinforcing Lawton, as both were engaged at the same time and on different parts of the line. The book has been well got up by the publishers, and the maps are unusually good.

Königliche Museen zu Berlin: Die Gipsabgüsse, etc. [*Royal Museums of Berlin:* The Plaster Casts of Ancient Sculpture explained in Historical Sequence. Materials for the History of Greek and Roman Plastic Art. By Carl Friedrichs. Revised by Paul Wolters.] Berlin: Spemann. 1885. Pp. x, 850.—Beschreibung der Vasensammlung im Antiquarium. [Description of the Collection of Vases in the Antiquarium.] By Adolph Furtwangler. 1 vol. in 2 parts, pp. xxx, 1105, 7 plates. Berlin: Spemann. 1885.

THE Museum of Berlin (to class as one the many royal or national collections of the Prussian capital) is rich in vases and painted terracottas; and this collection may even be considered as peculiarly good for purposes of study and comparison, although it cannot be put in the first rank for the number and importance of its separate pieces of peculiar value and rarity. Large and very judicious purchases have been made during the past few years: in 1880, for instance, the collection of six hundred votive tablets from Corinth was obtained in one transaction, and not long before had been procured the extraordinary painted frieze from Athens; while remarkable single pieces, notably some with decoration partly in gold, have been added within a very few months. They are not very well displayed for the purposes of the ordinary student, who must look at them through the glass of the cases. Nearly all departments of the Berlin Museum are crowded.

The great cast collection, especially, is so much too large for its halls and corridors that it is really impossible to get far enough away from its most important pieces to see them properly. But there it is, filling ten halls of different sizes, besides landings of stairs and small passages; not very rich in Mediæval and Renaissance specimens, and much too purely *German* in the former department, but in classic sculpture by far the largest gathering in Europe. In fact, as has already been set forth in these columns, what with the few original pieces of value in the old collections—the Pergamon originals—the Olympia casts, which have their headquarters in Berlin, and are housed by themselves not far off, and the general collection housed in the "New Museum" building, Berlin may be said to have all the important classical sculptures that exist above ground, for the delectation of its students. The cast collection alone, including the Olympia finds, and as given in the book before us, contains 2,271 numbers of classical sculpture only.

The two books under consideration are excellent companions to the study of these collections, and so discharge their first duty as *catalogues*, but not in this capacity would they claim much attention from stay-at-home students. They are also excellent companions in the study, and nobly make up for the shortcomings of the professed histories and handbooks. For what is the fault of the histories and handbooks?—that they explain and discuss and draw general conclusions without giving examples enough to help the reader make up his own mind. Take the history of Greek sculpture, of which we have several good examples of late, and see what pages of disquisition have only two or three examples cited as the ground for these conclusions and convictions. The reader longs for more: he wants to know how many such reliefs or statues there are above ground; he would like to help the author reach his decisions, and asks for material to work upon. This the "history" cannot give, but the mere catalogue, "in historischer Folge erklärt,"

does nicely. It gives its chronological list, with sizes and places where discovered, from five to fifty lines of minute description, with careful reference to any other piece which shows similar or contrasted qualities; and, finally, it mentions all, or as near as may be all, the books and periodicals in which the piece in question has been described, and especially those in which a picture of it has been given. After you have read about your statue in the history you are at work upon, in Overbeck, or Reber, or Lübke, or Murray, or Perry, or Mitchell, or Rouget, you turn to our Friedrichs-Wolters catalogue to find an exact, minute, feature-by-feature account of it, the injuries and the repairs it has suffered, the restorations you must eliminate before you judge it, and also to find where else it has been pictured or described.

Evidently, for this purpose, the sculpture catalogue is far more important than the other. The vases in the Berlin Museum—those individual specimens—are probably unknown to, and certainly not easily to be reached by, the reader in an American library; but the statues and reliefs which Berlin has in plaster are the immortal and well-known ones, whose bronze or marble originals are in Athens, or Naples, or London, but whose plaster duplicates are here and there, wherever one chooses to have them brought, at small expense, and photographs and photogravures of them are immensely more accessible still. The spear-bearer which this catalogue describes at length may be seen rendered, it explains, in this book and in that, here better and there not quite so well; and the books so cited are *not* so unobtainable but that every moderate-sized town might have them all.

Carl Friedrichs's own 'Bausteine zur Geschichte der Griechisch-römischen Plastik' was published in 1868: it has been a much-used and highly valued book ever since, and had grown to be completely out of print, almost unobtainable. Two years ago, our readers will remember, Mr. D. Cady Eaton published an English translation of it at New Haven. The present admirable reissue of the original is Friedrichs's book still; the principal changes being in the great increase of matter with which it has had to deal. As it stands, no better or more critical work on the subject exists. If this were a review-article, there would be plenty of questions to raise, opinions of the author to challenge, and so on; but actual and undoubted faults and errors in the text seem hard to pitch upon. We may be excused for hinting to an audience who like short German sentences with a visible verb better than the other kind, that the German style of this book is as simple as Overbeck's (for instance) is long-winded, involved, and slow of comprehension.

And so we come to the Index, and it must be said that the Friedrichs-Wolters is poorly furnished. There is an index, but it is very inadequate. One great, almost fatal, shortcoming is that it classifies sculptures only under the names of the supposed subjects: but what is called here a *Hermes* the English reader may have known as Apollo, or as Achilles, and the modern-equipped archæologist may consider an Ephebos simply; and, in short, one knows not where to look. The simple remedy would be to give also the place where the sculpture is, "Patissia Museum," or "Japan Palace, Dresden"; also the finding-place, where known, or in place of it the *provenance*, like "Farnese collection," or the like. The vase catalogue has excellent and complete indexes.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bellows, Rev. H. W. Twenty-four Sermons Preached in All Souls' Church, New York, 1865-81. Edited by his son, R. N. Bellows. New York: The Editor.
Bamford, Mrs. C. E. Silk Culture. A Handbook for Silk Growers. O. Judd Co.
Blake, C. E. A Lexicon of the first Three Books of Homer's Iliad. D. Appleton & Co.

Fine Arts.

SALMAGUNDI EXHIBITION.

THE eighth exhibition of the Salmagundi Club, now open "under the auspices of the American Art Association," seems most appropriately named, there being three distinct exhibitions under the same roof, and visible for the price of one admission, thus forming practically one large collection of very varied contents. They are: the Salmagundi exhibition proper, the first annual exhibition of architectural drawings, and the collection of "out-door water colors" by Mr. F. K. M. Rehn.

The first thing one notices about the Salmagundi exhibition is the comparative absence from it of anything like real drawings. A collection of black-and-white studies—of such drawings as artists make in the preparation of their pictures—would be of great interest and value, and one is somewhat surprised by the absence of such studies. Perhaps the reason is to be found in a clause of the circulars of the club to the effect that "works intended for sale will be given the preference." The result of such an announcement is naturally to deter artists from sending any of their serious drawings made purely for artistic study, and to encourage the production, especially for this exhibition, of a sort of pictures painted in gouache or black and white oil, and "intended for sale." These pictures emulate to some extent the completeness of works in color, minus the color, and have an advantage over the latter in that they are much easier to do, and can consequently be sold at a cheaper rate. It seems to us that the only reason for existence of these processes is in their convenience for book illustration, and that, considered in any other light than as preparations for engraving, they are essentially vicious. In too many cases the facility of daubing has led the performer away from any serious study of form, while the comparative ineffectiveness of carefully studied values without the aid of color has been equally fatal to real study of light and shade. The result has been a reliance on mere effect—a spot of white against a spot of black—of the kind so familiar to us in the popular magazine illustrations. When done for the engravers such work has at least this advantage, that such quality as it has any engraver can render, whereas fine drawing or delicate tone is liable to be cut to pieces by all but the very best men; but done for itself, and without such ulterior aim, we cannot see that it possesses any serious value whatever. It is a direct training of falseness of vision in the artist, and is a debaucher of the public taste.

These general remarks will show why we do not devote much space to the consideration of individual drawings. We shall only notice a few of the more prominent exceptions. One of the most notable of these is a "Study" by F. D. Millet, which seems really to *be* a study. It is a pencil drawing of a female figure in antique costume, done with much delicacy of handling and considerable beauty of line. Many of the best drawings in the exhibition are veritable illustrations, and the frequency with which the Century Co., Harper Bros., and other publishing firms appear in the catalogue as owners strikes one at the first glance. There are two considerable sets of such designs, Mr. Kappes's illustrations of 'The Idyls of the King' and Mr. Shirlaw's illustrations of Goldsmith's 'Hermit,' besides a number of drawings which have appeared at different times in the magazines. We should like to praise Mr. Kappes's designs more heartily than we are able to do. They are evidently the outcome of much labor and sincerity of purpose, and those that deal least with the figure are sometimes quite effective; but his subject has demanded a science of the figure which he unfortunately does not possess, and with the best intentions he occasionally produces distressing results, as in "Vivien's Wiles," for example, where the bewitching lady is presented to us in a form anything but bewitching. Mr. Shirlaw's illustrations appear twice—in the originals and in Mr. Juengling's engravings—and, good engraver as Mr. Juengling is, he has hardly done justice to Mr. Shirlaw. Affected and theatrical the drawings are, but they are not without a certain rococo charm, most of which has evaporated under the engraver's ruder touch. Mr. Smedley has a number of illustrations which show his usual refinement and delicacy, and Mr. De Thulstrup has some dashing Indian subjects; there is much good, sober work in Mr. Burns's "Lost in the Fog," and Mr. Gaul's spirited "Urgent Despatch" is better work than we have seen from him lately. Lastly, there is some drawing of an unusually good sort in Mr. Charles Osborne's meagre nude study with a long and enigmatical title.

To the non-professional mind architectural drawings are apt to seem rather arid, and to convey little idea of the building, real or projected, that they illustrate, and this is certainly true of a large portion of the present collection, though not of all of it. Of the merits or demerits as architecture of the buildings here drawn we have nothing to say, but some of the drawings are very beautiful as drawings. The catalogue is very confusing, making no distinction between the architect of a building and the draughtsman, so that on one supposition—that warranted by the wording—Messrs. Swain Gifford and Hopkinson Smith appear as the architects of various famous buildings in Europe, while on another, drawings by Mr. Alfred Brennan, Mr. Harry Fenn, and others, are attributed to the architect who planned the buildings they have drawn. It is therefore impossible to tell, in the absence of other information, whether Mr. C. H. Walker is or is not a veritable architect, but what is certain is that he is a most accomplished painter in water colors. His drawings of several foreign churches are very lovely, with a combination of precision of information and picturesqueness of effect very rare to see, and are simple and direct in method and beautiful in color. Before we get away from the catalogue, let us mention that the first part of it is not altogether impeccable, a clever head of a "Matador" by W. A. Coffin appearing, no doubt to the disgust of the artist, as a "Mastodon" by W. *H.* Coffin! A charming bit of detail work, only partially carried out, is a fragment of Giotto's Tower, by H. B. Warren. Other things of the more purely architectural type possessing interest as drawings are a blotty, clever sketch of a part of Amiens Cathedral by Cass Gilbert, and some sketches of furniture, etc., by R. Brown. Mr. Gifford's contributions are, naturally, very different from any of these, being heavily painted with a good deal of gouache, and with more care for color and effect than for precision of detail. They are, in fact, *pictures*, and are only "architectural" by reason of the subjects. It seems to us that the buildings are, on the whole, better than the landscape.

Two of the American Art Association's rooms are filled with Mr. Rehn's "out-door water-colors," but of these we have little to say. The epithet probably corresponds more closely to the historical fact of their production than to any intrinsic quality of the works themselves. They are good, workmanlike productions of the conventional sort, and their quantity, as the result of one season's work, speaks volumes for the honorable industry of their author, especially when one considers that they were probably the employment of the moments when his work in oil was for any reason interrupted; but they hardly show any such originality or vitality as to call for extended notice.

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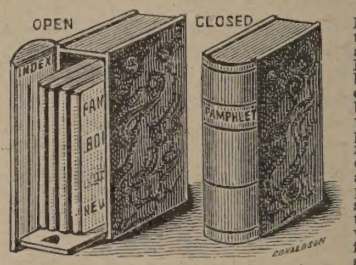

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 21, 1886.

The Week.

THE case of Mr. E. W. Armstrong, some time Collector of Internal Revenue at Utica, in this State, is a peculiarly pathetic one, and calls for an expression of respectful sympathy, not with him, but with his friend and patron, Mr. Roscoe Conkling of the New York Bar. Armstrong was one of Mr. Conkling's most faithful henchmen. Mr. Conkling got him his Collectorship in the immediate neighborhood of his "home," and Armstrong used to work for him at Albany in the time stolen from the Government. He was one of "the Spartan band" who, Mr. Conkling said, had to struggle against "abhorrent and forbidden forces" in trying to send him back to the Senate after his resignation in 1881. In fact, Armstrong was an intensely practical and faithful man. The other day, however, President Cleveland dismissed him, and appointed a Mr. Beach in his stead. The case appeared on its surface a peculiarly revolting illustration of the President's hypocrisy in the matter of civil-service reform, and Senator Morrill, of the Finance Committee, accordingly inquired the reasons for it, and the Secretary of the Treasury promptly furnished them. They came in the shape of a letter from Armstrong himself, which is said to have made the Senate roar with laughter. It informed the President, in bad grammar and bad spelling, that although ostensibly a Stalwart Republican, Armstrong had really during the last campaign covertly worked hard for Cleveland's election, and if the President would keep him in office, as a Republican, he would continue to serve the Democrats in every way in his power, and particularly in the old-fashioned way of removals and appointments. For a "Spartan" to figure in such a transaction is enough to make one despair of human nature, and to make Mr. Conkling's manly form shake with some kind of emotion when he hears of it.

The suggestion, which is said to have emanated from the President, that if the Senate wishes to discuss his removals upon information furnished by him, it should be done in open session, will strike nearly everybody outside the Senate as excellent. There is not a single reason for discussing nominations in secret session at all which will bear examination, except the risk of hurting the feelings of applicants for office by making public the objections made to their appointment. But if the discussion were public, we may rely upon it there would be fewer applicants for office whose feelings could be hurt in this way—that is, there would be fewer against whom serious charges could be made, and it would be an end to Senatorial bargaining, which is one of the great hindrances to reform. If the President has been making unjustifiable removals and bad appointments, it is not the Senate only which should know the particulars, but the whole public. If any highly-placed politician on either side has succeeded in inducing the President to make improper nominations, it ought to be made an open secret. There is no such cure for this sort of abuse as letting all the world know about it. Therefore we say that an arrangement between the Republican Senators and the President for the public examination of all his removals would be greatly welcomed by the country, and would do a world of good.

The Supreme Court of the United States on Monday rendered a decision of considerable importance in a test case as to the power of a State to impose a discriminating tax upon a "drummer" from another State, who seeks to sell goods manufactured in the latter State. A number of States have sought to protect home industry by levying taxes, often so heavy as to be practically prohibitory, upon "commercial travellers" representing similar industries in other States. The agent of a Chicago liquor house was arrested in Grand Rapids, Mich., two years ago, for soliciting and taking orders without the license required by Michigan law to be taken out by any such outside dealer, and the State Supreme Court sustained the lower tribunal in punishing him for violation of this statute. The Federal Supreme Court, however, pronounces the Michigan law void because it operates as a regulation of commerce among the several States, and is therefore repugnant to the Constitution of the United States, which gives the exclusive power of regulating such commerce to Congress.

If the protectionists were consistent, they would press for an amendment to the Constitution annulling the clause which intrusts to Congress the regulation of commerce among the States and thus permit free trade to prevail between the different commonwealths. If Michigan industries need to be protected from the competition of her next neighbor on the north and east, they ought to be protected from the competition of her next neighbors on the south or west, and the fact that the former happens to be Canada and the latter members of the American Union does not affect the principle. Indeed, the principle ought to be carried still further, as some people have tried to carry it. When the Rhode Island Legislature was petitioned a few years ago to prevent the running of cheap trains over the Boston and Providence Railroad, on the ground that there was already too much free trade between Boston and Providence, and that the latter city needed protection, the petitioners were only living up to the protectionist creed. So, too, the people of Worcester were merely carrying out the same principle to its logical conclusion when they besought the Massachusetts Legislature to stop cheap trains over the Boston and Albany Railroad, on the ground that such trains encouraged Worcester people to go to Boston and buy their goods there, instead of purchasing them at home. If protection is really so beneficent a system as its advocates claim, the more the country has of it the better, and the greater the pity that the framers of the Constitution, in their short-sighted folly, placed any obstacle in the way of its universal application.

The House has passed by a large majority the Hoar Presidential Succession Bill, precisely as it came from the Senate, and it has since received the President's signature and become a law. All the familiar objections made to it through the newspapers were raised in the House, but made no more impression there than they did in the Senate. The best constitutional lawyers in both bodies were satisfied with the measure as it was drawn, and their judgment is likely to be sufficiently sound to be followed with safety. The bill is probably not perfect, but its defects are of slight moment compared with the great gain of having the question of succession settled in a way that insures public order, whatever happens. This gain ought to be followed by the adoption of Senator Edmunds's plan for regulating the counting of the electoral vote. We should then be safely past two great perils which have hung over the country for many years.

Secretary Bayard will have the deep sympathy of men of all parties in the great affliction which has befallen him in the sudden death of his daughter. The last year has been to him necessarily full of care and anxiety. He has quitted a secure position in the Senate, which he filled most creditably and most usefully in the eyes of the country, in order to assist his own party in the arduous work of forming a new administration, after twenty-five years of exclusion from power. Such a task has necessarily been often very perplexing. No one can fill the State Department and escape all the pitfalls which the present organization of our diplomatic service spreads by the score before unwary feet. To Senator Bayard, the ordinary cares of the place to any man have been aggravated by almost morbid anxiety to do right. In such difficulties the best men find home counsels and sympathy probably the greatest source of strength. Owing to her mother's protracted ill-health, his daughter was to Mr. Bayard something more than even the best daughters usually are. Her death, therefore, is perhaps to him as great a calamity as could befall a public man. It will, as we have said, soften toward him the hearts of his sternest critics, and possibly even silence for the moment the blackguards of the press who have been lately trying to make a little money by vilifying him.

The report of Mr. Cullom's Committee on Railroads has been presented to the Senate, and recommends that Congress should undertake the regulation of the business of transportation, because of "admitted abuses of its management, and of acknowledged discrimination between persons and places in its practical operation—evils which it is possible to reach and remedy through the exercise of the powers granted by the Constitution." For this purpose it proposes a Commission with power to arbitrate between the shippers and the railroads, to collect information, and to make its findings of fact prima-facie evidence in all legal proceedings. Such a Commission would undoubtedly be very useful in allaying irritation on the part of the public,

and in diffusion of knowledge about the real conditions of transportation. But that it would give the country any great improvement on the facilities now provided by the competition of the roads themselves, we must not expect. Greater cheapness of transportation or a more rapid decline in rates than competition has produced within the last twenty years, it would be folly to look for from any Government interference. The discrimination between persons and places, too, which is the cause of the chief complaint that angry shippers make against railroads, consists really, for the most part, in selling cheaper at wholesale than at retail, which is what all dealers do. In carrying people or goods 100 miles at a less rate than 10 miles, railroads are really influenced by the familiar motive which induces the applewoman to sell three apples for five cents while charging two cents for one. All business is, indeed, carried on on this principle. James Fisk, jr.'s lamented father would not tell a lie, as we all now know, for a York shilling, but he would tell eight for a dollar.

The report quotes from testimony of Mr. Edward Atkinson, showing that railway property now constitutes one-fifth of the accumulated capital of the country, gives employment to 650,000 people, and moves 400,000,000 tons of freight annually, one-half of which is fuel and food, and so cheaply that the Massachusetts mechanic can now procure the transportation of a year's supply of food from a distance of 1,000 miles for the proceeds of one day's labor. This is a very wonderful story, and we must not in cudgelling our brains over the railroad problem forget that it is the much abused corporations which have performed this amazing feat and that it is not likely that the wisdom of Congress is great enough to introduce many improvements into railroad management, although that it can introduce some is unquestionable.

The devices of the protected classes to prevent trade with foreign countries are of almost infinite variety and cunning. Here is one that has just been introduced in Congress by Senator Platt, of Connecticut:

"A bill to prevent frauds on American manufacturers.

"*Be it enacted*, etc., that no article of foreign manufacture shall be admitted at any custom-house of the United States, when such article, or the box or package containing it, is so stamped, marked, branded, or labelled as to represent that such article was manufactured in the United States."

On the surface this bill looks like a measure to protect trade-marks, and prevent imposition on the public. The title of the bill contains a very neat stump speech: "to prevent frauds on American manufacturers." But, like most stump speeches inserted in titles and preambles, it is itself a fraud, and the only fraud connected in any way with the transaction sought to be prevented. Imitation of trade-marks and that sort of thing is already effectually prevented by the laws governing importations, and of course something else is had in view in the proposed new measure. We have not to look far to find out what this is. Of late years it has become a practice among jobbers in this country to advertise themselves and their trade by ordering goods made abroad to be stamped with the names of their firms, just as they get wrapping paper printed with their names and places of business. Nobody is harmed by this. "John Smith, Kansas City, Mo.," is stamped on the blade of a pocket-knife. This does not harm John Jones, of Meriden, Ct. John Jones, of Meriden, has his own name and trade-mark. He is entitled to them and he is protected in the use of them against all the world. But his rights are no greater than those of John Smith, of Kansas City. The latter has a perfect right to put his name on his own pocket-knives, and to do this either at the place of manufacture or at the place of sale. If the bill in question had proposed to put a higher rate of duty on goods so stamped, the little game would be exposed at once, because attention would then be directed to its merits, instead of being diverted by the catchword "to prevent frauds on American manufacturers." The framers of this pretty measure did not venture on such a step. They thought it would be a safer and surer plan to absolutely prohibit such importations than to put say 75 per cent. duty on goods stamped "John Smith, Kansas City," in place of 50 per cent. on the very same goods not stamped at all.

It is plain that John Smith has the right to stamp his pocket-knives when he gets them into his own store, and to stamp them in any way he pleases so that he does not infringe any other man's trade-mark. For all purposes of trade it would make no difference whether the stamping was done at Sheffield or at Kansas City. The effect would be the same. But of course it is much cheaper to have the stamping done where the goods are made, because the process of stamping can be done in the process of manufacture. It costs nothing to stamp goods in this way, whereas to stamp them at the place of sale requires a new manipulation. The passage of Senator Platt's bill is therefore equivalent to an additional duty on the goods. But an additional duty is exactly what the heavily protected manufacturers of cutlery do not dare to ask for. They know that they could not get it, and they do not want to draw attention to the exorbitant rates of duty they are already enjoying, amounting in some cases to 200 per cent. So they resort to this device to accomplish the same result. They want to deprive John Smith of his natural right to advertise. The reason why they are so anxious about it is that John Smith likes to sell goods with his own name on rather than with John Jones's name on.

One of the most mischievous notions set afloat by the silver men when their craze first started, now nearly ten years ago, was that banks chartered by the Government had some special duty towards the currency, besides keeping safe what was deposited with them by their customers. Some of the zealots, Mr. Brown of Georgia, for instance, think that a bank is bound to "favor silver," and help it to circulate even when its customers do not want it. The fact is, that it is no more the business of a banker to do this than of a newspaper editor or of a member of Congress. The one duty of a banker about money left with him on deposit is to give back to the depositor, when called on, the full value of what was deposited with him. A banker has nothing to do with settling what kind of money people ought to use. His business is simply to take care of the kind they do use, and to return to every man what he got from him and nothing less. If any one is to blame about the failure of silver to circulate, it is the people, and what these silver Congressmen ought to try is the old plan of making it penal to refuse or fail to employ silver in business. Why not pass an act obliging everybody to keep a certain minimum amount—according to his means—of silver dollars in the house, and to use silver dollars in all payments under say $10,000, instead of checks?

The evidence appears to be accumulating that the Blainites have agreed to encourage the Democrats not to touch the silver problem, and thus to provide for a period of financial uncertainty and resulting commercial depression during the remainder of President Cleveland's term. The Western Republican silver men are beginning to recede from their recent admissions that the coinage ought to be suspended; and the wise old heads who represent Blaine in this part of the world are wagging away in the same sense. That there is a certain shrewdness in this course on the part of the Blaine firm, there is no doubt. The Democrats have always shown a fatal facility in falling into snares of this sort. It would not be unlike them to let the United States credit fall ten points in the markets of the world, and bring back the business of the country to the condition of fluctuating and uncertain values from which we escaped in 1879, by way of preparation for the election of 1888.

News comes from Dakota that much agitation exists there in consequence of instructions received by loan agents from their principals in the East not to make any further loans on mortgage, or to renew any, unless it it is stipulated in the contract that payment shall be made in gold or the equivalent thereof. Those who lend the money lend gold, and, being apprehensive that "dollars" may signify something 20 per cent. less valuable than gold when the loans become due, unless an express stipulation is put in the contract, they have ordered their agents to require such stipulation. One of the few things left us by the Supreme Court in the way of sound money is the right to make contracts in any kind of money we please. The court says that it will enforce contracts payable in gold, silver, tobacco, paper, coon-skins, whetstones, or anything else the parties choose, provided the stipulations are made in express terms. As the court's strong point is contracts, there is good reason to believe that loans made in gold to-day, calling for payment in gold one year or five years hence, will be enforced by all courts, including those of Dakota. We should not wonder if there were some squirming against this kind of contracts in Dakota, and, of course, Senator Beck will discover in them new evidence of the existence of "organizations of wealth." But it amounts to nothing more than this, that it gives all the silver to those who say they like it. The Dakota people are reported to be very much in favor of the "dollar of the fathers." The new clause inserted in their mortgages merely enables them to retain for their own use as many as they succeed in earning.

It is no new thing for postmasters to attend conventions; indeed, before civil-service reform

was heard of, it used to be charged that Republican conventions were often little more than assemblies of postmasters and other Federal officials. A convention of a very different sort is called to meet in Chicago next month; it will be composed exclusively of postmasters, but their meeting has no political object. For years postmasters of the third and fourth class—the former comprising those appointees of the President (about 1,900 in number) whose salaries range between $1,000 and $2,000, and the latter the incumbents of the 49,000 offices whose pay falls below $1,000 a year—have complained bitterly and reasonably of sundry grievances. Third-class postmasters are compelled to give all their time to their offices, and yet are compelled to pay out of their salaries the bills for rent, fuel, clerk hire, and other running expenses, although all such expenses are paid by the Government in the cases of first and second-class postmasters, who receive much larger salaries. The fourth-class postmaster is required to provide boxes for the office himself, and then divide the income from box-rents with the Government. There are some minor grounds of complaint, but these cover the main points. Postmasters-General have repeatedly recommended action by Congress to relieve the postmasters, but no effective legislation has yet been secured. The postmasters have finally concluded to try the effect of an organized movement, and delegates from all parts of the country are to meet in Chicago on the 15th of February, to formulate their complaints and press them upon public attention.

The Board of Directors of the Produce Exchange of New Orleans calls for support for "schemes to attract trade to the city, and to suspend at least the diversion of what they have left." The city before the war used to export 70 per cent. of the cotton crop; it now exports only 26 per cent. It used to import 80 per cent. of the coffee; it now imports only 7 per cent. of it. In fact, the place is going down hill both relatively and absolutely, in spite of the enormous expenditure on the improvement of the port. Its fate illustrates strikingly the change which the improvements in transportation are making in the channels of trade. Before the days of railroads, great rivers produced great cities at their mouths, if there was a good harbor and a good climate. In the case of New Orleans, the river was so great that it produced a great city, in spite of the poorness of the harbor and the badness of the climate and soil. But now that the railroads have robbed the river of so much of its usefulness, the climate and soil and the badness of the harbor are killing the city by inches. Nothing but an extraordinary outburst of energy on the part of the population can save it; but nowadays, when travel is so easy, the energetic go, like the rest of the world, where the obstacles to success are the fewest.

Senator Sherman was as vague as politicians usually are in the advice he gave the Ohio Legislature last week about the labor question. "You ought to legislate," he said, "so as to secure to the laborer, as far as the law can go, the highest wages and the advantages of social life." Now, everybody has looked at the matter in this way for ages. What is making all the trouble about labor in politics is the difficulty of deciding how far the law can go. There are laborers who think that the law ought to insure them a good income all the year around and a piano for their daughters. And there are capitalists who think the law can do no more for the laborer than for the lawyer or farmer—that is, can only protect him in the pursuit of his industry and the enjoyment of his earnings and savings. Which is right, is what we need to know. We should think the laborer would by this time be thoroughly sick of the politician's see-saw about "the rights of capital on the one hand, and the rights of labor on the other," which party platforms are apt to contain.

We quoted from the *Independent* in December last a letter written to the editor of that journal by the Rev. Anson West, D. D., of Talladega, Alabama, containing this passage:

"I have, just out of the press, published by the Southern Methodist Publishing House, Nashville, Tenn., a book bearing the title 'The Old and the New Man; or Sin and Salvation.' What will you charge me for *two editorials a column long in your paper, giving a favorable notice* of my book? I think my book possesses merit, and would like to get for it a favorable and rousing notice from the press of the country"

The *Independent's* reply to this was that its price for such notices was a "million dollars a line." We advised the Rev. Dr. West not to be discouraged at this high tariff, but to go to some of our esteemed contemporaries who are in the habit of printing "reading matter" for money down, where he would undoubtedly get what he desired for a few hundred dollars. Instead of taking this advice, the Rev. Dr. West sends us a long letter on a printed slip containing a defence of his conduct. He complains that his letter to the *Independent* has been made the basis for insinuations "which seem to disparage his integrity and his common sense"; that he intended it "simply as a business letter," and that if all business consultations were treated as his letter was, he "feels sure that the interests of society would raise a protest." He declares that he had no thought of buying the *Independent*, or of "asking it to do anything out of the ordinary course of journalism," and did not suspect his letter of convicting him of "being either a knave or a fool." He concludes with the unprejudiced observation that his book has merit, and that in securing for it notice and circulation he "serves the cause of truth and religion." We are afraid that there is a good deal more of the "Old Man" in the Rev. Dr. West than he has been able to get into his book.

A new feature has been introduced into the sermon reporting of one of our morning contemporaries, by estimating how much the congregation of a certain church is "worth" in money. The "regular worshipping congregation" before the recent death of two noted members was worth, it is said, $300,000,000, but since these melancholy events the valuation of the body has dropped to $200,000,000, or thereabouts. We think, to make these estimates really instructive, the value of the church lot and the buildings ought to be added to the wealth of the congregation. The first example we can recall of this mode of "sizing up" the attendants at a church occurred some years ago in the account of a wedding, in a religious weekly of this city, in which, after giving the names of some of the persons standing around the bride and groom, the writer said: "That little group in front of the altar represented at least $20,000,000." Following out this idea, it might be a good plan, and would prevent mistakes, to have every man's worth, who had more than a million, stated on a plate or card on his pew door—a suggestion we have heard made with regard to the cards on the plates at dinner parties. A brief account on the card of the financial condition of each guest, if a rich man, would greatly add to the interest of New York entertainments, especially for foreigners who have not heard of our local notables, and often do not know in what distinguished company they find themselves.

"Does prohibition prohibit?" Let Maine answer. The total number of persons committed to jail in that State during 1885 was 3,395, of whom 188 were sentenced for selling liquors (an increase of 38 over 1884), and 1,761 for drunkenness (an increase of 441 over 1884).

Mr. Justin McCarthy, in an article on Home Rule in the *Contemporary Review*, ridicules the fears of Englishmen about home rule leading to separation, or attempts at separation, or in fact leading to anything but a peaceable connection with England, like that of the American States with the general Government. He forgets, however, that nine tenths of the advocates of home rule accompany its advocacy with expressions of the fiercest detestation of the British Empire. In fact, of all the fears entertained by Englishmen about the consequences of yielding to Parnell, this seems to us the most reasonable and justifiable. Most of the others have a somewhat chimerical and ridiculous air, and sound a little like the fears of some of the opponents of emancipation here, that the negroes would, if free, go and die of starvation in the woods sooner than work.

Our friend "G. B.," of Boston, who so often treats our readers to a dose of his political panacea—the concentration of political responsibility on individuals instead of assemblies—must be somewhat disheartened, if anything can dishearten so persistent a preacher, by what is passing in France, where the individual continues to wither in a rather startling manner. Ministries are there formed and overthrown at the rate now of one in six months, without anybody seeming to care. More significant than all is that M. Grévy has been reëlected President of the Republic, at the age of seventy-three, without any opposition, or indeed, any sign of public interest. The London *Economist*, commenting on this, draws the conclusion that we are probably witnessing the establishment in France of a new kind of government, which it calls "Cameral Government," that is, government by a Chamber en masse, instead of by individual ministers leading a Chamber or supported by it. Moreover, it intimates that this may possibly be a gain to the world in releasing communities from dependence on great men, who are not always forthcoming.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 13, to TUESDAY, January 19, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN the Senate on Wednesday Mr. Ingalls (Rep., Kan.) offered a resolution, "That in the opinion of the Senate the compulsory coinage of silver dollars directed by the law of February 28, 1878, should not be suspended until the aggregate reaches the sum of $500,000,000." It was laid over for the present.

More work was accomplished by the Senate on Wednesday in executive session than on any previous day of the present Congress. Over 150 postmasters were confirmed, and, in addition, a long list of navy promotions, including Captain Walker to be Chief of the Bureau of Navigation.

In the House of Representatives on Wednesday, Mr. Curtin (Dem., Pa.), addressing the Speaker, said: "It was your pleasure, sir, to do me the honor to place me first on the list of the Committee on Banking and Currency. I did intend to state to this House my reasons for declining that honor, but on the advice of many friends, and of the sentiment of the public journals of the country, I have concluded to offer no reasons of my own. For reasons of my own, which seem to be understood by my friends and colleagues on this floor, I do ask this House to excuse me from the important duty as Chairman of the Committee to which you have assigned me." Mr. Curtin was excused. This devolves the Chairmanship upon Mr. Miller, of Texas.

The House on Friday passed the Presidential Succession Bill as it came from the Senate, by a vote of 183 to 77. All the negative votes but two came from the Republican side. Thirty seven Republicans voted with the Democrats who supported the bill.

President Cleveland on Tuesday affirmed the Hoar Presidential Succession Bill, which is, therefore, a law.

The House River and Harbor Committee on Friday fixed the limit of the River and Harbor Bill at $11,000,000 The bill which President Arthur vetoed in 1882 appropriated $18,743,875.

On Monday in the House Mr. Wadsworth (Rep., Ky.) introduced for reference a resolution declaring that the President has done what he could to keep silver, gold, and paper on an equality. He desired that this should be referred to the Judiciary Committee. Mr. Weaver, representing the silver men, moved its reference to the Coinage Committee. The latter motion prevailed by a vote of 159 yeas to 57 nays. The silver men claim that on any question involving silver they have about 100 majority.

In the Senate on Monday Mr. Frye offered a resolution to the effect that in the opinion of the Senate the President's recommendation for a new fisheries commission should not be carried out. Mr. Edmunds declared that the agreement entered into by the Administration involved grave questions as to the powers of the President. While not strictly a treaty, its terms did practically and precisely what a treaty would do, and there might be a question as to the assumption by the President of rights and powers not given him by the Constitution. Messrs. Hoar and Dawes declared that no American fisherman would suffer injury by the termination of the treaty, and Mr. Frye sneered at the efforts of Minister West in behalf of American fishermen, and declared that his action and that of the Administration were the most marvellous pieces of business in the history of diplomacy.

Senator Voorhees (Dem., Ind.) has introduced bills for the admission of Montana and Washington Territories as States.

Secretary Manning on Saturday sent a communication to Senator Morrill, Chairman of the Committee on Finance, in which he acknowledged the receipt of his letter requesting the reasons for the suspension of a certain Collector of Internal Revenue, and the appointment of another person in his place, and then said: "I would reply that as yet I have received no directions from the President in relation to transmitting the papers and information called for."

"The following," said a Democrat in high authority, "may be regarded as the Administration's position in regard to the nominations before the Senate: The Tenure-of-Office Act is considered to have been practically nullified by the partial repealing act of 1869. Since that repealing act the President has no longer been required, even by form of law, to send to the Senate the reasons for suspensions. As to original appointments, the Administration is of opinion that the Senate, as a matter of right, is not entitled to receive any information from the President on demand as to his reasons for appointments. But it has been the custom for the Executive department to furnish such information as a courtesy, and that courtesy will be continued. The case, however, is different in the matter of suspensions. The Senate has no constitutional right to concern itself with the President's reasons for suspensions. But the President wishes to observe the courtesy due the Senate to the furthest extent possible consistent with the maintenance intact of the Presidential prerogative. If Senators, as a matter of courtesy, desire the reasons for certain suspensions, those reasons will be furnished. If, however, the Senate shall demand these reasons as a right, they will be withheld. Everything will depend upon the form of the request."

Secretary Lamar has decided that the Government should bring suit to test the validity of Bell's telephone patent.

It is known authoritatively that the Republican Senators in caucus did agree upon these two points: First, that there shall be no rejections except for causes which would insure the rejection of nominees of a Republican President under like circumstances; upon this subject the Stalwarts were signally defeated. Second, that the information called for in cases of suspension must be furnished; and that if it shall be withheld, the respective Cabinet officers will be served with a summons *duces tecum* by the Senate committees

A test suit was decided in the interest of commercial travellers by the United States Supreme Court on Monday. The court held, Judge Bradley delivering the opinion, that a discriminating tax imposed by a State, operating to the disadvantage of the products of other States when introduced into the first-mentioned State, is in effect a regulation in restraint of commerce among the States, and as such is a usurpation of the power conferred by the Constitution upon the Congress of the United States.

Senator Sherman was reëlected Senator of the United States from Ohio in the joint legislative session on Wednesday. He addressed the Legislature on Thursday, urging the members to revise the State election laws. "I invite your attention," said he, "to the example set by the great State of New York. In that State in 1868 great frauds were perpetrated by a man whose name will be repudiated by any party, Boss Tweed. Then it was that men of both political parties went to work and reformed their election laws. If it had not been done, civil war would have been inevitable. Men of both political parties resolved upon reformation, and it resulted in the best election law in the world. In the dispute last fall over the election they awaited the announcement of the official vote, and the matter was ended. One of the most distinguished men to bring about this reform was Samuel J. Tilden (applause), and I am glad to speak of him here. In this respect I heartily refer to the recommendations made by Governor Hoadly in his annual message, which express my sentiments better than I could do."

The Ohio House on Wednesday appointed a committee of five to investigate Donavin's charges of bribery in connection with the election of Mr. Payne as United States Senator.

The committees as announced in both branches of the New York Legislature on Wednesday are generally approved by those who hope to see good work done. The following are among the chairmen in the Senate: Sloan, Finance; Comstock, Judiciary; Low, Railroads; Hendricks, Cities. In the Assembly: Erwin, Ways and Means; Kruz, Appropriations; Baker, Judiciary; Hamilton, Cities.

In the Assembly on Thursday the bill incorporating the Grant Monument Association of New York City, and permitting it to hold, exempt from taxation, real estate to the value of $1,000,000 was passed. A resolution authorizing Weed, Parsons & Co. to do the State printing pending the legal controversy over awarding the contract to the *Argus* Company, was passed by 70 to 48.

W. Bruns, Tammany Assemblyman, introduced on Monday night several bills amending the charter of this city. They provide for a Park Commission of two members, to be appointed in the first instance by the President of the Board of Aldermen, and afterward by the Mayor; transfer the duties of the Public Administrator to the Corporation Counsel; consolidate all the bureaus of the Public Works Department into three, etc.

Chauncey M. Depew was elected President of the Union League Club in this city on Thursday night, and the rest of the regular ticket was chosen without opposition. The following resolution was adopted by a nearly unanimous vote: "Resolved, That in the opinion of the Union League Club the public welfare demands that the compulsory coinage of silver dollars should be suspended by act of Congress, and that the Senators and Representatives from this State be respectfully requested to advocate such a measure."

Preparations are being made for the starting of the large furnaces at Riddlesburg, Pa., lately owned by the Kemble Coal and Iron Company, which have been out of blast for more than a year on account of the failure of the company.

A strike of 7,000 miners and coke workers in western Pennsylvania is threatened. They demand 10 per cent. advance in wages.

Mr. Schoenhof, American Consul at Tunstall, England, in an interview, expressed his belief that the decrease in the British exports of pottery was due to depression in the pottery trade in America as much as to the high tariffs. He added that the pottery market in America was glutted by purchases from England in 1883 previous to the raising of the tariff.

Collector Herbert Beecher has seized $45,000 worth of prepared opium stored at Kassan Bay, Alaska, awaiting shipment to Portland, Oregon, and San Francisco.

Patrick Egan, President of the Irish National League, of America, will resign at its next meeting.

The Rev. Henry Norman Hudson, the Shaksperian scholar, died at his home in Cambridge, Mass., on Saturday, at the age of seventy-two. He was born in Vermont, and his education was obtained while struggling with poverty. In 1840 he was graduated from Middlebury College. He went South as a teacher, and delivered his first lectures on Shakspere at Huntsville, Ala. Four years later he went to Boston and lectured there and in other large cities. For three years he was editor of the *Churchman* in this city. His first edition of Shakspere appeared in 1851, and has been very popular. He did other critical work, especially on Wordsworth. For twenty years past he has lived at Cambridge, and has prepared many text-books.

The Rev. Benjamin Currey died on Saturday, near Peekskill, N. Y., at the age of eighty seven. He lived on the same farm in Westchester Coun-

ty all his life. Early in life he became a Methodist preacher. For thirty years before the war he was active in the so-called underground railway for helping fugitive slaves. He was a fearless abolitionist, and when that question was settled became a temperance advocate.

Miss Bayard, eldest daughter of the Secretary of State, died suddenly on Saturday afternoon.

FOREIGN.

The new members of Parliament were sworn in on Wednesday. The Speaker permitted Mr. Bradlaugh to take the oath.

Queen Victoria on Monday sent her private secretary with a letter to Mr. Gladstone on the Irish question. The royal speech was drafted at the meeting of the Cabinet on Monday. Lord Randolph Churchill overcame the demand of a section of the Cabinet that the whole Coercion Act be renewed. The Government will rely upon a division of the Liberals to secure support of its Irish proposals. It is also asserted that the Government will at the earliest moment introduce a bill in Parliament making boycotting a felony, enlarging magistrates' powers of summary jurisdiction, and otherwise strengthening the Criminal Law. Parliament will be asked either to regulate or suppress the National League.

Deputations from the various branches of the Loyal and Patriotic Union waited on Lord Salisbury, the Premier, on Tuesday, and urged that a stern enforcement of the law accompany any concession granted to the Nationalists by the Government. The Loyalists were arrogant and dictatorial in their address, which so offended Lord Salisbury that he dismissed them with a very short speech, instead of the long political address which was expected. The Loyalists were chagrined. It is reported that Mr. Gladstone will deny that he ever proposed an Irish Parliament. Ulster Loyalists are indignant because he has refused to receive a deputation of their number.

The London *Times* on Saturday morning recognized that the Irish question must receive the immediate attention of the new Parliament. In a spirited leading article it urged the necessity of the Conservative party at once facing the issue. It says the Conservatives cannot shirk or postpone decisive action. If they attempt to remain in office without making a vigorous effort to grapple with the Irish difficulty, it will react in their prompt and unequivocal condemnation. Universal scorn will be their portion if they give their opponents a chance to overthrow them without staking their existence on a bold defence of the Union. Such a course would be worse than a blunder—it would be crime. The Government should not hesitate to challenge the verdict of the House of Commons on the question of home rule. It cannot be doubted that they would obtain an immense majority in favor of maintaining the integrity of the empire.

The *Daily News* says that the Government contemplates a *coup d'état* in Ireland, and that General Lord Wolseley will be appointed to command the military forces there; but this has been denied.

The Earl of Carnarvon, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, will soon resign. The Viceroyship will be left in commission, with Lord Ashbourne, Lord Chancellor of Ireland, presiding at the Castle.

The Dublin *United Ireland* attributes the intended resignation of the Earl of Carnarvon to his reluctance to abet wholesale evictions contemplated by the Government, which will render the Irish desperate. It implores the Cabinet to look before it leaps and not adopt coercive remedies, as the people will not submit tamely to being robbed of their homes.

Great distress prevails in many parts of Ireland, especially among the inhabitants of Achill and Eagle Island. Lord Carnarvon says that his sole reliance for affording relief to the starving people is the limited means at his disposal of sending the unfortunates to the workhouse. He, however, hopes that private contributions for the relief of the sufferers will enable the poor people to remain in their homes instead of being compelled to seek shelter in the already much overcrowded workhouses.

A condition of great alarm exists in Dublin commercial circles, owing to reasonable fears regarding an extensive boycotting system which, it is thought, will soon be inaugurated.

Monday's *Pall Mall Gazette* says there is no foundation whatever for the rumors now current that the Government will resign immediately on the reassembling of Parliament.

It is asserted on good authority that Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues have become reconciled; that Earls Spencer and Granville, the Earl of Derby, the Marquis of Hartington, and Sir William Vernon-Harcourt have all given their assent to a course of tactics suggested by Mr. Gladstone, and that the ex-Premier will take the first chance to overthrow the Conservative Government.

The Duke of Bedford writes to the *London Times* as follows: "There is a growing belief that Mr. Gladstone seeks to abandon the loyal Irish to the dominion of the disloyal. This obliges me to ask myself whether the party allegiance to which I have ever adhered is not strained to the breaking point. Many Liberals besides myself are eager for assurance to the contrary."

The Parnellites will join with English and Scotch Radicals in supporting an amendment to the address, protesting against evictions in Ireland and in the Highlands among the crofters.

Lord Salisbury has consented to recognize China as nominal suzerain over Burmah, on condition that the Pekin Government abandon its claim to tribute from Burmah, and open the Chinese frontier to British traders at 5 per cent. ad valorem duties, except on opium.

The British Minister at Lima has been instructed to recognize the existing Peruvian Government upheld by Caceres.

The Direct Cable Company's report shows that the receipts have decreased $150,000 during the past six months, and attributes the decrease to the reduction in the tariff and to competition.

Mr. Stead, editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, was released from prison on Monday.

Prince Bismarck has received despatches fully confirming the reported seizure of Samoa. The British Consul in Samoa telegraphs: "Commander Weber has driven the King from the seat of government. Weber hauled down the King's flag, a force from the *Albatross* assisting. The King was insulted. The British and American Consuls entered a solemn protest. Their presence alone prevented a massacre of the Germans. War is imminent. A report is current that Germany will annex Samoa."

Bismarck has officially assured Lord Salisbury that Germany will neither annex Samoa nor permanently interfere with the government of the islands.

A sensation has been created by the publication of the letter from Prince Bismarck to the Pope acknowledging the receipt of the decoration of the Order of Christ recently conferred on the German Chancellor by his Holiness. It says: "Your kind letter and decoration have greatly gratified the Emperor William and myself." It then goes on to state that the Pope's words that the Papacy means to practise the works of peace, first suggested to Prince Bismarck the idea of seeking the mediation of his Holiness in the Carolines question, and, in deference to his faith and confidence in the Pope's elevated views and impartiality, he selected the Pope as the arbiter of the dispute. Germany and Spain have no cause to complain of the terms of the protocol, and the effect of the mediation will be lasting. Prince Bismarck will not neglect chances to attest his lively gratitude, highest devotion, and deepest respect for his Holiness in the future.

Emperor William opened the Prussian Diet on Thursday. In his speech his Majesty said: "I am grateful for the love and fidelity of my people, and for the benevolent sympathy which has been extended to me from foreign countries. Our foreign relations are friendly, and support fully our belief that the peace of Europe is sure to continue."

Another German-American has been expelled from a Prussian town.

President Grévy has signed a decree granting amnesty to persons convicted of political offences since 1870, and reducing the sentences of many offenders against the common law.

President Grévy's message was sent to the French Chambers on Thursday. "A republic," he says, "is the form of government necessary for France, in view of the importance and divisions of its opponents." M. Le Royer has been reëlected President of the Senate by a majority of 24.

M. de Freycinet, the Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs, in the Chamber of Deputies on Saturday, said that the new Cabinet's colonial policy would be less adventurous than that of its recent predecessors. This statement was received with cheers.

M. de Lesseps has written to the Marseilles and other principal Chambers of Commerce, asking them to appoint delegates to accompany him to Panama, for which place he will start on January 28.

M. Taine has been forbidden by his doctors to continue mental labor.

Paul Jacques Aimé Baudry, the French artist, is dead at the age of fifty-seven. He was the son of an artisan. Success came to him rapidly. In 1850 he obtained the Grand Prix de Rome for his painting, "Zenobia Discovered on the Banks of the Araxes." In 1857, when he exhibited in the Salon "The Punishment of a Vestal," "Fortune and the Child," and "Leda," he had established his fame. Since then he has painted about 200 pictures.

Greece and Servia are negotiating for an alliance against Bulgaria.

Greece has declined to disarm. The Ministry threatened the King that they would resign unless he assented to an alliance with Servia and the maintenance of the army on a war footing.

A war fever is again raging in Servia. The Government at Belgrade has summoned the second ban, and has ordered another 20,000,000 of cartridges, eighteen batteries, and several machine guns. The Austrian Government is keeping a squadron in Greek waters. An improbable rumor was circulating in London on Tuesday that Russia is to occupy Bulgaria, Austria to march an army corps into Servia, and Great Britain to be asked to force Greece to lay down her arms. Bulgaria, however, has consented to disarm if Servia will. Turkey is also more tractable.

Amilcare Ponchielli, the composer, is dead, in his fifty-second year. Ponchielli is known in this country chiefly through his "Gioconda," one of the operas in which Nilsson appeared in the first season at the Metropolitan Opera-house. He was, next to Verdi and Boïto, the most gifted of contemporary Italian composers. He was born in 1831, near Cremona, and made his début as a dramatic composer in 1856 with "I Promessi Sposi." His first special success was won at Milan, in 1872, with his first opera. Thereupon he was engaged by the Scala management to write a ballet, "Le due Gemelle," which also had great success. In the same city his "Gioconda" had its first performance in 1876. His last opera, "Il Figluol Prodigo," was first sung in 1880, and was also very favorably received.

THE TELEPHONE CASE.

THE view we should take of Secretary Lamar's decision to have the validity of the Bell telephone patent tested in the courts depends very largely upon our standpoint. If, as the Secretary seems to assume, and as a lawyer might naturally assume, the mind of the judge in such a case is to be *tabula rasa* on which the contending parties may freely write their arguments and impress their evidence, it is quite possible that the judge might see only that conflict of evidence on which the Secretary's conclusion is based. The result of the Star-route trials is an example of how a long and tedious argument about very simple facts may confuse rather than inform the mind. If a man could secure a fortune by making it appear debatable whether the Washington Monument might not talk, he would undoubtedly succeed. Hardly would the hearing be commenced before scores of people would be found who, in the still of night or the hum of day, had heard aerial voices proceeding from the Monument, which could not be accounted for without supposing that object to possess the power of speech. A perfectly unbiassed judge, with no prejudices of his own on the subject, listening attentively for two months to the evidence and arguments on both sides, would undoubtedly find the views very conflicting; unless, indeed, he should reach the decision that the talking power of the Monument had been fully established. But if we suppose the judge to possess beforehand some common-sense ideas of physical principles, and some knowledge of the world, then Mr. Lamar's conclusion is simply amazing, and we apprehend has surprised no one more than the plaintiffs themselves.

What gives his decision interest is not merely the historical and personal question of priority of invention, but the fact that the conclusion insures the success of one of the worst stock-jobbing schemes now before the public. The stock in trade of the companies on whose motion the suit is brought consists of a paper capital of several millions of dollars, and a few patents, of insignificant value, which they probably never intend to use. Before the courts, a suit instituted by and in the name of the United States is invested with such dignity that all injunctions against infringements of Bell's patent may remain undecided or inoperative until the case is finally settled. The result is that the companies have a fair chance of getting the use of Bell's invention for a period of perhaps three years—as long, in fact, as they are able to stave off a final decision. This prospect will enable the projectors to dispose of their paper capital on terms extremely remunerative to themselves. The grounds on which they are allowed to enjoy this advantage on the motion and at the expense of the Government are therefore worthy of very careful consideration. What we have to say on the subject is founded mainly upon the bill of complaint filed by the prosecution, supplemented by the well-known facts of the case.

Stripping the bill of all its verbiage, repetition, and incongruities, we find its gravamen to be contained in the following propositions:

1. That the examiner who passed upon the patent did not know that the invention was to be claimed as a speaking telephone, but supposed it to be only a method of harmonic multiplex telegraphy.

2. That a caveat having been filed by Elisha Gray on the same day that Bell made his application, the latter was allowed to see the caveat, and, in consequence, changed his application so as to cover ground which belonged to Gray.

3. That the speaking telephone was really the invention of Philip Reis, and was therefore public property before Bell's patent was issued.

We omit the claim that Bell fraudulently neglected to instruct the examiner in electrical and telephonic science, as one tending only to make the plaintiff's case appear ridiculous. We also omit the question of Gray's rights in the case, because the suit is not brought for Gray's benefit, but only for that of the public.

The first claim of the prosecution might seem at the first glance to have some foundation, from the fact that the word "telephone" had not come into general use, and that Bell therefore described his invention as a system of telegraphy. But a reading of his description shows that the speaking telephone was described so plainly and fully as to admit of no possibility of doubt or mistake. Even had the examiner misapprehended the invention, that alone would not invalidate the patent. Where would litigation end if the validity of every patent depended upon the state of mind of the Patent Office officials when they passed upon the inventions?

The second point is that Bell made use of his fraudulently acquired knowledge of Gray's caveat to amend his own description. If any evidence to prove this was adduced by the prosecution, we have not seen or heard of it. All necessity for looking up any such evidence is, however, done away with by the fact that no essential change was made by Bell in his description, and no alteration in or addition to his claim. The addition consists only in a fuller explanation of the difference between what he called undulatory and pulsatory currents, and added absolutely nothing to the invention. It is one of the many singular inconsistencies in the plaintiff's case that in some passages this very distinction, which they claim to have been borrowed from Gray, is denounced as a worthless pretence.

We now come to what is really the main point of the prosecution, that there was nothing essentially new in Bell's invention, and that his claim of an improvement on Reis's instrument, by substituting an undulatory for a pulsatory current, was a fraudulent pretence. Here we reach the question whether common sense and understanding of the subject are to be presupposed in the judicial mind. If we presuppose them, then the claim that the Reis telephone could speak is hardly more tenable, and is not supported by any more evidence, than the speaking power of the Washington Monument would be if the question of its existence were before a court. The Reis telephone sent electric pulsations through a wire; but these pulsations were all of one kind, and could produce at the end of the wire only a musical note of high or low pitch, like the sound of a tuning-fork. Such an apparatus never could talk, unless by the merest accident. Bell's invention consisted in giving the electrical undulations the same form as the sound waves emitted in human speech. The difference between the two inventions was neither more nor less than the difference between speech and noise. The validity of Bell's patent as against previous claims of Reis has been so often sustained by the courts that it can no longer be considered an open question.

On what grounds was an application granted when the reasons for it were so entirely untenable? We look in vain for an answer to this question in Mr. Lamar's communication. He enters into no discussion of the arguments, the law, or the evidence so far as this particular case is concerned, and indeed expressly excuses himself from forming or expressing any opinion upon the merits of the case. He does not even say what fraudulent act or what kind of collusion seems to him to have been possible, nor explain how ignorance on the part of the Patent Office could have made fraud on the part of a patentee. Granting all the facts claimed by the prosecution, except the incident of Gray's caveat, of which we have shown the utter groundlessness, no case would be made out except that the Commissioner of Patents blundered into issuing a patent for a well-known invention; a wrong which can be speedily corrected by ordinary legal proceedings. The amusing attempt to show that this supposed blunder was due to fraud on Bell's part is of a kind which would be laughed out of any court in the world; the fraud, consisting not only in neglecting to give the examiner scientific information, but in describing to the Commissioner of Patents a crude and worthless device in order to evade his vigilance, and, when the patent was granted, claiming that the device was a telephone. Mr. Cleveland's Administration has made no greater mistake than that of giving Government support to this ridiculous pretence.

THE SENATE AND THE REMOVALS.

IF the report of the Washington correspondent of the *Herald* is to be believed, the Republican Senators agreed, in their consultation on Friday, to subpœna the Cabinet officers to bring with them any papers they may have which will aid in the inquiries about removals which they are setting on foot, but admitted that if the Cabinet officers said the President had the papers, the Senate would be powerless as against him. This is comprehensible. What is not comprehensible is the following further report of the correspondent:

"It was the general opinion in this consultation that, as the President had publicly and often professed a determination to retain in office during their regular terms all capable and proper men and to remove only improper men, these public engagements gave the Senate the right and duty to see to it that proper and capable men are not removed—that, in fact, the President has been and remains faithful to his engagements. If the President will say publicly that he has not found it expedient or possible to keep his promises in this regard, but has, in fact, removed Republicans because they were Republicans, and appointed in their places Democrats because they were Democrats, and for political reasons, in that case the Republican Senators will, they say, at once confirm every nomination he has made. But they say that their object is, and their determination is, to ascertain whether the President has lived up to his public promises in regard to the civil service, or whether—while still professing

loudly—he has in practice violated these promises and become no better than a publican and a sinner. Republican Senators assert that he has so broken his public promises; and they say that it is important to the cause of public morality to show this."

According to this story, the Senate is, in doing its work in the matter of confirmation, to take its cue from the President himself. If he says he is trying to put fit men in office, and no others, it is going to overhaul all his nominations with much severity; but if he says that he is appointing men to office because they are Democrats simply, and without caring whether they are fit or not, then it is going to confirm every nomination he sends in without question. In other words, the Senators are not going to force the President to raise the standard in making selections for office one inch higher than he pleases. On the contrary, they encourage him, according to this story, to keep it as low as possible by assuring him that the lower he makes it, the more completely he disregards the interests of the public service in making his nominations, the easier will he find it to get them confirmed.

We are reluctant to believe that the Republican Senators have taken any such ground. A more degrading proposal to prostitute their office was probably never made by any portion, however small, of a respectable public body, than the foregoing would be. The Senators are bound to have a theory of their own about the proper mode of filling public offices. They have a duty in the matter as well as the President. The more openly he declares that he is filling them on partisan grounds, the more careful should they be to see that, nominating on such grounds, he is not disregarding the public interests. They are not charged with the duty of seeing that the President is consistent, or that his practice accords with his professions unless the professions show that the efficiency of the public service is his first concern. The Constitution did not bestow the power of confirmation on the Senate to be used in exposing the President's weakness or folly, but for the purpose of protecting the public against its consequences.

The Senate, in exercising its share in the appointing power, is bound, we take it, by every consideration of duty and policy, to assume that the President means to live up to the professions of his letter to the Civil-Service Reform League, and to examine his nominations from that standpoint. To demand from him his reasons for making removals they have plainly no right. He may give them if he pleases, but if he refuses, the Senators cannot complain. But it is their bounden duty to see that his nominees are fit for the places to which they are nominated. About this they can learn all they please through their constitutional powers of investigation. They can send for the man who has been removed, and find out how he did his work, and all he knows about the causes of his removal. They can send for the man nominated and learn all he has to say in support of his claims to the place, and they have a perfect right to be guided in acting on the nominations by the information thus acquired.

Moreover, there can be only one reason for their reluctance or failure to adopt this course—and that is their fear that, in setting up a high standard of Presidential selection, they would be dealing a death-blow to the system of Senatorial bargaining and log-rolling which is a large part of all the corruption there is in the Federal service. To insist on the President's treating public office as a public trust, is to bind the Senate to support him in so doing, and this for only too many Senators would be robbing their office of more than half its sweetness. But this is what the public now expect of it. They want the Senate to see as far as in it lies that the President lives up to his brave words. They will not object to his being plagued or harried by the Senate for this purpose, but they will strongly object to his being plagued or harried for any other. The time has long gone by when people would witness with equanimity a struggle between the Senators and the President over a division of the spoils. The Republicans cannot get back into power on that tack. They can only get back, in these days, by promising purer administration, and in such a way that the country will believe them.

FEDERAL AID TO EDUCATION.

THE revelations of illiteracy in the South made by the last national census produced a profound impression upon the country. Government in the United States is wielded by millions of voters, and the success of such a system obviously depends upon the intelligence of these voters. Every ignorant ballot is a threat to the community, and government by suffrage, where a majority of those who enjoy the suffrage cannot read the ballots which they cast, violates the very theory upon which our whole system is based.

Yet it was shown in 1880 that in a number of Southern States nearly or quite half of the voters were illiterate. About three-fifths of South Carolina's population are negroes, and 78 per cent. of the male negroes were unable to write their own names, while 16 per cent. of the male whites were as badly off, making 52 per cent. of the whole number of both races. Mississippi, with nearly as large a proportion of negroes, was in almost as alarming a condition, 76 per cent. of her male negroes and nearly 12 per cent. of her male whites being unable to write, or about 47 per cent. of all her voters. Louisiana's population is almost equally divided between the two races; of her negro voters 80 per cent. and of her white voters 15 per cent., being 47 per cent of all of both colors, were illiterate. In Alabama the proportion reached 46 per cent., and in Georgia 45, while there was not a single State of the States in the "black belt" where the ratio of ignorant voters was not so large as to justify the most serious apprehensions. Of course such a state of things could not continue permanently without grave danger to the republic.

As they emerged from the destitution in which they were left by the war, and the only less disheartening period of corrupt carpet-bag rule, and consequent race hostility, the Southern States began to develop a public-school system. But the States were still poor, the mass of ignorance was vast, and progress was slow. It was plausibly urged that the exigency was so pressing that outside assistance must be furnished, and that the Federal Government ought to come to the rescue of the South. The assertion that such action would be unconstitutional was to be met by allowing all the States to share in the appropriations, while the expenditure of the largest share in the South was to be insured by making the amount allowed each State depend upon the number of illiterates. These arguments proved effectual to secure the passage by the Senate in the Forty-eighth Congress of what is known as the Blair bill, proposing to appropriate over $100,000,000 during a period of ten years for distribution among the States upon this basis. The bill went through the upper branch by a vote of 3 to 1, 20 Republicans and 13 Democrats supporting the measure and 9 Democrats and 2 Republicans opposing it; but it was never taken up in the House, and lapsed with the end of the session.

Senator Blair has reintroduced the bill, and another strong effort will be made to secure its enactment in the present Congress. The majority in its favor was so strong in the last Senate that there is little question of its passing the upper branch again, and its friends profess confidence that a majority can be secured for it in the House. Not only for its immediate consequences, but also, and much more, for its far-reaching bearing upon the relations of the Government to the States, the proposition is perhaps the most important which will come before the present Congress.

The plea in favor of the bill, as we have said, is plausible, but we believe that it is fallacious, because it takes a short-sighted view of the future. Illiteracy is a bad thing for a community, but it is not the worst thing. It is important for the South that its present ignorance should be dispelled as soon as possible, but that is not the most important thing for the South. The vital element of any success that is worth achieving in this world is self-reliance. The man who works his own way to an education may not acquire it as soon or get as good an education as one who receives it at the hands of charity, but it will be worth a great deal more to him, and he will be worth a great deal more to the community. The same principle holds as true for the State as for the individual. The American colonies developed into infinitely stronger commonwealths by reason of having to make their own way in the world than they ever could have become by the most fostering care of the mother country.

What was true a hundred years ago is true to-day. Illiteracy in the South is a terrible evil, and its removal will be a vast work. The burden must be a heavy one for the South to bear, and it would be temporarily a great relief to unload a share of it upon the broad shoulders of the general Government, but the education of its coming voters is the first duty of an American commonwealth. It is not the business of the general Government, and nothing could be more demoralizing to a State than the assumption of its own duty, in whole or in part, by the authorities at Washington. Undoubtedly more Southern voters will be able to read ten years hence if the Federal Government expends $100,000,000 upon Southern schools, but the South can much better afford to have fewer intelligent voters ten years hence than to have purchased their education at the expense of its own self-reliance and self-respect.

The truth is that the Southern States are

already proving their capacity to grapple with this problem alone. Take for example South Carolina, which was in the most desperate condition. In 1874, under carpet-bag rule, there were only 110,416 pupils in her public schools. In 1884 the number had increased to 185,619. In Mississippi the number of pupils rose from 166,204 in 1876 to 266,996 in 1883. In Florida ten years increased the annual roll of scholars from 20,911 to 58,311. There is not a State where the gain has not been most gratifying. In most commonwealths the percentage of children of the school age who attend school already approaches that in the North—being, for instance, 65 per cent. in South Carolina and 68 per cent. in Maine—and the defects of the educational system are that the teachers are not so good and the terms not so long. But these defects can be overcome by the growing prosperity of the South, which will enable the States to raise more money for the schools. It must be remembered that the South has but just begun to realize the possibilities of her future under freedom. Every year will find her able to do more for education than the year before. At first the whites had to bear the expense of teaching both races, but already in Georgia the blacks pay into the Treasury most of what is spent upon colored schools.

Northern philanthropy may well contribute to the work of education in the South—the more Peabody and Slater funds, the better. But let not the nation make the fatal mistake of teaching the South to depend upon the Federal Government for the maintenance of its schools, and thus to lose that quality of self-reliance which no amount of education to short order can make up for. The best friends of the South are those Southerners who recognize the folly of this short-sighted policy. The North feels generously toward the South; it is in danger of yieldng hastily to its first impulse in this matter. The most effective opposition can be made by Southern men who base their opposition upon the right ground. Ex-Governor Chamberlain, of South Carolina, who himself stoutly opposes the Blair bill, not only for its unconstitutionality but also for its wrong principle, quotes the words of one such Southerner, an ex-slaveholder and ex-Confederate soldier, who puts the strongest argument against the Blair bill in this most forcible style:

"You know my deep interest in the public-school system. Hence I am opposed to national aid. You cannot *plaster* the South with this system. It is a growth, and its certain and healthy growth can only be secured by *each community providing for its own schools.* The Blair bill is simply, in another form, the old hallucination, 'fifty acres and a mule,' which has caused more briers and sassafras bushes to grow in Southern fields than all else!"

PROHIBITION VS. HIGH LICENSE.

THE renewed attempt to secure a high-license law from the New York Legislature renders peculiarly timely any fresh study of the operation of that system, in contrast with the workings of prohibition, in other parts of the country. A letter which was published in the *Evening Post* of Friday, portrayed the situation under prohibition in Kansas, while the *Christian Union* of last week presented a mass of valuable testimony regarding the state of things in Iowa, which, like Kansas, has a prohibitory law, and in Illinois, where a high-license system has been tried for some years. These are three representative States of the West, and the East ought to learn something from their experience.

The *Christian Union* recently addressed to its subscribers in Iowa and Illinois a circular letter asking what had been the effect of prohibition in the former State, and of high license in the latter, on the number and character of the saloons and the amount of drinking, drunkenness, and disorder. The replies from Iowa may be divided into two classes—those from the villages and small towns, and those from the large towns and cities. Correspondents living in the former places as a rule report that the prohibitory law is working well, but not a few of them confess that there never were any saloons in their neighborhoods before there was a prohibitory law. Public sentiment formerly forbade the liquor traffic, and naturally continues to do so now. On the other hand, the reports from large towns and cities almost uniformly represent that more liquor is sold and more men get drunk under prohibition than under the former license system. A few of the answers from such places are worth quoting:

Des Moines (population in 1880, 22,408).—Under license law 66 saloons; under prohibition 250; more sly drinking.

Dubuque (population, 22,254).—Last year 124 saloons; to-day City Marshal's list gives 143; city licenses read, "For keeping a saloon"; fully as much drinking.

Davenport (population, 21,831).—Increase from 20 to 30 per cent in number of saloons; new saloons of a worse character; amount of drinking increased; the law worse than a failure.

Burlington (population, 19,450). — Number of saloons more than double; character worse; drunkenness and disorder increased.

Council Bluffs (population, 18,063).—No effect from the law; under the so-called "Pop" ordinances—by which saloons are allowed to sell liquors not prohibited by law and not disturbed in selling what they please—licenses have been granted indiscriminately at low figures.

Keokuk (population, 12,117).—Liquor to-day sold as freely and openly as ever heretofore. The Marshal's report shows quarterly a great amount of drunkenness and disorder.

In short, a year and a half of experiment with the prohibitory law in Iowa conclusively proves that it cannot be enforced in cities and large towns, which are the very places where restrictions upon the liquor traffic are most imperatively demanded.

Kansas has fewer cities and a smaller foreign element than Iowa, so that the conditions were even more favorable to the Prohibitionists; yet the correspondent of the *Evening Post* shows that in the larger towns of Kansas the law is almost as much a farce as in similar places in Iowa. The provision by which a druggist may sell liquor to anybody, upon the customer's own certificate that he needs it "for medical purposes," is most demoralizing to druggists and public alike. Although liquor is not sold in most of the villages, this fact is not due to the law, but to the public sentiment, which, without the aid of a prohibitory statute, had previously forbidden the traffic, while in the cities there appears to be quite as much drunkenness as ever.

Contrast the condition of these two prohibitory States with that of Illinois, which has for some time had a high-license law, with a minimum fee of $500 for general liquor-selling, and a local-option clause that allows towns to increase the amount to any figure or prohibit the sale altogether. One-sixth of the whole population of Illinois is contained within the city limits of Chicago, and the *Christian Union's* correspondents from that city, with the exception of one opinionated Prohibitionist who "can see nothing but evil in any license system," agree that the high fee has reduced the number of saloons by several hundreds, the decrease being especially marked among those of the worst class, and that there is less drunkenness than formerly. If the investigation had been made a little later, official figures of the most convincing character might have been cited to support the impression of intelligent observers as to the workings of the system. The city Tax Collector has just issued a statement showing the number of saloon licenses issued for the last half dozen years, from which it appears that in 1882, before the high-license law was passed, there were 3,919 saloons, while in 1885 there were only 3,075 for a population probably a fifth larger, and the smaller number pay into the treasury $1,721,474, against only $195,490 for the larger number. Most of the smaller cities make similarly favorable reports, this from Rock Island being a fair sample: "Under low license, 84 saloons; under high license, 53; low groggeries rooted out; 30 per cent. less drunkenness and disorder."

More than one-third of the population of New York State is found in the cities of New York and Brooklyn, and the smaller municipalities bring up the proportion of the inhabitants who live in cities to nearly half of the whole number. Every intelligent and candid person knows that prohibition cannot be enforced in a single one of these cities. There is no way of preventing all sale of liquor, but it is possible and feasible to put limits upon the traffic, and to make it bear some share of the burdens which it brings upon the State. The one practicable way of reaching this result is to impose a high license, which not only diminishes the number of saloons, but makes every licensee from self-interest alert to prevent the breaking of the law, and the consequent injury to his own interests, by unlicensed sellers.

AMERICOMANIA IN ENGLISH POLITICS.

OXFORD, December 28, 1885.

AN American observer who should now revisit England after an absence of from twenty to twenty-five years could not fail to be struck with a singular change in English sentiment toward the institutions of his country. From 1860 to 1865 all the well-to-do classes and (what is of far more consequence) all the thinkers and writers of England looked unfavorably on the political and social condition of America. The Union was often held up for the instruction, for the warning, for the reproof of Englishmen. It was rarely, except by one small body of politicians, mentioned with admiration or respect. Democracy, we were told, had broken down, and American experience bore witness to its failure. The Union during the war of secession was described by Carlyle in his peculiar language as the "dirtiest chimney which has ever got set on fire." The prevailing impression of reasonable Whigs was that the political arrangements of the United States were at best cheap and nasty, and at worst

nasty without being cheap. Even theorists so favorable to every form of freedom as was John Stuart Mill or Grote seemed more than half to doubt whether political liberty was not in America purchased at the price of intellectual servility or uniformity, and certainly dwelt at least as strongly on the supposed subjection of Americans to the tyranny of the majority as on their certain exemption from all the more palpable forms of despotism. The ideas of the day were summed up in the constantly expressed determination that the English Constitution should not be "Americanized," and the most telling of the taunts aimed at John Bright was that he wished to introduce into England the habits and institutions of the United States. No doubt Bright himself and the small and then unpopular party which he led eulogized transatlantic republicanism. Even his praise, however, was in one sense negative. What he admired was the absence of evils, or supposed evils, which he saw existing around him. I can still remember the fervent applause with which a meeting of sympathizers with the North hailed his description of a "country where they had no State Church, no hereditary peerage, no emperor, no king." But indomitable as was his bravery in forcing upon the minds of his countrymen the grandeur of the great republic, and keen as was his insight into the moral aspects of the life-and-death struggle between freedom and slavery, it may be doubted whether the specific institutions, the constitutional mechanism, so to speak, of the United States ever excited very keen interest in the mind of John Bright, or received from him very careful examination.

Be this as it may, Bright was in 1860 a prophet, preaching only to the people, who repelled rather than guided the sentiment of average well-to-do Englishmen. The contrast between the current opinions of 1885 and 1860 is as marked as it is striking. Radicalism, as represented by Mr. Chamberlain or Sir Charles Dilke, has ceased to occupy itself deeply with America. A nation whose habits and polity are based upon individual freedom, and whose Constitution guarantees respect for the sanctity of contracts, does not in any sense realize the ideals of statesmen who hope, rightly or not, to accomplish great things for the mass of the people by means of the intervention of the State. It is not for a moment, of course, to be denied that there are many things in American institutions—as, for example, the absence throughout the Union of any State Church, and the establishment of free schools—which command the sympathy of English Radicals. Yet a very slight knowledge of America shows that it is not the land in which Socialism can flourish, and it is not to be expected that men who uphold theories which are more or less Socialistic should look with the same partiality on the United States as was naturally displayed by reformers like Bright and Cobden, who, but for the non-recognition of free-trade doctrines, might consider the Union (when delivered from slavery) to have satisfied the aspirations of the Manchester school. If, however, the United States no longer command the exclusive affection of English Radicals, the institutions of the Union now excite something like hopeless admiration on the part of thoughtful Conservatives. Whoever doubts this should read with care Sir Henry Maine's 'Popular Government.' He should note, also, the letters on the English Constitution and home rule which appear in the *Times*. Any one who does this will perceive that the current of Conservative speculation has changed its direction, and he may rest well assured that politicians will sooner or later follow the guidance of thinkers. The plain truth is, that educated Englishmen are slowly learning that the American republic affords the best example of a conservative democracy; and now that England is becoming democratic, respectable Englishmen are beginning to consider whether the Constitution of the United States may not afford means by which, under new democratic forms, may be preserved the political conservatism dear and habitual to the governing classes of England.

A person skilful in drawing out antitheses might easily pen any number of sentences pointing out, in a more or less satirical form, the apparent contradiction between the Conservative sentiment of 1860 and the Conservative sentiment of 1885. But the general course of opinion is, under all apparent inconsistencies, never really self-contradictory. It is easy enough to harmonize the dislike of Americanism which prevailed twenty-five years ago with the Americomania of the present day. As long as it seemed possible to repel the inroads of democracy, English Conservatives naturally opposed all Americanization of the Constitution. Now that a democratic form of government is all but established in England, English Conservatives as naturally turn their eyes toward the United States, to see if they can borrow from the other side of the Atlantic devices for guiding democratic progress in an orderly and conservative direction. That this is the true explanation of the care and sympathy with which the American polity is at this moment investigated by English thinkers, is clear enough to any one who notes the points in your institutions which are singled out by English writers for admiration or respect. The President, they allege, occupies a position far more independent of temporary changes in public opinion than a Prime Minister; the Senate wields powers and exercises an influence never claimed or exerted by the House of Lords. Not the most trifling article in the Constitution of the United States can be changed without the most deliberate assent and the most lengthy consideration on the part of the American people; while it is at any rate conceivable that within a month or two, without any reference to the electors of Great Britain, the English Parliament might dissolve the union with Ireland or turn the United Kingdom into something like a Federal monarchy. The question, in fact, of the day is with many Englishmen rapidly becoming whether expiring Toryism may not, by alterations of the Constitution, be changed into Democratic Conservatism.

In another letter I may attempt to give some sort of answer to this inquiry. It is well, however, before considering how far any of the specific institutions of America can be transplanted to England, to weigh carefully a consideration which often apparently escapes the attention of those who propose reforms in our Constitution. The basis of the American polity is general acquiescence in the fundamental principle of democratic government, which, turn the matter as you will, is at bottom nothing more nor less than loyal submission to the will of the majority: the essence of a democracy is the rule of numbers. This rule may be, and, as every man of common sense must confess, often is, unenlightened, dull, and (occasionally) oppressive. But no one is really a democrat who does not hold that on the whole it is best in a given state or nation that the will of the majority should be supreme. Now any man who wishes to develop democratic conservatism must honestly acquiesce in democratic government, and it is open to question whether such acquiescence exists at present among educated Englishmen. Theorists who propose constitutional innovations appear often to aim, though unconsciously, at two different objects. At one moment they propose to check or counterbalance the power possessed under the present Constitution by the majority of the electors. This would certainly appear to be one, at least, of the ends proposed to themselves by the fanatics or enthusiasts for the representation of minorities. The end proposed may or may not be good, or may or may not be attainable. But it assuredly is an end which cannot be attained without violating the fundamental principle of democratic government. At another moment our innovators propose schemes—such, for example, as changes in the constitution of the House of Lords or as limitations on the absolute sovereignty of Parliament—of which the avowed aim is not to restrain the influence of the majority, but to insure that the will of the majority shall in reality be supreme. This end may or may not be good or attainable, but it is an end perfectly consistent with the fullest belief or acquiescence in the principles of popular government. Now one thing appears to be perfectly certain: the Constitution has become in form, at least, democratic. The majority of the electors are nominally, at any rate, sovereign. Of this power they will not suffer themselves to be deprived by the most artful combinations devised by the most ingenious of doctrinaires; or (if this be not admitted) it is at least certain that whoever attempts to diminish the power of the democracy must do so openly and by appealing to anti-democratic feelings, and a policy of which this is the object receives no countenance from the example, and can derive no benefit from the imitation, of America. It is, however, possible that the English electors may countenance changes of which the true and sole aim is to give full effect to the deliberate will of the people. In considering what changes are calculated to produce this result, instruction of all kinds may be derived from studying the Constitution of the United States. The theorist, however, or statesman who hopes to derive any practical benefit from the transference to England of the safeguards by which American statesmanship has surrounded the action of democratic government, must before all things honestly accept American belief in the rule of the majority. Anglomania has before this led Continental revolutionists to erect unstable and disastrous polities, which have displayed all the forms while omitting the essential spirit of the English Constitution. There is no small risk that Americomania may produce as untoward results in England. The authority of the President, the dignity of the Senate, the limited powers of the houses of Congress, the difficulties in the way of changing constitutional laws—these and other checks placed by the founders of the Union on the hasty action of the American people excite the admiration of conservative theorists. It is not so certain that they admire or share that respect for the popular voice which, for bad or for good, constitutes the essential spirit of American republicanism.

A. V. Dicey.

Correspondence.

REMOVAL OF INDIAN AGENTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am a sincere admirer of the fearless and uncompromising justice with which President Cleveland has publicly righted certain open wrongs perpetrated upon the Indian. I welcomed the President's inaugural declaration in respect to the Indian, and still believe that it is the expression of his honest purpose and genuine conviction. It is therefore in no partisan or fault-finding spirit that I desire to call attention to what is, in my judgment, a most grave and far-reaching error in the Indian policy of the present Administration. I refer to the sweeping changes which have been and are being made in the Indian service—the great number

of them for purely political reasons. Apart from clerical and other changes in the Indian Office at Washington, about 60 per cent. of the entire number of Indian agents have been removed by the present Administration, and their places filled chiefly, if not wholly, by men of the opposite political party. If these changes meant no more than the minor changes in other branches of the civil service, however we might regret or attack the system which induced them, we could not, perhaps, properly make them a subject of especial complaint. But under our peculiar, and in one sense critical, relations with the Indian, these changes rest upon an entirely different footing. They are not merely an unfortunate incident of the "spoils system": they are a direct and cruel mistake in the management of Indian affairs—an obstacle placed by his guardian in the hard path of the Indian's advancement.

These removals stand alone among minor changes, because an efficient Indian agent cannot be replaced as easily as an efficient clerk or accountant. The post of agent is one of singular difficulty. To fill it successfully demands a rare combination of qualities. A good agent must have firmness, courage, patience, sympathy, justice, tact; a knowledge of farming, of accounts, of the especial needs and disposition of the particular Indians committed to him. On the agent may depend not merely the order and progress of his Indians, but often the very lives and property of the adjoining whites. The loss of a capable agent whose experience has peculiarly qualified him for his work, who has won the confidence of the Indians by his personal contact with them, is an unmixed calamity. To check the advance of a tribe in the critical stage of its progress, that some place-hunter may be provided for, is indefensible from every point of view.

Let me anticipate the possible objection that these removals of agents are made for sufficient cause by one word more. While I do not doubt that in some instances this may have been the case, the facts that have come directly to my notice have served to strengthen the reasonable probability that such a general change of agents was largely uncalled for. It is impossible for me here to give instances in detail, but I could cite cases, as that of Major Gasman at Crow Creek and Sioux Brulé agencies, Dakota, where a careful examination of the facts shows conclusively that the removal was for purely political reasons. In Major Gasman's case it is likely to be as unfortunate in its results as it was unnecessary. In another case the new superintendent of an Indian school (who has since filled the places under him with members of his immediate family) announces that he came through "the mutations of politics." Without assuming that President Cleveland is the direct cause of these changes, he is certainly responsible for them. He stands before the country pledged to reform the civil service, and to pursue a just and enlightened Indian policy; in his needless removals in the Indian service he has violated the spirit of his civil-service doctrines, and has sacrificed the good of the Indians to party spirit. This is not the treatment of the Indian that "the conscience of the American people demands." HENRY S. PANCOAST.

PHILADELPHIA.

LAND COMMISSIONER SPARKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow from the Northwest a word of praise for Land Commissioner Sparks? I do not undertake to defend or condemn his course, but I do wish to state that I am firmly convinced that any Land Commissioner who does his duty faithfully, or tries to do so, will raise the same howl that we hear against Commissioner Sparks. As I write, there are neighbors on every side of me owning Dakota lands obtained under the Preëmption Law, and that without having spent a month at any one time in Dakota. The usual method is to furnish funds to some "dead beat," who complies with the requirements of the law and then transfers the title to his patron.

There may be some innocent sufferers in Dakota at the present time, but it is hard to believe that bona-fide settlers are injured to any great extent by delay in issuing patents. The "dead beat" and his patron have doubtless raised the howl. Moreover, I have lived long enough among the honest, industrious farmers of the Northwest to know that, as a rule, they do not do the howling against a man who is trying to protect them. The people have ample reason to complain, not against Land Commissioner Sparks, but against the railway monopoly which both buys and carries our grain. This complaint becomes louder and louder every year. Let me commend this just cause to the papers and disinterested citizens of the Northwest who desire to protect the farmer. FARMER.

ROCHESTER, MINN., January 12, 1886.

AMERICAN "SOVEREIGNTY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent review of Dicey's 'Law of the English Constitution,' you allude to a speculative question, the location of sovereignty in the United States. Permit me to say with more emphasis, what you seem to hint, that, with us, there is no such thing as sovereignty. Waiving Austin's definition so far as he denies to it generally a legal limitation, and admitting that it may exist, as the term is used, even with such limitation, it is sufficient to say that a state or people are sovereign when they have no political superior, have full powers in respect to all subjects of governmental jurisdiction.

In our own country there is no such state, no such people. The United States as a body politic—that is, its aggregate people—have supreme jurisdiction as to certain subjects; as to others each State—that is, its several people—is above them. The States individually, that is, their several people, have supreme jurisdiction as to some subjects, while as to others the Federal state, that is, the aggregate people, is above them. These are legal facts of every-day cognizance. So, then, the Federal state and its people—that is, the aggregate people—and also each local State and its people, as to important subjects of governmental jurisdiction have their superior, and hence are not sovereign. If sovereignty ever existed, it has been divided, destroyed, no matter how; it no longer exists, it cannot exist with the irrevocable loss of its necessary powers.

But if this loss is not irrevocable, if either the aggregate people or the several peoples can change their relation, can assume or redistribute powers, then its sovereignty is not destroyed. A state which has endowed local subdivisions, as counties or cities, with political powers, does not thereby lose its sovereignty, for those powers may be resumed. But were it to part forever with jurisdiction over important classes of subjects, giving it to another body politic without power of recall, its sovereignty is as dead as though it were a conquered state. It may still be called supreme, but only *pro tanto*.

I am aware that a class of thinkers, assuming that sovereignty must exist somewhere in unity, locate it in the aggregate people of the several States, because, by their action, governmental powers may be redistributed or consolidated. I can see no difference between the aggregate people of the several States and the aggregate people of the United States; there is no aggregate people except as represented by the Federal authorities, and as so represented they have no such power—they can only initiate changes. The independent action of the people of each State can in no just sense be called the action of the aggregate people—it is not aggregate action of an aggregate body, but several actions of the several bodies.

An act of sovereignty must be sufficient of itself. If the aggregate people, as forming a body politic, a Federal state, could as such people so act as to change the distribution of powers, it might do to call them sovereign so far as sovereignty can exist among men; but it is absurd to say that the independent action of the people of each local State, or of an agreed portion of them, is the action of such aggregate people, although invited by them.

Every people—that is, every organized political society—must be represented by a governmental agency or there is no such people, no such society; and, whatever the mode of deciding a political question, it acts alone through such agency. But the theory supposes that the aggregate people of the several States act, not alone through the Federal agency, the only agency responsible to the Federal people, whether we call them people of the several States or of the United States, but also through the independent agency of the people of each State—that is, through agencies which do not represent them and over which they have no control.

I prefer to say that there can be no sovereignty in the Federal, the aggregate, people, and much less can it be predicated of the several peoples of each State, unless they have power at will to dissolve their Federal relations, which I deny. In my view, sovereignty, as defined by Mr. Austin and his followers, cannot exist among men; and, as defined above, it cannot exist in a Federal state like ours. P. B.

STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBIA, MO.

ONE EFFECT OF OUR PENSION SWINDLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A few weeks ago I received by mail the enclosed printed circular and four copies of the enclosed card, addressed to me, as an attorney-at-law. The pen mark was drawn through the word "quietly" on each card, when received, just as you see it. The underscoring in red ink is mine.

That such matter should be sent openly to lawyers throughout the country is a painful indication of the effect upon public morals of reckless pension laws. And that it should be supposed that it could go unrebuked, causes one to blush for his calling, or rather for some who follow it.

The gentlemen who vouch for John Ambler Smith's honesty and trustworthiness ought to know to what use their testimonials are put.

Very truly yours,

N. L. ROBINSON.

CANTON, N. Y., January 16, 1886.

[The card and circular referred to by our correspondent are those of the "Hon." John Ambler Smith (as he is designated in the testimonials appended to his circular), a Washington attorney and prosecutor of all sorts of claims. The amended sentence on the card originally read, "Desertion mark quietly removed." Among his latest sponsors are Senators Blackburn, Hoar, Angus Cameron, Logan, and Allison; and of earlier date Congressmen Kelley, Hawley, Robeson, Proctor Knott, Beck etc.—ED. NATION.]

AN INTERNATIONAL PARCELS POST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is announced that the German Director of Posts has invited our Government to send an officer of the Post-office Department to Germany, to study the advantages that would accrue to us by joining the International Parcels Post.

Those who have lived abroad appreciate the great convenience and advantage of the easy transmission of objects from one country to another. We have never been willing to recognize this, but have built a sort of wall between ourselves and Europe by refusing every facility of the sort. To get a small parcel from Europe one must pay, first, an absurdly heavy freight charge to the steamer company, then a remarkable bill to the agents on this side, items of storage and cartage that in proportion to the size and weight of the little parcel are utterly absurd. A $3.00 charge for "brokerage" follows, and then the duty. This last one expects to pay in any case, but would wish to avoid the others and the interminable delays.

Those who desire this reform should make their wishes heard, or, as abuses are always profitable to somebody, it will have but poor chances of being effected. L.

THE KEILEY BLUNDER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The editorial article on "The Keiley Correspondence" in the *Nation* for December 17 is excellent so far as it goes, but it seems to me to leave untouched one very relevant point, which I note, however, without having seen the correspondence itself. I refer to the most important (and not less important because unalleged) reason why Austria could not receive Mr. Keiley. This reason was simply his previous rejection by Italy. The relations between these two Powers, whose frontiers are for so long a distance contiguous, are of a very strained character, notwithstanding the much-talked-of adhesion of Italy to the alliance of the two Emperors, and necessitate a constant exercise of the utmost diplomatic delicacy and tact. Nobody knows this better than the two Governments concerned; but, indeed, the fact is patent to every reader of current history, and ought to be well understood even in the State Department at Washington—our ever-blundering foreign office, into which, in general, only the crudest notions of foreign affairs appear to penetrate. On both sides of the Italo-Austrian border Irredentism still exists, and is continually breaking out in more or less violent eruptions despite the strong repressive measures of the authorities in Rome and Vienna. In the Italian cities the police do not yet succeed in preventing the scratching on the dead walls at night of anti-Austrian *sgraffiti* with the customary explanatory inscriptions, *Viva Oberdank* and *Abasso il colonello austriaco;* and only ten days ago, here in peaceful and moderate Florence, on the anniversary of Oberdank's execution (December 20), an effort to flood the streets and squares with a rabid Austrophobic manifesto was partially successful. As to the other side of the frontier, during some weeks spent the past summer in the Trentino, I heard of not a few arrests of enthusiastic *Italianissimi*, whose desire to sever their present allegiance to Austria had got the better of their prudence; while, at frequent intervals, the newspapers recount some new incident in the unceasing struggle between the Italian Common Council of Trieste and its Austrian superiors, or some new exhibition of Italian sentiment in the other Adriatic possessions of the empire.

Under these difficult circumstances the court of Vienna—unless it wishes to force a conflict with Italy—could assuredly not afford to receive as United States minister a man whose public utterances concerning Victor Emanuel and Italian unity had been so recently published in the journals of the Peninsula; for though the general good sense of the Italian press leads it to support the national Government in its efforts to restrain the inopportune and embarrassing Irredentist displays, yet it is not difficult to foresee that the reception of Mr. Keiley would have been treated by the soberest publicists as an utterly needless insult to their country. The consequences might, of course, have possibly been very serious to both the neighboring States. Count Kálnoky was certainly right in allowing this consideration to decide his action, although the dignity of the empire would not permit him to allege his real motive to a foreign Government. The Austrian Ministry would perhaps have done better to refrain from giving any reason whatever for the rejection of Mr. Keiley, resting its proceeding solely on the right inherent in every government to receive or to refuse to receive any particular diplomatic agent. On the other hand, no European foreign office would have been so obtuse as to ask for a reason, or so indelicate as to insist on the reception of a minister so evidently not a *persona grata*. In fact, no European Administration would have committed the original blunder of sending a man with such a history to Rome, and none but an American Administration would have made a bad matter infinitely worse by transferring the rejected Virginian to Vienna.

E.

Florence, December 30, 1885.

NATURALISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I see that Mr. Brander Matthews objects to my use of the word "naturalism." I care little about the word if the *thing* be understood, but I may say that I used the word because Mr. Stillman had done so. When he speaks of art having "become to some extent naturalistic if not yet realistic," it is evident that by naturalistic he does not mean "ultra-realistic," but rather something between idealistic and realistic, and I tried to show what, in my view, this something is. As far as I know, Ruskin and other English writers use the word in the same sense, and I think we may consider the *English* sense of the word "naturalism" as fixed. If, however, Mr. Matthews or any one else will suggest a better word, I shall be glad to accept it. For my part I should be content to use the simple one, "art."

Kenyon Cox.

New York, January 12, 1886.

THE NATIONAL MUSEUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In noticing Mr. Ernest Ingersoll's handbook to the National Museum you remark that there is no reference to room, case, or object numbers. As this same comment is often made by visitors, it may be well to say that the rapid accession of material makes it necessary to so frequently alter the arrangement of the various departments as to preclude—at least for the present—the possibility of locating any given object.

A specimen here to-day may be there to-morrow, and it would require a daily edition of a guide-book to keep pace with the changes. During the past year the material on exhibition has increased so much that it has been necessary to wholly or partially change the arrangement of every hall of the Museum.

Very respectfully, L.

Washington, D. C., January 17, 1886.

"AT ALL" AND "AT-ALL."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me to call the attention of your correspondent "R. L." to a difference in meaning between "at all," pronounced as two words, and "at-all," pronounced as one?

To the question, "Did you shoot at all the targets?" the answer, "I did not shoot at all," implies that the respondent did shoot at some. The answer, "I did not shoot at-all," means that he took no part in the shooting. At least, that distinction would invariably be made in this part of the country.—I am, sir, etc., W. H. B.

Baltimore, January 15, 1886.

[We should suppose that the altered inflection would suffice to prevent ambiguity.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

The spring announcements of Ticknor & Co., Boston, are very numerous. The following are, we believe, new to these columns: 'The Life and Genius of Goethe,' lectures at the Concord School of Philosophy for 1885, edited by F. B. Sanborn and W. T. Harris; 'Poets and Problems' (Tennyson, Ruskin, and Browning), by Geo. Willis Cooke; 'A Stroll with Keats,' by Frances Clifford Brown, illustrated; 'Indian Summer,' 'Italian Poets,' and 'A Sea Change; or, Love's Stowaway,' a comic opera, by W. D. Howells; 'Songs and Ballads of the Old Plantations,' by "Uncle Remus"; 'Every-Day Religion' and 'Light on the Hidden Way,' by the Rev. Jas. Freeman Clarke; a uniform set, in four volumes, of the works of Mary Clemmer, together with a memorial of her ('An American Woman's Life and Work') by Edmund Hudson; 'The Sphinx's Children and Other People's,' by Rose Terry Cooke; 'The Prelate,' a story of the American colony and native society in Rome, by Isaac Henderson; 'Christian Symbols and Stories of the Saints,' by Clara Erskine Clement and Katherine E. Conway; 'The Olden-Time Series,' gleanings from old Boston and Salem newspapers, by Henry M. Brooks; 'Edge-Tools of Speech,' by Maturin M. Ballou; 'John Bodewin's Testimony,' by Mary Hallock Foote; 'A Romantic Young Lady,' by Robert Grant; 'Two College Girls,' by Helen Dawes Brown; and a new and enlarged Concordance to the Bible, by the Rev. J. B. R. Walker.

Prof. Rudolph Gneist's 'History of the English Constitution,' translated by Philip A. Ashworth, will be shortly published in this country by G. P. Putnam's Sons in two volumes.

The *North American* Publishing Co. have in preparation 'Reminiscences of Abraham Lincoln, by Distinguished Men of his Time,' collected and edited by Allen Thorndike Rice, editor of the *North American Review*. The book will be a portrait gallery, since the several contributors are figured as well as the subject of their reminiscences. It will appear in April.

A "Rainbow Series" of new novels by American and foreign authors is announced by Cassell & Co. The title refers to the tinted covers, and not to the color sensation suggested by the two novels first on the list—'A Crimson Stain,' by Annie Bradshaw, and 'Morgan's Horror,' by Geo. Manville Fenn.

Thomas Whittaker has nearly ready 'Authorship of the Four Gospels,' as viewed by Judge William Marvin from a lawyer's standpoint.

G. P. Putnam's Sons give their imprint for the American market to Leslie Stephen's 'Life of Henry Fawcett,' which we have recently reviewed at length. It is noticeable that an affection of the eyes, before the terrible accident which

destroyed them, makes the early portrait of Fawcett in this volume seem almost blinder than the very latest.

Henfrey's valuable 'Guide to the Study of English Coins from the Conquest to the Present Time,' which has been for some years out of print, has been republished in Bohn's Reference Library (Scribner & Welford). The original arrangement has not been altered, but the form of the volume is handier, the descriptions of the pieces have been revised, and an historical introduction prefixed by the editor, Mr. C. F. Keary, and the work will no doubt continue to be a standard authority for collectors.

Unwin's Christmas Annual (New York: Appletons), which prolongs the holidays on this side, is exceptionally attractive both from its list of contributors and the skill with which its editor, Mr. Henry Norman, has bound the stories together by lively and well-subordinated conversational passages. The scene is the deck of the *Batavia*, where the accident which gives a happy name to the collection—'The Broken Shaft'—has unlocked the lips of the story-tellers at the command of the "Eminent Tragedian," who, with his "Beatrice," will be readily recognized, to while away the time. Ghosts, which by some whimsicality of the imagination have a prescriptive right to be with us at the blessed season, notwithstanding Marcellus's belief, appear in several disguises, from the crude materialism of Mr. Crawford's blood-curdling and bone-breaking nightmare to the elf-like presence of the "Marjorie" whom Mr. Anstey has made the centre of a charming child's story. Mr. Stevenson, Mr. Pollock, and especially Mr. Archer contribute work which approaches French perfection in this literary form; Mr. Hopkins treats us to the old-fashioned British humor which seems so bumpkinish in comparison with the finer touch of these latter days; and lastly Mr. Norman winds up with a tale not inferior to those of the older hands, though we cannot help thinking that the very startling incident out of which it springs obscures the sweetness and perfect tone of the love-passages which are the better part of it.

The 'Standard Indexed Atlas' of the United States published in this city by A. A. Grant for business uses has an obvious advantage in its size, which is folio, over its predecessors. By simple typographical devices and by coloring, one distinguishes readily the counties of any given State; the towns as post-offices or not, and as money-order post-offices or not; the railroads, and the express line which has the privilege of each. The indexes are purposely made fuller than the maps, and contain much compact information as to population, banking facilities, place on the map, and accessibility by rail. Canada is not, as in some other business atlases, included in this one.

The twenty-ninth volume of *Harper's Weekly* reflects, as usual, the events which have most deeply interested our public, from the Sudan expedition to the Riel rebellion, from the first "Walküre" to the first "Mikado" performance, from the trial trip of the *Dolphin* to the races of the *Puritan* and *Genesta*, from the revision of the Old Testament to the revision of our National Administration. The array of portraits certainly does not diminish in numbers or importance, the rotation of office-holders (English and American) furnishing a great many, and the world's distinguished dead not a few besides. "Process" work is still but little relied upon except for facsimiles of pen-drawings, and to nothing like the extent to which foreign illustrated journals make use of it. One or two supplements in this volume have a single tint, but general color-printing is yet to be ventured upon by the publishers.

In *Harper's Bazar*, which has ended its eighteenth volume, the full-page or double-page cuts have less to do with current affairs, though the Mississippi floods and the New Orleans Exhibition are glanced at, and such a social event as the yacht race could not be overlooked, nor could the death of Grant. The portraits are generally of women, though Ranke and Shaftesbury are admitted. The pictorial facetiæ of the last page of the *Bazar* still show the extraordinary fondness of our women for humorous views of our colored fellow-citizens.

The latest Bulletin of the Library Company of Philadelphia has a very valuable appendix, "Regimental Histories," by George Maurice Abbot, being Part I. of Contributions toward a Bibliography of the Civil War in the United States. Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, and New York rank first in number of works (measured by pages occupied in the appendix), but Massachusetts by far leads all the rest in point of completeness. The 58th Massachusetts Infantry is the highest number here recorded, and there is something relating to Nos. 1, 2, 4–6, 9–13, 15–17, 19–21, 24, 25, 27, 29, 32–39, 41, 43–45, 49, 51, 52, 55, 58—say two-thirds of the whole. The list includes Federal and Confederate States. Most of the latter are very deficient in histories or memoirs, but Virginia makes a good showing.

We have received from the Secretary of the Grolier Club of this city its ornamental 'Transactions' for the first year and a half of its existence (January, 1884–July, 1885). It contains a brief sketch of Grolier, an account of the origin of the Club and its doings, lists of the objects shown at its exhibitions of etchings, of illuminated manuscripts, and of illustrations for books, and abstracts of the technical papers relating to the bookmaking arts read by various members. The publications of this Club have been notable for their beauty, and have been eagerly taken up. It is stated that books once belonging to Grolier's collection are to be found in the Astor Library and the library of Columbia College, as well as in private libraries in New York.

The Bewick Club, of Newcastle-on-Tyne, founded in 1876 as a sort of life school by the artists of that locality, has enlarged its scope with its new premises, which it entered into on November 4, 1885. We learn from a pamphlet containing the address delivered on that occasion by Dr. Robert Spence Watson, that the Club now aims to embrace in its organization all who take an interest in art, and to promote social intercourse and intellectual recreation "by artistic and musical conversazioni, by sketching excursions, and by classes for the study of the higher branches of art." These classes are open to both sexes.

The State of Virginia is having copies made of some hitherto unknown documents in the British Museum to which Dr. Edward Eggleston directed its attention. Such are the brief original draft of the 'History of the Dividing Line,' by William Byrd—the colonial classic—and fourteen documents of the highest importance relating to Bacon's Rebellion. The State is also, at Doctor Eggleston's suggestion, having copies made of some important papers, as yet very little known, in the Public Record Office. It is safe to say that the real history of Virginia in the seventeenth century has never been written. Many of the most valuable papers relating to colonial history are in private collections in England. They do not, we believe, come within the range of Mr. B. F. Stevens's explorations.

In 1854 Dr. J. G. Kohl, the well-known German geographer, was employed by the United States Government to prepare, for the purposes of the Coast Survey, a history of the discovery and exploration of the Pacific coast. He later undertook a similar task for the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic coast. These two memoirs, owing to official negligence or misunderstanding, have ever since remained in manuscript in the Coast Survey Office. Doctor Kohl always alleged that the Government did not keep faith with him in regard to their publication. The authorities have now bestirred themselves to the extent of having the historical portions of the memoirs published as an appendix to the Coast Survey report for 1884. In the light of more recent knowledge they are necessarily deficient. The later and better results of Doctor Kohl's researches as regards the Atlantic coast are set forth in his 'History of the Discovery of Maine,' published by the Maine Historical Society as the first volume of the second series of its Collections. A collection of hand copies of early maps relating to America, prepared by Doctor Kohl, is preserved in the State Department at Washington. A descriptive catalogue of these maps by Mr. Justin Winsor is in course of publication in the Harvard University Bulletin.

The Bressa Prize (12,000 francs) of the Turin Academy of Sciences has been conferred upon Professor Pasquale Villari, President of the Faculty of Philosophy and Philology in the Istituto di Studi Superiori of Florence, for his exhaustive biography of Machiavelli. The prize is given once in four years for great distinction either in science or letters. It was bestowed a few years back upon Darwin.

With No. 1 of its 37th volume that excellent weekly the *Revue Politique et Littéraire* of Paris takes on, in larger letters, the more convenient name, *Revue Bleue*, in harmony with the familiar color of its covers.

By a singular irony the followers of M. Le Play, whose panacea for the evils of modern society was the rehabilitation of the family, have had a family quarrel. The association which published the *Réforme Sociale* has dissolved, and one wing has gone off and founded the *Science Sociale*, "d'après la méthode de F. Le Play," as they state, wishing to retain for themselves the old trade-mark. Apparently, however, the weight of the movement as of the organization remains with those who were opposed to the dissolution; and it is announced that the Société d'Économie Sociale, with its Unions de la Paix Sociale, does not recognize the new organ, but will continue the *Réforme Sociale* under the simple title of *Bulletin* of the Society aforesaid. So far as our light goes, we are prepared to recommend the *Bulletin* as the true and lawful heir of its predecessor. It is a very earnest and valuable publication, and must have a widespread influence for good. The office of the Bulletin is at 174 Boulevard Saint-Germain.

Another useful French institution is the Paris Société Historique et Cercle Saint-Simon, which is housed at No. 2 rue St.-Simon. Its *Bulletin* is now in its third year. The second number contains, if we mistake not, an innovation in the shape of illustrations (very clever ones), accompanying a lecture on the Japanese Theatre by MM. Émile Guimet and Félix Régamey. Curious is the germ of the Western footlights—a candle at the end of a rod, managed by a person behind the wings, who thus illuminates the actor's face. The Club has been making an interesting experiment of listening to popular melodies drawn from all parts of France, expressly harmonized, and sung by various gentlemen and one lady, Mlle. Mercédès. This proved very successful, and was followed by a Mother Goose banquet (*Ma Mère l'Oye*).

Gerhard von Amyntor has a jeremiad in the *Magazin für die Literatur des In- und Auslandes* on the decline of popular interest in Germany in the products of native literary talent. Books, whether literary or scientific, which reach a circulation of 100,000 can, he says, be counted on the fingers without including them all. Only Bodenstedt's 'Mirza Schaffy' and Scheffel's 'Trompeter' have surpassed that number, while

other specially popular works, such as the romances of Ebers, Freytag's 'Ahnen,' the epic poems of Wolff, and Stinde's 'Familie Buchholz,' have, in spite of ingenious advertising, not reached a third of that number. At the same time, the markets are flooded with translations of foreign books, especially of the French school of naturalism. The writing of fiction is all done by women for women. The writer seriously suggests that native talent should be encouraged by boycotting foreign literature, even as the French boycott German music in their refusal to hear "Lohengrin." Perhaps a simpler method would be for German authors to study French simplicity of style, literary perspective, and the art of eliminating irrelevant facts and episodic padding.

By an error for which we cannot now account, we included Prof. Rudolph Gneist among the dead of 1885.

In the necrology of the present year we regret to record the name of Sheldon Amos, formerly Professor of Jurisprudence at University College, London, and author of 'A Systematic View of the Science of Jurisprudence,' 1872; 'The Science of Law,' 1874; and numerous other works, legal and political. In 1881 he went to Egypt in the legal service of the British Government, and became a regular correspondent of the *Nation* at Alexandria until the summer of 1884, in which year, having been appointed a judge of the new native Court of Appeal at Cairo, he took up his residence in that city.

—The resignation of Gen. John Eaton from the National Bureau of Education at Washington to assume the presidency of Marietta College, Ohio, excites widespread regret among teachers and not a little anxiety as to the future of the Bureau. While there has been no lack of criticism upon the work of the Bureau, no one has questioned the integrity, devotion, and general efficiency of the retiring Commissioner. He has gathered and distributed the statistics of education of all grades and kinds throughout the country in convenient form for handy reference, and incited and issued many monographs and special reports, often by eminent teachers outside his own corps of co-workers, afforded help to thousands of inquirers, indexed nearly 30,000 titles of books and pamphlets and important essays on educational topics, gathered a large library and educational museum, and has brought the influence of the department to bear in stimulating educational interest in many ways and sections of the country—all in a manner which has tended, as its best result, to develop in many minds besides his own a still higher ideal than has yet been realized of what the Bureau could and now ought to do. The difficulties to be contended with have been increasingly numerous and great. The building in which the Bureau is lodged is mean, overcrowded, and quite outgrown; the appropriations and the salaries inadequate, from that of the Commissioner down to the porter; and the long delay of all reports in the Government Printing Office (sometimes more than a year, we believe, even the fourteenth report for 1883-4 not being issued yet, though its successor is nearly ready) effectually takes the bloom of freshness from all its documents, and causes discontent, often directed against the Bureau itself, which is in no wise responsible for the long delays. All this is utterly unworthy the present high and advancing condition of education in our country, and the courage with which General Eaton has stuck to his post and always done his best in the face of such and other difficulties, cannot be too highly commended.

—Although the voice of provincial ignorance and philistinism is still heard in the land, glorifying our institutions as too perfect to learn from "abroad," all intelligent men, and especially all the bright young men, now entering the profession of teaching, realize well that nothing will now tend more to lift the whole tone of educational work to a higher level than a comprehensive survey of what has been done and is now doing in this field. We believe that the first and chief requisite of the next head of the Bureau—so long, at least, as it remains mainly a bureau of information as it is at present—should be a good knowledge of foreign tongues and of foreign educational institutions of high and low degree; and that this qualification should be second only to wide knowledge and keen sympathy with all that is good in our own land, and administrative and business tact. This will carry with it a pervading sense that the interests of the higher and lower education should be bound together in an organic unity as they are not in any portion of our land at present—a fact which constitutes one of the most deep-seated defects of our whole national system. The qualification in question will imply also, it may be hoped, that the incumbent is not a doctrinaire of any of the many types among us; nor a political worker, for in few positions are the qualities which enable men to make a strong push for a place less often associated with those which would insure real success in office. Judging from the petitions, letters, etc., now in circulation in the interests of various candidates, the Government is not likely to be embarrassed from lack of applicants from whom to select. Its decision will be a crucial test of its wisdom and discrimination. The importance of the office is out of all proportion to its rank and pay. We are full of the conviction that there are few directions in which the Department of the Interior could achieve a deeper and more lasting good than by giving special attention to the pending appointment, if not indeed to the whole function of the Bureau of Education. That this will be done we have reason to hope.

—Two recent publications of the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction are of interest to librarians. One is the first of a series bearing the general title of 'Indici e Cataloghi,' the special title of this volume being 'Pubblicazioni Periodiche, 1884.' It indicates, in a single alphabet, all the periodicals and proceedings and transactions of learned bodies regularly received by the 26 principal public libraries of Italy in 1884, with very full information in regard to each publication, such as the names of its editors, the number of volumes previously issued, the completeness or incompleteness of the set belonging to the library, etc. This alphabetical list (pp. 1-192) is followed by various indexes (pp. 194-301), including a subject-index, an index of academies and societies, and a topographical index, and these by several statistical tables (pp. 305-313). The total number of serial works cited is 1,890. Of these 39 are American, of which only one, the *American Journal of Mathematics* (Baltimore), reaches as many as 5 libraries. The preface to this well-arranged and well-printed volume makes appreciative mention of Poole's 'Index,' accompanied by the announcement that the National Library of Florence will soon begin the issue of a half-yearly analytical index of all current Italian periodicals.

—The other official work referred to is a 'Regolamento per le Biblioteche Pubbliche Governative,' being a code of regulations for all the Italian libraries under the control of the central Government, approved by royal decree October 28, 1885, and henceforth in force. The first title enumerates the Government libraries, which embrace 16 independent book collections (*biblioteche autonome*), and all libraries attached to museums, galleries, universities, special or technical and secondary schools. Comparatively few libraries of importance in Italy, other than private ones, are thus excluded from the list, the exceptions being some of the public collections belonging to municipalities or provinces. One section makes all special collections appertaining to the cabinets, laboratories and museums of a university parts of the general university library. Titles ii to vi relate respectively to "Internal Arrangement"—provisions for registers of accessions, shelf-lists, catalogues, reports and the like, making imperative the compilation of subject catalogues, and special indexes of incunabula and book rarities, music, maps and charts, engravings, autographs, miniatures, palimpsests, artistic bindings, etc., and the compilation of statistics in regard to the library's use; "Government and Acquisitions"—establishing a council of direction, with the chief librarian at its head, for each library; "Employees"—their classification and functions; "Appointments, Promotions, and Salaries"—all places to be filled, as heretofore, by competitive examination, the candidates having previously passed through special courses of study; "Public Use of the Libraries"—defining the privileges and obligations of readers. The volume closes (pp. 59-112) with models of the necessary blanks, and an ample index. It is interesting to note that among the blank forms is one enabling a reader in any library to obtain books from any other, so that a scholar sojourning or residing for instance at Florence may have access to any desired book contained in the public libraries of Palermo, Venice, or Milan. Though issued by the ministry, both these publications are in great part the work of that thoroughly able *bibliothecist*, if one may coin the word, Dr. Desiderio Chilovi, the lately appointed prefect of the Florentine National Library, as the old Magliabechiana-Palatina is now officially styled. Doctor Chilovi is rapidly introducing into Italy the novel bibliothecal methods which have already proved of such great public utility in the larger American book collections.

—Since Limborch in 1692 printed the book of sentences of the Inquisition of Toulouse from 1307 to 1323, no work has appeared which throws so much light on the character and operations of the Holy Office of the Middle Ages as the 'Practica Inquisitionis Heretice Pravitatis' of Bernard Gui (Guidonis), which has just seen the light under the auspices of Prof. Douais, of Toulouse (Paris: A. Picard, 1886). The writer or compiler of the 'Practica' was one of the most learned and indefatigable Dominicans of the age, a voluminous author on historical and controversial subjects, and himself the inquisitor whose register of sentences was published by Limborch. His work, intended for the guidance of less experienced colleagues, contains within its 350 quarto pages everything which an inquisitor of the time would seem to need—formulas, instructions, papal decrees, and masses of material, heaped together, it must be confessed, without much regard to scientific arrangement, but invaluable as illustrating the every-day labors of the dreaded tribunal. Such a work was worthy of the most conscientious editing. It is not likely to be again reprinted, and scholars had a right to ask that any one who undertook it should put it forth in the most perfect form and with all the aids which would render it complete and intelligible. Unfortunately, M. Douais has not thus understood his duty. He has contented himself with collating the two MSS. of Toulouse, without examining those in Paris and London, and ignorant that others exist in Italy. Consequently there are omissions much to be regretted. The task of editorship has been reduced to a minimum. A simple examination of the sources from whence Bernard Gui drew his materials would

have added greatly to the value of the work, and illustrations of the usages and processes described in its pages would have rendered intelligible much which can be comprehended only by the special student. Still, we doubt whether, with the best intentions, M. Douais could have added real value to the work. In his preface (p. viii) he cites a note in the MS. as showing that the 'Practica' was used as a guide and a manual by the Toulousain inquisitors, and at the bottom of the page prints the note, which says nothing of the kind. Such incredible carelessness reconciles us to the absence of further annotations, but does not diminish our regret that the task had not fallen into more competent hands.

—Mr. Walter Federau Nokes grapples for the third time with the difficulties of Corneillian verse in his translation of "Polyeuctus, the Christian Martyr" (London: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof). As in his previous translations in blank verse of Corneille's "Cid" and "Horace," he invites direct comparison with the original by printing the French text on the opposite page. Few translations not intended for "ponies" could stand this test. Mr. Nokes has at least not shirked any of the hard places, as the *traduttori traditori* often do. Really his task was one which it required courage even to undertake after the pitiful efforts of Ozell and others in the last century "to do into English" some of the classic French plays. What can be more remote from an English or even a French-speaking person of to-day than the conventional turns of the Alexandrines which charmed the ears of the subjects of Louis XIV. and of Louis XV.? The *feux* and *flammes* and *vœux* and *chers objets* are as remote from us as the *rabats* and lace *canons* worn by the *grands seigneurs* who delighted to hear these expressions. This and other considerations, self-evident to any one familiar with French versification, make it hard to find fault with the rendering presented by Mr. Nokes. His blank verse is not easy reading. Average French scholars will be able to read the original with as much facility as his translation, full of all the conventional tricks of a certain kind of English blank verse. Archaic words and forced epithets are common, and he too often has recourse to such forms as *was't*, *'twas*, *'twere*. But the version is an honest attempt to be literal, to omit nothing. As such it will remain a curiosity not without merit.

SCHLIEMANN'S TIRYNS.—I.

Tiryns. The Prehistoric Palace of the Kings of Tiryns: The Results of the Latest Excavations. By Dr. Henry Schliemann, Hon. D.C.L., Oxon., etc. The Preface by Prof. F. Adler, and contributions by Dr. Wm. Dörpfeld. With 188 woodcuts, 24 plates in chromo-lithography, 1 map, and 4 plans. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1885. Pp. lxiv, 385.

Every traveller who enters the land of Argos at Nauplia first turns his steps to a low, oblong hill in the southeast corner of the plain, on which stands the wall of Tiryns, the most venerable of Cyclopean fortresses. Here, on the very threshold of the land, he finds walls on which Greeks of the age of Pericles once gazed in astonishment, marvelling at their massive architecture and their hoary antiquity; and he feels the presence of the heroic age of Greece. Even Homer, who would hardly have noticed a common fortification, celebrates Tiryns as "a city of walls." Pausanias, who visited Argolis about 170 A. D., says that the walls of Tiryns are as wonderful as the pyramids of Egypt, adding, in a tone of absurd exaggeration, that a yoke of mules could not move even the smallest of the unwrought stones of which they are built. The foundation of Tiryns, like that of its neighbor Mycenæ, is buried in fable. Tradition makes Tiryns the older of the two, the original Cyclopean fortress. About 1400 B. C. (according to the mythical chronology), two great-grandsons of the Egyptian Danaus, the twins Acrisius and Prœtus, appear as rival claimants of the land of Argos. According to the most common account, Prœtus is expelled by his brother, goes to Lycia, marries the King's daughter there, the famous Anteia or Sthenebœa, and returns with an armed force of Lycians, who establish him at Tiryns, while Acrisius rules at Argos. Prœtus also brought from Lycia, according to Strabo, seven wonderful builders, the Cyclopes, who built the walls of Tiryns for him, and afterward those of Mycenæ for Perseus, the grandson of Acrisius. To this prosaic level had the divine Cyclopes descended from the Titanic height on which they stand in Hesiod, as children of Heaven and Earth! Tiryns was part of the inheritance of Amphitryon, the earthly father of Heracles; but before this hero's birth Amphitryon and Alcmene had withdrawn into exile at Thebes. Heracles himself came to Tiryns, by command of the Delphic oracle, to abide there twelve years in the service of his kinsman Eurystheus, who then reigned at Mycenæ, and to perform the famous labors for which he was to be made an immortal. One account, however, makes Heracles a native of Tiryns.

The glory of Tiryns, like that of Mycenæ, lies, therefore, in the distant mythical past. We know it chiefly as the home of divine heroes, and rarely indeed do we hear of a mere man walking its streets. Both of these famous cities emerge into the light of history only to disappear from our sight. With the Dorian invasion of Peloponnesus all pretensions of either to independent sovereignty must have ended. The Dorian kings of the Temenid dynasty made Argos their seat of government, and after their accession we find hardly any mention of either Tiryns or Mycenæ until the Persian wars and the subsequent destruction of both cities by Argos. The question whether the real conquest of these ancient cities by Argos took place after the Persian wars or many centuries earlier (see 'Tiryns,' pp. 35–46), becomes unimportant when we think how little of the former glory of either could have remained, under any circumstances, to be extinguished at this later period. We can easily believe that they existed until 468 B. C. as small towns, subject to Argos, but occasionally provoking her by their independent pride; and we are compelled to believe that they sent troops to Platæa in 479 B. C., when we read their names still legibly inscribed on the bronze serpent-coil in the Hippodrome of Constantinople, which was once erected at Delphi to commemorate the great victory. At all events, both cities disappear from history after 468 B. C., and we have the testimony of Pausanias that six centuries later Tiryns was, like Babylon, "nothing but a wall."

After the brilliant success which crowned Dr. Schliemann's labors at Mycenæ, it was not to be expected that he would leave the hill of Tiryns long unexplored. The deep trench which he dug in 1876 into the heart of the upper citadel entered an open court in which there were fortunately no walls preserved; otherwise, serious damage might have been done. In 1884 and 1885 Dr. Schliemann undertook the exploration of the upper citadel of Tiryns, with the constant help of Dr. William Dörpfeld, whose aid in the latest excavations at Troy is so conspicuous in 'Troja.' The results are given in the volume before us. Dr. Schliemann has written chapters i.—iv. (pp. 1—176), giving an account of the excavations of 1884, the topography and history of Tiryns, and an elaborate description (with 111 illustrations) of the objects of terracotta, stone, etc., found in the ruins. Dr. Dörpfeld has written chapter v., describing the walls and buildings so far as they were explored in 1884; and nearly the whole of chapter vi., which describes the excavations of 1885, and supplements and corrects the accounts of chapter v. in many important particulars. A preface (pp. v.—liii.) has been contributed by Professor F. Adler, of Berlin, containing interesting discussions of many architectural questions suggested by the buildings of Mycenæ, Tiryns, and Hissarlik.

The excavations of 1884 were confined chiefly to the space within the walls of the upper citadel, and disclosed little regarding the great Cyclopean fortress itself. But the next year's work dealt chiefly with the outer walls, and made some unexpected additions to our knowledge of these famous structures. By a thorough removal of débris from the outside the wall of the upper citadel was laid bare to its foundations. A comparison of the large plan made in 1885 (No. 125, opposite p. 309) with the outline of the wall given in Steffen's *Karten von Mykenai* (1884) shows many angles and irregularities which had not been suspected before. The first excavations showed that the supposed main entrance at the southeast corner, through which almost every traveller now enters the citadel by a broad, easy road over the buried wall, was really no entrance at all, there being no break whatever in the line of the outside wall at this corner. There was only one carriageway leading to the upper citadel. This ascended gradually from the north along the outside of the eastern wall, then passed through the wall to the inside just south of the great tower, and ascended again between the outer wall and a strong inner wall to the great open court in the southeast corner of the citadel. The chief entrance for people on foot led from the strange semicircular projection of the western wall, through which a little gate opened upon a long flight of steps, of which 65 still remain, leading to the north end of the upper citadel. At the southwest corner of the wall stands a tower, about 63 feet long and 27 feet wide, resting on a natural projection of the rock. This contains two rooms without doors, separated by a solid wall, which Dörpfeld supposes to have been cisterns. A similar cistern is found at the southeast corner.

Every visitor at Tiryns enters with astonishment and some anxiety the strange gallery which leads directly into the eastern wall from the south. This covered passage has a sharp-pointed roof, made by the convergence of the upper courses of horizontal stones, which gives the appearance of an arch. Six passages, lower than the main gallery, but with similar pointed roofs, now lead from this directly through the eastern wall to the outside of the fortress. This strange gallery and its side passages have been variously explained as storehouses, stables, armories, chambers of the mad daughters of Prœtus, and lastly, by Steffen, as a sort of casemate with covered passages, through which defenders could step out on an outer platform to repel assailants. This last theory is accepted by Dörpfeld as satisfactory in chapter v. In fact, this gallery and two similar covered passages in the southern wall, parallel but at different heights, were the chief support of the theory that in such forts "a vertical lower wall is first built on the rock, and over it there is a vertical upper wall, starting about 6.50 m. behind the former" (p. 182); on the broad level surface of the projecting lower wall the doors of these vaulted passages in the upper wall were supposed to open directly. This manner of construction, which would seem more appropriate to a modern winter health-resort than to the home of Heracles, is shown to be chimerical by the exploration of the hitherto obstructed passages in the southern wall. Here an upper gallery was

found to be connected by steps with a parallel lower passage, closely resembling that in the eastern wall, having five pointed doors, which it was supposed would open on an uncovered platform above the lower wall. But on clearing these doors of rubbish, they were found to open into "five separate rooms, all of which were once vaulted with colossal stones in ogival form" (p. 319). Inspired by this unexpected discovery, the explorers immediately examined the passages leading from the eastern gallery; and on removing the rubbish it was proved beyond a doubt that these originally led into six closed chambers like the others, and that the whole casemate theory of Steffen was untenable. In figure 132 (p. 334) an inner view of the eastern gallery is given, showing plainly a piece of the wall which separated the first from the second chamber. In figure 129 (p. 324) we see the ground plan of a piece of the outer wall of Byrsa, the citadel of Carthage, in which there is a gallery with side passages leading to closed chambers in arrangement and size very similar to those of Tiryns. Appian is quoted for the statement that in the hollow covered rooms inside of the walls of Carthage there were stables for 300 elephants and more than 4,000 horses, besides quarters for 20,000 infantry and 4,000 cavalry (p. 324). Dörpfeld decides that the chambers at Tiryns were storerooms. If they were lighted and ventilated, they may have been stables, or even soldiers' quarters in time of war, like those at Carthage. As most of the western wall of the upper citadel has been swept away by a landslide, we can never know whether it contained similar galleries and chambers; but we may now fairly presume that this method of building was widely used in Cyclopean walls.

The work of 1885 at Tiryns has disclosed one fact which strikes at the foundation of our previous knowledge of Cyclopean walls. It has always been believed, and perhaps it will always be believed by some, that the outer walls of Tiryns and Mycenæ were built without mortar or cement of any kind, the huge blocks of stone being kept in place by their own weight. This is twice stated by Dörpfeld in chapter v. (pp. 178, 254) as an undoubted fact. But after laying bare the walls to their foundations in 1885 he makes this astounding statement (p. 318):

"The last excavations have proved that nearly *all the walls*, the outer citadel walls as well as the inner walls of the palace, *were built with clay mortar*. If the portions of the castle wall which were hitherto visible do not show any mortar, but only small stones in the joints between the large blocks, it is the natural consequence of the rain which during thousands of years has struck the wall and washed out the mortar. . . . Almost throughout, wherever we have laid bare pieces of wall which for many centuries had been covered with débris, the mortar within the joints still showed itself well preserved."

The most interesting and the most important result of Dr. Schliemann's excavations at Tiryns is the discovery of the almost complete foundation walls of a large palace of great antiquity, which astonishes us by its many points of agreement with Homeric palaces. Dörpfeld says (p. 178): "In the upper citadel, almost the entire palace, with its gateways, courts, great rooms and chambers, can be distinctly recognized. Most of the walls are still standing, ½ to 1 m. in height; numerous bases of pillars are still in their place, and in the doorways still lie the huge stone door-sills." We will give a brief account of the most important parts of this building, postponing for the present the discussion of its age. We have already mentioned the great roadway on the eastern side, which leads to the open court in the southeast corner of the citadel. In its ascent southward, about sixty feet from its passage through the great outer wall, it passes through a gateway, of which the threshold and two immense door-posts of stone still remain. This gate corresponds, in measurement and position, in many points to the Lions' Gate of Mycenæ, the clear width of the passage (2.86 metres) being precisely the same in both. The double doors, which were of wood, were fastened on the inside by a round bar, for which apertures are found in the upright posts, that on the eastern side allowing the bar to be pushed into the great outer wall. About 110 feet from this gate the road enters the southeast court, the eastern side of which consisted of a portico with columns, directly above the covered gallery already described. Opposite this portico, on the west side of the court, was the chief propylæum or gateway of the palace. This structure, in which we see the Homeric *prothyron*, and also the elements of the Propylæa of the Acropolis of Athens, enclosed a space about 38 feet square, divided in the middle by a wall, in which was the gateway itself with its folding doors. It had two porticoes or vestibules, each supported by two columns between two antæ. The stone bases of all the four columns and of three of the antæ remain in position; but the columns and the antæ themselves, being of wood, were probably burnt when the palace was destroyed, and there is nothing to show the form of either. One portico opened on the court just mentioned, the other on the larger court into which the gateway led, which was evidently the general courtyard of the palace. Little or nothing remains of the ancient buildings on the south and west of this court, and nearly all of the west side has been swept away by the land slide which destroyed most of the outer wall at this point. In the northeast corner is the western portico of the great propylæum just described, and about the middle of the north side is the southern portico of a smaller propylæum, similar in structure to the other, and enclosing a space about 27 feet square, leading to the principal inner court or *aule*. In the palaces described in the 'Odyssey' there is no mention of any outer court with its larger gateway, such as we find at Tiryns, and it would seem that the visitor comes directly to the gateway of the inner court, corresponding to this second *prothyron* of Tiryns. Passing through the outer portico and the gate in the middle wall, we stand in the inner portico within the central court, upon which opened the great hall of the palace. Here stood Athena in the 'Odyssey' (i, 103), "in the *prothyra* of Ulysses, on the threshold of the *aule*," and saw the suitors playing at draughts on the other side of the court, before the palace doors. On the east, south, and west sides, this court was surrounded by porticoes (*aithousai*) with columns. Half of the south side was occupied by the portico of the gateway, with its two columns and their antæ standing in line with the two columns of the portico which filled the other half of this side. The gate was therefore strictly "the gate of the *aithousa*," as well as "the gate of the *aule*," and it is called by both names in the 'Odyssey.' The oft-repeated verse of the 'Odyssey' describing carriages driving "out of the *prothyron* and the resounding *aithousa*" has now a new significance, when we see that the portico of the gateway was a part of the portico of the court. On the right of the gateway, as we enter the court, still stand the massive foundations of a square altar (measuring 10½ by 8½ feet).

The greater part of the north side of the court is occupied by the doorway of the *megaron*, or great hall of the palace, whose stately vestibule, about 31½ feet broad and 16 feet deep (inside), is constructed like the porticoes of the two gateways, with two columns between two antæ, and is raised by two steps above the level of the court. An excellent view of the southwest corner of this vestibule, as it now appears, showing the foundations of the anta (with five dowel-holes to hold the woodwork), the round base of the western column, and the two steps, is given on page 211. This portico, which was called the "*aithousa* of the palace," or simply "*aithousa*," was the colonnade of an anteroom of about the same size and shape, called the *prodomos*. Between the two rooms were three pairs of folding doors, hung on four door-posts, which were deep enough to allow the doors to open flat against them without swinging into the anteroom, and yet so narrow as hardly to obstruct the passage. From the antercom a door 6½ feet broad opens into the *megaron* itself, and a small side-door leads to the rooms on the west. This anteroom, with its portico, was the common sleeping place for guests in the Homeric palace. Here Helen orders beds to be prepared for Telemachus and Nestor's son, when they visited the palace of Menelaus at Sparta. As the two rooms were so closely connected when the six doors were open, and perhaps were not always separated at all, it is not surprising that, when Helen orders the beds to be made "under the *aithousa*," the young princes are said to sleep "in the *prodomos* of the palace" ('Odyssey,' iv, 297, 302). Moreover, as this *aithousa* was distinguished chiefly by its stateliness from the portico of the gateway on the opposite side of the court, it is natural that it should sometimes itself be called a *prothyron* (as in 'Odyssey,' xviii, 101).

BUNYAN.

John Bunyan. His Life, Times, and Work. By John Brown, Minister of the Church at Bunyan Meeting, Bedford. With illustrations by Edward Whymper. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885.

An incumbency of more than twenty years in Bunyan's pulpit (if the term be not too high for the simple platform of early nonconformist faith) has given the author of this volume a special interest in his subject and ease of access to its materials; and in his treatment he exhibits the research, the closeness of examination, and wariness of inference which denote a trained as well as a scholarly mind. The work, not unlike Masson's 'Milton' in plan, though much less heavily weighted, is the history of a life, of a church, and of a persecution, and in each of its phases strongly illustrates the social condition of the people in the English provincial towns, of which Bedford was an example, during the seventeenth century. In view of the many lives of Bunyan, it seems strange that there should be anything left to glean, more particularly as he interspersed a considerable portion of autobiography in his own published writings; but nearly all of these, as has commonly been the case with the English worthies, have been composed at second-hand from a few old and unsifted authorities. Even Froude, whose narrative is the most capable, will have to learn how unsafe it is to write out of other men's books; for, by the side of this sure-footed investigation, his own easy-going biography seems ludicrously wrong both in its allegations and its tone. An author, however, who has compared the making of histories to the building of card-castles, will not be surprised at the demolition of one of his own structures. It would be tedious to follow the correction of facts from point to point in Minister Brown's narrative, when one can sum it up by allowing at once that this is the first comprehensive and accurate life of Bunyan; but it is of interest to note the very careful proof with which the author sustains Macaulay's assumption that Bunyan served with the Roundheads, instead of the Cavaliers as Froude will have it, and the success with which he disentangles the claims of the county and

town prisons to the honors of the incarceration, and the quiet truthfulness with which he restores the sober coloring and lively detail to the scenes of the arrest, trial, and confinement of Bunyan, which Froude endeavored to diminish and make pale by a skilful use of political perspective and theological distance.

Mr. Brown has been the first to go to the manuscript storehouses, many of which have only lately been made accessible; and from sources opened by the Royal Commission on Historical Manuscripts, and from the records of the Lambeth Library, the Bedford archdeaconry, and the archives of the corporation, together with the hitherto unpublished entries of his own church, he has reconstructed the religious state of the poor people of the Lincoln diocese in Bunyan's time, and brought very near to us the look of the lowly life which was the original soil of English dissent and the field of the tinker-preacher's labors. In reading these terse extracts from the old documents—"short and simple annals of the poor," truly—of prayers in the barn and fines in the courthouse, of levies on workmen's tools and old women's chattels, of these families of "the meanest sort," as the Bishop's schedule calls them, whose petty share of poverty was confiscated for the security of a Stuart throne and an Anglican prayer-book—in reading of these things, a chapter of the history of the English people comes out which has been too closely written over with the wit and frolic of Charles's court; and the query as to what became of the Commonwealth when Cromwell died does not seem so wholly unanswerable as the silence of standard history on the point would indicate.

The central figure of this work, however, is John Bunyan, and to him, who seems to have troubled himself little with state affairs, our space must be devoted. The word genius is often used to conceal a puzzle which the critic, through defects of analytic power or sympathetic insight, is unable to solve; but perhaps this short and easy method was never more feebly resorted to than when a writer, with a strong prejudice in favor of sweetness and light, described Bunyan as a "Philistine of genius." In this designation there is much darkness and some acerbity. The wonderful thing about this man was not so much his gifts as the strange combination of them. There must be, of course, something extraordinary in any common man who becomes a leader in the higher life of the race. The history of the Church, however, is starred with the names of the ignorant and the humble who, since the fishermen were called from their nets by Galilee, have been chosen to be shepherds of the flock and evangelists of the faith. Bunyan was visited with the experience of Protestant Christendom, of which the successive terms are an outraged conscience, an offended God, and a miraculous pardon, and when he came to his peace he spread the glad news, acceptably to the pious and convincingly to the impenitent; but tens of thousands in Christian lands have passed through that same strait gate, and hundreds of them have discovered that they possessed the gift of tongues. Had Bunyan done no more his sermons would have turned to yellow dust long ago, and his memory would be treasured only by a sect, for, eloquent as he was, he was not one of the missionaries who are world-famous. He wrote a book; and it turned out that this book of an uneducated man was a great literary classic. Had he written an epic it would have seemed less marvellous, because there is a popular superstition that nature makes poets, but in prose does not enter into competition with the common school. Bunyan wrote verses, it is true, and the man who set the delectable mountains on the rim of earth had the magical sight; but just as surely his doggerel shows that he had not the singing voice. He was a master of prose, and wrote a book that neighbors the Bible in our religious homes. Whence he derived his skill, how he built his book, are questions which this biography does not explicitly answer, but some help toward an understanding of his exceptional success is given, and the truth that is brought out is, *mutatis mutandis*, of a wide application in literary methods.

Two things are, of course, indispensable to a boy of genius—imagination and the gift of expression. Now Bunyan was fond of representing himself as very wicked in youth; and so he was, from his own point of view. The record of his deeds, however, would not make an exciting Penny Dreadful. The worst he can say for himself is, that he lied and swore, without malice or injury to others, but because he had a talent for tales and oaths. It is not trifling to remark that his powers of invention and forcible Saxon speech appear to have found their first channel in this sort of mental activity. The possible openings for the development of genius in the tinker's cottage at Bedford were few. It is plain that the mind of the young man was one of intense life, and, in the lack of guidance and knowledge, wandered at random or turned to feed upon itself. The only intellectual or moral ideas that came to him were conveyed from the Bible, mostly through the medium of the parish church in the years of the Puritan ascendency. The commonplace that the Bible affords a good education, especially on the imaginative and moral sides, is true, and the theology that attaches to it has developed strong intellects; it was, in the end, the total book-culture of Bunyan—all that he knew of that vast and various world. But in the primary classes it is not a simple text-book of life, especially for a boy of genius who is all sense, all spirit. Bunyan in after years did not regret his first lessons; he preached that children should be taught the terrors of the law. Certainly his own mind laid hold of the easily apprehended images of threatened vengeance, and was filled with vague alarm and driven to a torturing scrutiny of his own spirit. The experience of conversion repeats in the individual the religious history of the race in the same order in which it is developed in the evolution of Biblical thought itself, and Bunyan's case was not substantially different from that of others, Puritan or Catholic, to whom there is no Calvary without a Sinai. The peculiarity lay in the soil into which this fiery seed was sown. His imagination ceased its childish fabling and became visionary; he saw, as the eye sometimes will, his mind-pictures, and this the more readily because his uneducated mind was accustomed to move through concrete ideas, and hence would be characterized by a high visualizing power. That this was a marked trait of his mental habit is shown by the fact, to which Froude calls attention, that all his stories about himself are localized in a distinctly remembered place.

At this stage his mind approached the danger-line of religious madness: his descriptions of his moods, of his despairs, and his struggles with fancies whose importance to his intellectual life arose from the fewness of his ideas and the limited field of their play, show that he had no power over his thoughts, that he had not learned to use his will in thinking. This objectivity of his religious experience and his powerlessness before it, which have been recorded of other intense lives likewise, gave him a strong sense of the reality of spiritual things; and when he at last had laid his doubts and come into the calm, he kept this conviction to such a degree that earthly matters, even when religion was largely interested in politics, seemed of no consequence: this world was the dream, and the next world the truth. To our days the account of this conversion seems to indicate a lack of sanity, a spirit touched with the fever that ends in fanaticism; but we may be sure that to his hearers there was nothing incredible in it, nothing that could not be paralleled out of what they had known in themselves or heard from their neighbors. So, early in life, the plot of his career was brought to its crisis, and the remainder of his years followed from it as naturally as the last acts of "Lear" from the first. In this faith in the reality of eternal things his mind reached its growth, and afterward knew no change.

But with this sure hold on the spirit and its high concerns there went a perfect realism. Bunyan was the opposite of a mystic. His common sense in his sermons of advice is extraordinarily close-packed and hard, and exhibits acute observation of the ways of human nature in practical life. He wrote once what was almost a novel, a history of one Mr. Badman, which is probably truer to contemporary life than the adventures of Jonathan Wild in the next century. If he did not weaken his eyesight over books, he sharpened it on men and women. All his volumes abound with anecdotes and incidents which he had evidently seen in the town streets or by the roadside, and with phrases and proverbial sayings close to the soil. Not the least agreeable of the signs of this realism, this sight for the bare fact in sense alone, are those descriptions of the country, of the birds, and flowers, and fields, and the simple cheerfulness of them to the country-born boy, which strew his pages from cover to cover. So, when he came to write his great book, he united in a perfectly natural way, and without forethought, the reality of a journey on earth with that of the search for heaven. The success with which, in a literary work, truth is fused with fact, is a measure of genius. It is, perhaps, more striking in this case because the work is an allegory, which is usually so drearily pale a kind of composition. The characters and action of the 'Pilgrim's Progress,' on the contrary, are a transcript of life, so vivid that it cannot wear out. It is not more realistic, however, than other portions of Bunyan's voluminous writings, in which one may get an idea of English provincial character of high historical value and human interest. How close, how truthful to his surroundings he was as a literary workman, is brought home with great force, though perhaps unconsciously, by the view which this biography gives of Bedford things and people.

After all, one is almost inclined to say that no man ever owed more to his limitations. Within his bounds, Bunyan used all his spiritual and earthly experience, and, aided by a native gift of imagination and of fluency in the people's speech, blended them, and poured the full fountain of his life through his books. Had his youth included other powerful elements of emotion and knowledge besides his conversion, had theology, or learning, or wider duties removed him somewhat more from the life of his neighbors and friends and the folk of the diocese, of which he was jestingly called the bishop, he might have found so complete self-expression a more difficult task. As it was, he told all he had to tell—told the highest truth in the commonest words and made it current. It is curious to observe that he exhibits no consciousness that he is writing a great work; he speaks of a rush of thought and fancy, and an attractiveness in the subject, but he does not seem to think that he is doing more than adding another to the two-score publications he has already sent out. It is noticeable, too, that he did not meditate upon it for years beforehand, nor spend more than a few months in its composition. Some passages were added at a later time, but as a whole it was a spontaneous and rapid composition. The reason is that he was ripe for it. Without knowing it, he had been working up to this crowning book, both

thought, treatment, and style, through many years of sincere and straightforward, face-to-face conversation with men and women whom he was endeavoring to guide in the way which he had travelled. It appears now that the 'Pilgrim's Progress' was in fact begun during the third short imprisonment of Bunyan, passed in the town jail, the place which tradition has always pointed out as the allegoric "Den," and was finished shortly after his release. It has been called the last book that was written without the fear of the reviewer; it is of more consequence that it is one of the few works that have been composed without ambition.

Bunyan's memory is singularly agreeable. Personally he was free from the defects of assumption, dogmatism, and spiritual pride which entered largely into the religious character of his epoch, and his sensitive conscience seems to have kept him humble after he had won a name. The two great elements of his work—the homely quality and the Christian quality—were deep-seated in his nature, and give him charm. In an age of sectaries he was not a narrow bigot, and did not stickle for meaningless things; and in a time of political strife growing out of religious differences, and though himself a sufferer by twelve years' imprisonment in early manhood, he did not confuse heaven with any fantastic monarchy or commonwealth of Christ in London, nor show any rancor or revengeful spirit as a subject. It is worth remembering that out of Puritanism, which is regarded as a narrow creed and life, came the only book since the Reformation which has been acceptable to the whole of Christendom, and is still regarded as the substantial truth of the Christian life in all the churches that preach it under any creed of orthodoxy. The life of the man who could evolve such a story must have been very simply typical of the Christian life itself. "A Philistine of genius"—is there no light nor sweetness in this?

RECENT FRENCH BOOKS.

THREE interesting studies upon the Russian writers, Gogol, Turgeneff, and Leo Tolstoi, have been recently published by M. Ernest Dupuy, under the title, 'Les grands Maîtres de la littérature russe au dix-neuvième siècle' (Paris: Lecène et Oudin; Boston: Schoenhof). The volume has for a subtitle, 'Les Prosateurs,' which implies a promise for the future of further essays in the same direction. The moment is propitious for such a publication. The remarkable series of articles upon contemporary Russian writers published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* by the Vicomte Eugène-Melchior de Vogüé, during the last few years, has been almost a revelation to the world of the literary wealth of Russia. Turgeneff, indeed, had been long known, if not very widely read outside of a small circle of appreciative admirers, and there were still vague echoes of the admiration with which Mérimée had written of Pushkin and of Gogol many years ago. But the articles of M. de Vogüé aroused a new interest, not only in the earlier writers, who were almost forgotten, but even in Turgeneff himself, whose death was the occasion of the publication of the first of the series, and in Tolstoi, who was almost unknown, even by name, outside of Russia. A little more than a year ago a translation into French of 'War and Peace,' one of the two great works of Tolstoi, was republished in Paris from the St. Petersburg edition of ten years before. This publication was preceded, only a few days earlier, by M. de Vogüé's article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* upon Count Leo Tolstoi. The story of the enthusiasm with which the new writer was received does not need to be told here. It is certain that M. de Vogüé's admirable article upon Tolstoi had much to do with the attention given to 'La Guerre et la Paix' upon its first appearance, for no other translation of a Russian story, though several had appeared in Paris since the days of Mérimée, had ever made any impression upon the world. Since then, however, every new translation has been widely read, and criticised in a sympathetic and generally appreciative spirit by the literary authorities in Parisian journalism, and (a still more remarkable evidence of the depth of the impression produced) many of the most promising of the younger writers especially show unmistakable signs of the influence exercised over them by the charm of the newly discovered Russian literature.

The studies of M. Ernest Dupuy upon the three great masters of the literature of modern Russia are both interesting and valuable even beside those of M. de Vogüé. In some respects M. Dupuy seems to have a finer sense of the more imaginative portions of their works, to be better able to disengage himself from the bonds of those literary opinions which have been strengthening for centuries in western Europe, and to look upon the new literature with more unprejudiced eyes than any of his predecessors. This is especially noticeable in the chapters upon Gogol, and in those portions of his work relating to what has been called the mysticism of Tolstoi. The evanescent charm of Gogol's poetic rendering of the legends of his Cossack ancestors especially is conveyed by M. Dupuy's necessarily slight sketches with a delicate insight that no other writer has shown. What he has to say about the moral and religious teachings of Tolstoi is more nearly just than anything that has appeared from the most eminent of the critics who have treated the subject. 'Ma Religion' is spoken of with the respect that it deserves, and it is summarized almost without prejudice. Probably no one to whom its central doctrine of non-resistance was entirely unfamiliar could have written more moderately. The work is sufficiently comprehensive to give to its readers a very fair appreciation of the imaginative literature of modern Russia, and at the same time short and clear enough not to repel them by a too exhaustive study of the authors chosen. M. Dupuy is as yet but little known, but this work is certainly a very promising beginning in literary criticism for a writer who, as M. Louis Léger, the Slavic scholar, says in the *Revue Critique*, has taken the pains to learn Russian in order to read in the original the authors who have delighted him.

The enthusiasm with which 'La Guerre et la Paix' was everywhere received was renewed toward the end of last summer by the publication in Paris of the long-expected translation of the second of Tolstoi's great works, 'Anna Karénine' (Paris: Hachette; New York: Christern). This had been originally published in a Russian periodical, apparently abandoned by the author in the midst of the story, and, after an interval of months, resumed and finally completed only in 1877. 'Anna Karénine' is at once the crown and the conclusion of the literary life of its author. Since its publication Tolstoi has abandoned his art for religion, as earlier in life he abandoned the world of St. Petersburg and Moscow and all the literary and social habits of his previous existence to retire to his estate in the country, where he has now lived for more than twenty years, writing, educating his children, ameliorating the condition of the peasants around him in every way, and passing through all the mental and moral vicissitudes which he has pictured so vividly in Prince Andrew Bolkonsky, in Peter Besoukhoff, and especially in Constantine Leviue. 'Anna Karénine' represents the feelings and opinions of Tolstoi during this later period of his life, as 'War and Peace' represents those of his military service during the Crimean war and of the years immediately following it, and as his first story, 'The Cossacks,' which was translated into English a few years ago by Mr. Eugene Schuyler, represents those of the earliest years of his manhood in the Caucasus. While all these books are written in a singularly impersonal manner, the impression made by the writer's individuality gradually deepens, leaving the reader in the end under the charm of a nobility and grandeur in the author and in his work such as no other fiction produces. M. de Vogüé says that after reading Tolstoi other novels seem feeble, false, and wearisome. This will not appear extravagant to those who have read 'La Guerre et la Paix' and 'Anna Karénine.' In the mind of the author, neither of them is a novel in the ordinary sense of the word. 'La Guerre et la Paix' is an exposition of a passage in the philosophical history of humanity; 'Anna Karénine' is an essay in the highest intellectual morality.

About the time that 'La Guerre et la Paix' appeared in Paris, a translation of one of the works of another Russian, Feodor Mikhailovitch Dostoyevsky, was published there. 'Humiliés et Offensés' made but little impression, however, until after M. de Vogüé's article upon its author appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, early in 1885. Just before this time a second work by Dostoyevsky, 'Crime and Chastisement,' was translated by M. Victor Derély and appeared under the title 'Le Crime et le Châtiment.' It cannot be said that the new writer has delighted his readers as Tolstoi did; but he has been read with surprise and emotion, and the sensation he has produced has been powerful if not always pleasant. Both these books are startling from their unlikeness to all other modern literature. We must go very far back, to some of the early French poets, Villon, for example, for a note at all like what we find here, and even then it is not persistent, dominating all the rest as in Dostoyevsky. To tell the story of either is an injustice, and conveys no idea of the spirit of the books. The interest is always great, sometimes painful, but it never depends upon the events which are occurring in themselves. It comes always from the manner in which, slowly, imperceptibly, the whole mind and soul of the principal personage unfold, develop, assimilate from every external circumstance something which becomes a part of themselves. 'Crime et Châtiment,' which has been called the most profound study in criminal psychology that has been written since "Macbeth," is a relation of the long struggle in a human soul between reason and conscience, between the mental powers and the moral instincts. A sentence very near the end of the book marks the culmination of this struggle: "La vie s'était substituée chez lui au raisonnement," but the idea is there from the beginning, especially in the characters of the women, in that of Sonia above all the rest. The kindred idea of the absolute moral superiority of the humble or the suffering over the strong in body or mind, of the moral danger of intellectual cultivation, is one of the characteristic ideas of Russian writers. Another similar idea, to which Dostoyevsky frequently returns, is what M. de Vogüé has called "the fundamental conception of Christianity among the Russian people," the efficacy of suffering in itself, above all of suffering in common with others.

French readers and still less English ones could hardly be expected to enjoy, unprepared, such books as 'Humiliés et Offensés' and 'Crime et Châtiment,' but no one could read them under any circumstances without the feeling that here was a strange and powerful manifestation of the genius of a race almost unknown to western civilization. The experience of the readers of Scott's and Coleridge's and Mme. de Staël's time, when German literature was first revealed to them, must have resembled in some respects that

of the present day with Russian writers. Now, however, the charm of strangeness and remoteness is intensified; the race is a different one from our own, more primitive, with ways of living and thinking and feeling often very far from anything in our experience, sometimes opposed to our most cherished opinions and beliefs. Often the things that to them are a mere matter of course shock us, or, it may be, charm us by their strangeness; as frequently what with them is revolutionary and subversive of the very foundations of government and religion, is with us the simplest matter of every-day life. The vagueness of our knowledge of all that belongs to Russia gives a corresponding poetic coloring to what we read, and adds to its charm. As we become more familiar with these strange writers, what impresses us most strongly in all of them, unlike as they are to each other, is a certain simplicity and grandeur of soul, a tenderness of nature, an inclination towards unbounded self-sacrifice, which is all as new to us as it is attractive. In none of them are these peculiarly Russian characteristics more striking than in the author of 'Crime et Châtiment'

Feodor Mikhailovitch Dostoyevsky is a strange and tragic figure. This powerful and entirely exceptional writer threw his whole being into his books in a manner that partly explains his wonderful influence over the imagination of his readers. It is not his experience which he presents, nor his opinions and beliefs; it is his whole soul, his sympathies, his visions, and his agonies—all the chaos of a tender, pitiful heart, filled with compassion for the *humiliés* and the *offensés* of the world of suffering in which his life was spent. Tortured from youth by a distressing nervous malady, by years of the bitterest poverty and struggle, of prison and exile and silence, his life was as strange as his books, and reads like a legend of the temptations and trials of some Oriental saint, and its close needs only a few added touches to complete the story with a veritable apotheosis. Among the most interesting pages of M. de Vogüé's article upon Dostoyevsky are those relating to his influence over the people, "le commun des hommes," "toutes les classes qui ne sont plus le peuple, et ne sont pas encore la bourgeoisie." In 1880, at the inauguration of Pushkin's monument, at which all the representatives of Russian literature were assembled, the popularity of Dostoyevsky overshadowed that of all his rivals. The people sobbed while he spoke; they took forcible possession of the platform in order to approach him, to touch him; young men fainted with emotion when they succeeded in coming near him. "Turgeneff has never had anything but a literary and artistic prestige," says M. de Vogüé; "Tolstoi only a philosophical influence—he addresses only the intellect. Dostoyevsky took possession of the heart, and his share in the direction of the contemporary movement has been incomparably the greatest."

Prince Kropotkin has just been discharged from prison after nearly three years of confinement, having been condemned for five years after the disturbances at Lyons. His friend, M. Élisée Reclus, had, as we noticed last week, collected the articles written by him for *Le Révolté* of Geneva from 1879 to 1882, under the title, 'Pierre Kropotkine: Paroles d'un Révolté' (Paris: New York: Christern). Those who have read 'Underground Russia' will remember Stepniak's warm tribute to this agitator, whom he calls "the most sincere and frank of men." The difference between the ultimate ideal of Tolstoi, as shown in 'Ma Religion,' and that of Kropotkin does not appear to be materially great. Both dream of an ideal future when all rule and authority shall have disappeared, and yet what a difference between the two men. Tolstoi is an apostle of love, whose doctrine of non-resistance relies only upon persuasion and the personal example of self-abnegation; Kropotkin is a man of violence, ready and eager to destroy and burn and kill whatever stands in the way of his ultimate aim. He admits "no departure from the ultra-anarchical programme." Those who wish to see this programme stated in full on many points will find it in the 'Paroles d'un Révolté' in all its brutality. The unity of this strange book lies, its editor, M. Reclus, tells us, in the "vehemence of the thought." Kropotkin may be an orator, he is no logician. He relies on the intensity of his own emotions to carry away his readers. He scarcely ever stops to prove his assertions. "There can be no doubt," "it must be admitted," "can it be denied?" are the forms of speech that recur frequently. This, together with a certain declamatory tone, makes of the book rather a curiosity than a serious exposition of the great social problems with which it deals.

The new volume of Prince J. Lubomirski, 'Une Religion nouvelle: Le Christianisme légal' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Christern), deals with subjects which it would be out of place to discuss here. The nature of the work may be surmised from the titles of the two books of which it is a continuation: 'Autour de Jérusalem: Le Christianisme et la Société,' and 'Jérusalem: Un incrédule en terre sainte.' The main idea of 'Une Religion nouvelle' seems to be that many things heretofore considered as essentially a part of religion have nothing to do with it, "et que le christianisme a toujours été une erreur philosophique."

G. CURTIUS'S LAST WORK.

Zur Kritik der neuesten Sprachforschung. Von Georg Curtius. Leipzig: S. Hirzel. 1885.

THE death of Curtius gives a pathetic interest to this his last piece of scientific work. In a little volume of 160 pages he takes up and discusses the points at issue between the old and the new school in comparative philology. He attempts to show that the radicalism of the neogrammarians, with their contemptuous treatment of the older doctrines, is hasty and scientifically ill-grounded. Not that he utterly repudiates the work of the *nuova fede;* he finds in it, on the contrary, much that is good, and he takes an obvious delight in pointing out how much of this good is really to be found in his own writings. But after all, he finds the new school beset with difficulties. To use a figure for which he is not responsible, they have vociferously jumped out of here and there an old frying-pan, and now find themselves for the most part in an entirely new fire, the scorching qualities of which, as might be imagined, Professor Curtius does not allow to go undescribed. He makes a specialty also of illustrating the often fundamental lack of harmony among the votaries of the new faith itself.

There are in the main, according to Curtius, four points in which the break of the new school with the past is most conspicuous. The first concerns what are called the laws of phonetic change. The dogma of the younger school is, that these laws are absolutely without exception. Such a principle is obviously of far-reaching importance in etymologizing. It means, when rigorously applied, that if, in two cognate languages, we alight upon two words that present to us a suspicion of historical connection, the idea of such connection must be summarily, or at least provisionally, rejected, if one of the words is found to deviate in the least from the laws of phonetic correspondence that have been found to obtain as between the two languages; provided, of course, that we cannot "explain" the deviation as due to the operation of some special cause. To illustrate: Has the English word *eye*, descended from the Anglo-Saxon *ēage* and cognate to the German *Auge*, any connection with the Latin *oculus?* Here the austere phonologist is compelled to answer, No; a word akin to the Latin *oculus* would not appear in Anglo-Saxon as *ēage*. But, on the other hand, such connection would seem to be on general grounds eminently probable. A large number of words descriptive of bodily organs are undoubtedly the same in the two languages; for example: *armus: arm, auris: ear, cor: heart, dens: tooth, gena: chin, genu: knee, nasus: nose, pes: foot*, etc. In view of this fact it appears pedantic and finical to insist that *oculus* and *ēage* can have nothing to do with each other, especially since the phonetic difficulty is, on the face of it, so small. In regard to these words, then, the old school admitted the connection, and simply postulated an "exception" to the usual laws of phonetic correspondence. The new school must either repudiate the connection, or say that it "remains to be proved." The dictionaries teem with cases of this kind, which Curtius explained as instances of "sporadic change." (It ought to be said in passing that the particular case we have chosen does not, for reasons that need not be discussed here, figure in Curtius's illustrations of sporadic change). But the new school insist that there is not and cannot be any such thing as sporadic change.

In the work before us Curtius returns to and defends his own construction of the matter, but, as it seems to us, in spite of our great admiration for the man and his work, not with entire success. For the dogma of the neogrammarians means after all only this: that for every process of phonetic change, as for every other fact in nature or in history, there is a sufficient cause. It may be that the cause is obscure. It may have lain in some fact that has utterly dropped out of our historical purview, and may be, therefore, with our best efforts irrecoverable. But a cause there was, and we shall, on the whole, do better, as a matter of scientific method, to insist severely upon some explanation of every apparent irregularity than calmly to admit into our scientific fold a herd of facts which we are compelled to label as absolutely anomalous. In other words, the axiom of the new school is in theory correct, and in practice may be made to subserve a useful purpose in promoting scientific rigor. But having said this, we wish also to say that the votaries of the new school are not as a rule any more scientifically rigorous than was Professor Curtius. It is only that their rigor, as well as their vigor, is of a little different kind.

The second point at issue concerns the value of analogy as an explanation of the apparent anomalies of phonetic change. Of this principle the elder philologists made but sparing use; the younger employ it with much readiness. To explain a difficult word-form as due to the analogy (*i. e.*, to the attracting influence) of some other word or group of words, used to be thought permissible only as a last resort; but with the new school, or at least with some of them, this has come to be a favorite method of explanation. In the mind of one enthusiast analogy has undergone a formal apotheosis, and he describes it or her as a "benign daughter of heaven" (*eine segensreiche Himmelstochter*). To Professor Curtius and, we confess, to ourselves also, this new goddess seems, like so many other feminine divinities, somewhat capricious in her operations. Under her auspices most things in philology become easy and all things possible. Is not *oculus* akin to *ēage* after all, and has not the one word or the other been perturbed from its proper phonetic orbit by the influence of some other word of similar sound? We do not remember to have seen

precisely this idea suggested, but not a little that seems to us equally shaky can be found in the literature of recent philology. Curtius's good-natured polemic against the excesses of the analogy-hunters is quite in place.

The third matter discussed is the question whether the Indo-European parent speech possessed the short vowels *e* and *o*. The old view was that it did not, and the converse of this view is one of the most widely accepted distinctive doctrines of the new school. Curtius sums up the arguments pro and con, and concludes that the now dominant theory is no better as a working hypothesis than the former one; it may have proved helpful, he admits, in Europe, but it is a stumbling-block in Asia. Into the merits of this question, which is at least considerably more important than it might seem to the unphilological reader, we cannot enter. The arguments of Curtius are certainly not without force; but that they will change, or that, upon the whole, they deserve to change, the present attitude of scholarship, few specialists will be found to admit. The final chapter of our book deals with the reluctance of the younger philologists to enter upon what are called, somewhat ponderously, glottogonic speculations. Twenty years ago many, perhaps most, comparative philologists thought they were in a fair way to find out how our Indo-European speech was originally put together—to discover the precise meaning, that is to say, not only of its roots, but also of its person and case endings, and its whole formative apparatus. Now complete agnosticism reigns with regard to these matters, as with regard to ultimate questions in so many other departments of thought. How long this *Nichtwisserei* will last in philology, whether it will endure through the century or even through another decade, it would be idle to attempt to foretell. Curtius thought that the present generation was over-cautious in this matter, and that at least a small part of the earlier "glottogony" will still pass muster. However one may think of this, it certainly is true that these questions of origin, if we could hope to find satisfactory answers to them, would be precisely the most interesting questions of comparative philology.

In our meagre review of Curtius's last work, it has been our chief aim merely to give an account of the veteran philologist's final attitude upon the pivotal questions of his science. For anything more than that, especially for any real discussion of his views upon their merits, or of the rejoinders which have already been made and will doubtless be made hereafter, this was not the place. It only remains to add a word concerning the admirable style and method of the book. Here, all unabated, is the old artistic clearness of exposition, and here is the very temper in which a great scholar might well wish to pass from his labors. This last little book, like the former greater ones, evinces not only thoroughness and intellectual keenness—qualities that are common enough, as all the world knows, among German scholars; it shows us also a placid and genial mind, a controlling sense of scientific decorum, a serene superiority to acrimonious contention, and a singleness of devotion to the cause of science. These qualities are not universal among German philologists, although in the possession of such traits there is one imperial German model. With the name of Jacob Grimm posterity need not shrink from coupling that of Georg Curtius.

The Principles of Expression in Pianoforte Playing. By Adolph F. Christiani. Harper & Bros.

THE circumstances under which this book appears are so sad as to invest it with a sentimental personal interest that would mollify adverse criticism, were it called for, which is by no means the case. On the contrary, the book is one which every pianist in the country, elementary or advanced, should carefully read and take to heart. Twenty years ago the author, who was one of the most esteemed piano teachers of this vicinity, began to meditate on certain problems connected with the proper execution of his art, and concerning which there was a remarkable absence of information in musical text-books. Five years ago he began to devote all his leisure time to putting his thoughts into shape on paper; and after much trouble in securing a subscription list large enough to tempt a publisher, the work was at last on the point of appearing when the author suddenly died.

The subject is one which is neglected even by many public performers and intelligent amateurs who ought to know the value and charm of expression in music. Many, from mere carelessness, pay hardly any heed to the numerous signs of shading, in time and loudness, sudden or gradual, momentary or prolonged, with which musical scores, especially those of the modern schools, abound. This class of musicians, even though they should be familiar with most of the principles explained in Christiani's book, would usefully learn from it the futility of mere execution, without intellectual and emotional expression. Facile execution, in fact, has become such an every-day affair that critics at the present day take it for granted in a concert-giver, and devote their attention almost entirely to considering how far he has mastered the principles of expression, as explained in Mr. Christiani's work.

Among the lessons which the author impresses on the pupil's memory are the necessity of accenting discords, and the reasons why; the abomination of playing accompaniments and accompanying parts so loud that the leading melody is drowned; the importance of emphasizing hidden melodic strains—analogous to the new light thrown on a poetic line by the accents of an intelligent actor; the necessity of distinctly bringing out the basses, etc. One of the best chapters is that which explains the peculiarities of accents in national dances—Austrian, Polish, Spanish, Hungarian, and Scotch. Certain proposed emendations in the notation of pianoforte music are very sensible. Some of the greatest composers have often adopted a needlessly complicated and obscure mode of writing down their thoughts, as is shown by numerous quotations in musical type, placed side by side with a simplified version. A clear understanding of this matter will convince amateurs that in buying their music they can save themselves many misconceptions and much useless study by choosing not the cheapest editions, but those which bear the names of the best editors, as, for instance, Bülow's edition of Beethoven's sonatas, and Klindworth's edition of Chopin. On page 80, however, Mr. Christiani goes too far in his proposed simplification of the notation of Schumann's "Faschingsschwank." It is a subtle point that cannot be explained in a few words, but to our feeling the passage loses its rhythmic peculiarity by the alteration suggested.

About one-half of Mr. Christiani's book is taken up with well-chosen illustrations in musical type. The text is divided into very short paragraphs—almost to a comical excess in some instances. There is a German tendency toward too much classification and subdivision, but the language is always clear, and has that directness which only a teacher can give who has for years endeavored to make himself intelligible to pupils who are often obtuse. This necessity probably induced him to give the following graphic and amusing illustration of a fundamental law in music, that an ascending melody or passage demands a crescendo, and a descending melody or passage a diminuendo:

"I remember a little scene at a European fish-market. One of the fishwives said something which displeased another one. A quarrel ensued. Immediately a crescendo of both their voices commenced, not only by an increase of lung-power, but by a simultaneous rising in pitch of the voice, until, at the climax, the loudest as well as the highest screaming was attained. At that moment a well-dressed customer approached, and, as business was paramount to passion, the women instantly calmed down. The voices fell in a surprisingly short diminuendo both in pitch and power, and the height of crescendo was succeeded by a sudden lull."

The Fall of Constantinople: Being the story of the Fourth Crusade. By Edwin Pears, LL.B., Barrister-at-law, late President of the European bar at Constantinople, and Knight of the Greek Order of the Saviour. Harper & Bros. 8vo, pp. 422.

MR PEARS, a long resident of Constantinople, has written an excellent history of one of the most important events in its annals—the capture of the city by the crusaders in 1204, which he considers "the necessary prelude to the Ottoman conquest in 1453." "Constantinople had been for centuries," he says, "the strongest bulwark of defence against Asia." Its capture at this time "was the cause which brought about the fall of the Roman Empire in the East, and rendered its ultimate capture by the Turks both certain and easy." While, however, he points out the fatal weakening of the Empire which resulted from this conquest, he shows at great length the pre-existing causes of weakness which made it fall an easy prey to this attack—causes so serious as to make one question whether the blow received at this time was in reality so vital. As a matter of fact, the resistance in 1453 seems to have been fully as vigorous as that in 1204. These causes, by the way, are described in five chapters, which treat respectively of the Seljukin Turks, the neighbors on the north, dynastic troubles, the previous crusades, and Western enemies, in relation to the weakening of the Empire. These chapters present the results of careful study, and are severally excellent discussions of their subject. But they suffer for want of a general view. If another chapter had been inserted at the beginning, giving a brief general sketch of the history of the Empire during the twelfth century, it would have made these chapters much clearer, and it need not have added much to the bulk of the book, because it would have prevented the necessity of some repetitions, and would have allowed greater compression. Mr. Pears is himself so much at home in the confused annals of this century that it does not occur to him that some of his readers may not be as familiar with the houses of Commenos and Angelos as with the Bourbons and Hapsburgs.

After describing these causes of weakness, in five long chapters, occupying nearly half of the volume, he disposes of the crusade in eleven shorter chapters, and it is one of the most lamentable and discreditable events in history. The great body of the crusaders are shown to have been sincerely anxious to carry out their vows, and indignant at the miscarriage of their enterprise; but they were caught in a trap, and found themselves, through the perfidy and selfish ambition of their leaders, forced to help in the abhorred work of capturing two Christian cities, one after the other. And the events of the final capture and sack of Constantinople afford another humiliating illustration of the ease with which men, when they have once compromised with their sense of right, fall into deeper and deeper shame and sin. "Never in Europe was a work of pillage more systematically and shamelessly carried out. Never by the

army of a Christian State was there a more barbarous sack of a city than that perpetrated by these soldiers of Christ, sworn to chastity, pledged before God not to shed Christian blood, and bearing upon them the emblem of the Prince of Peace." "Their abstinence and their chastity once abandoned, they plunged at once into orgies of every kind" (p. 354).

The responsibility for the change of plan which converted a hopeful crusade into a mere enterprise of greed and ambition, is by our author divided between three or four; but it appears to rest chiefly upon the Venetian Republic, with their doge, Henry Dandolo. The Republic had made a contract to transport the crusaders to Egypt for a certain sum; but a large number of the crusaders had chosen to embark at a different port, so that not enough were gathered at Venice to fill the ships provided, nor had they the money to fulfil their part of the contract. Under these circumstances the capture of Zara in behalf of Venice might perhaps have been pardoned as being a service equivalent to the debt which they owed. The Venetians may have been justified in insisting upon the exact fulfilment of the contract, but for their bad faith in entering into a secret treaty with the Sultan of Egypt, by which they agreed not to transport the crusaders there. This is at least the view adopted by the writer (p. 269), in agreement with Hopf; but it should be noted that it is not accepted by all historians. At any rate, the conduct of the Venetians is in harmony with the theory, as they seem to have in every way evaded the fulfilment of the contract, even after the crusaders, by the capture of Zara, had met their obligations. However this may have been, the leaders of the crusade were themselves hardly less guilty, and Mr. Pears makes it probable that the elected leader, Boniface of Montferrat, had, even before the treachery of the Venetians, entered into a secret agreement with the Emperor Philip to turn the crusade against Constantinople in behalf of the young Prince Alexis, Philip's brother-in-law. Dandolo, too, appears to have had a deep-seated animosity against Constantinople. There seems to have been no other leader prominent enough and energetic enough to withstand the intrigues of these three. Of all the personages active in the affair, Pope Innocent III. is the only one who comes out of it with credit. He protested against the iniquitous scheme at every stage, excommunicated the transgressors, and, when the work was consummated, addressed them a letter of indignant reproach. Nevertheless, he was powerless, and, when it was accomplished, could not help hoping that it would result in healing the schism in Christendom.

Among incidental points of interest we find an account of the system of land-holding in Asia Minor (p. 31); an account of the "Warings" or Varangians, whom the author identifies with the Varini of Tacitus (p. 153); and a description, of considerable value in the history of international law, of the "capitulations" or agreements with foreigners, regulating the conditions under which they have resided in Constantinople, and their rights there. This system appears to have begun with the Warings early in the tenth century, and to have continued to the present day. On page 384 Philip is erroneously called King of Swabia, probably by a slip. Elsewhere he is called Swabian King and Duke of Swabia, both of which titles may be considered correct, as he was Duke of Swabia, and thus a Swabian king of Germany.

A Series of Character Sketches from Dickens, from Original Drawings by Frederick Barnard, reproduced in Photogravure. Cassell & Co. 1885.

THIS is the third series of these interesting studies. The present reproductions by the Goupil process of Mr. Barnard's drawings are certainly better as works of art than the prints of the first series; but whether as character-studies these are as good as the former ones is a different question. The matter of expression in face and gesture is not subject to hard-and-fast rules of excellence, and easily misled are they who mistake their associations and their early conception of a character for demonstrable fact, and look for it in the graphic artist's design. But without falling into Michelet's error of correcting history by the portraits in the Louvre, let us say that Captain Cuttle looks to us shrewd and hard rather than the gentle innocent we find in Dickens; that Micawber is as nearly as possible nobody at all, and Uriah Heep very conventional, to say the least. On the other hand, "Dick Swiveller and the Marchioness" is an admirable design, with the two characters (and those, to us, the most charming in all Dickens's volumes) perfectly seized and capitally rendered. "Bob Cratchet and Tiny Tim" is also an excellent design.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ames, C. G. George Eliot's Two Marriages. 4th ed. Philadelphia: G. H. Buchanan & Co. 20 cents.
Bancroft, H. H. History of Alaska, 1730-1885. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Beattie, F. R. An Examination of the Utilitarian Theory of Morals. Brantford, Ont.: J. & J. Sutherland.
Bookwalter, J. W. Home and International Trade. Brentano Bros. 50 cents.
Bourget, P. Psychologie contemporaine. Boston: Schoenhof.
Browne, Irving. Iconoclasm and Whitewash, and Other Papers. J. O. Wright.
Buchheim, C. A. Modern German Reader. Part II. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Browning, Oscar. The Despatches of Earl Gower, English Ambassador at Paris from June, 1790, to August, 1792. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press.
Channing, W. E. Eliot: a Poem. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Combes, F. Mme. de Sévigné historien. Boston: Schoenhof.
Cummings, E. C. Nature in Scripture: A Study in Bible Verification in the Range of Common Experience. Portland, Me.: Hoyt, Fogg & Donham. $1.50.
Curtis, G. T. McClellan's Last Service to the Republic, together with a Tribute to his Memory. D. Appleton & Co. 30 cents.
Dreyspring, E. Easy Lessons in German. D. Appleton & Co.
Daudet, A. Tartarin sur les Alpes. Boston: Schoenhof.
Dunning, Charlotte. Cabin and Gondola: Short Stories. Harper & Bros. 30 cents.
Eliot, W. G. The Story of Archer Alexander: From Slavery to Freedom, March 30, 1863. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Ellerton, E. A Fatal Resemblance: A Novel. F. P. Lennon.
England, as Seen by an American Banker: Notes of a Pedestrian Tour. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.50.
Farwell, Mrs. M. E. C. Common Sense in the Care of the Pet Canary. Murray Hill Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Flaubert, Gustave. Oeuvres Complètes. Vol. 6 and last. Trois Contes, suivis de Mélanges Inédits. Paris: A. Quantin.
Freeman, H. On Speech Formation as the Basis for True Spelling. London: Trübner & Co.
Fuller, Josephine R. The Haunted Life. [Temperance Library.] Funk & Wagnalls. 15 cents.
Gay, Elinor. Skilful Susy: A Book for Fairs and Bazars. Funk & Wagnalls. 50 cents.
Gellatly, F. Love made to Order, and Other Comedies. Chicago, O.: Knight & Leonard.
Gilbert, W. S. Original Comic Operas. Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Hayes, Henry. The Story of Margaret Kent: A Novel. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
History of the School of the Collegiate Reformed Dutch Church in the City of New York from 1633 to 1883. 2d ed. Board of Publication Reformed Dutch Church. $2.20.
Hall, E. The Master of L'Étrange: A Novel. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.25.
Hoyt, H. M. Protection versus Free Trade. D. Appleton & Co. $2.
Homiletic Review. Vol. X. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
Howells, W. D. The Garroters: A Farce. Harper & Bros.
Hittell, T. H. History of California, Vol. I. San Francisco: Occidental Publishing Co. $5.
Johnson, C. F. Three Americans and Three Englishmen: Lectures Read before the Students of Trinity College, Hartford. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Kropotkine, Pierre. Paroles d'un Révolté. F. W. Christern.
Last Days at Arswich: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Lemaître, J. Les contemporains. Boston: Schoenhof.
Leroy-Beaulieu, A. Les Catholiques libéraux. Boston: Schoenhof.
Library of Wonders: The Wonders of Pompeii, by Marc Monnier; Wonders of Acoustics, by Rodolphe Radau; Thunder and Lightning, by W. de Fonvielle. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 each.
Littell's Living Age. Fifth Series, Vol. LII. October, November, December, 1885. Boston: Littell & Co.
Lowe, Charles. Prince Bismarck: An Historical Biography. 2 vols. Cassell & Co. $5.
Lodge, H. C. The Works of Alexander Hamilton. Vol. VI. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Loiseau, A. Histoire de la littérature portugaise. Paris: Thorin; Boston: Schoenhof.
Lyford, Rev. C. P. The Mormon Problem: An Appeal to the American People. Phillips & Hunt. $1.
Lyall, Edna. Donovan—A Modern Englishman: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Marryat, Captain. Masterman Ready. F. Warne & Co. $2.
Mason, L. W. New Third Music Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35 cents.
McCarthy, Justin H. England under Gladstone, 1880-1885. Second edition revised and enlarged. Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Morrison, D. H. The Treasury of Song for the Home Circle. Philadelphia: Hubbard Bros. $2.50.
Murphy, J. N. The Chair of Peter. New ed. Catholic Publication Society.
O'Donoghue, Nannie P. Unfairly Won: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Pétit de Julleville, L. Les comédiens en France au moyen-âge. Boston: Schoenhof.
Phelps, A. My Study, and Other Essays. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Piano Classics by the Best Composers. Boston: Oliver Ditson & Co.
Porter, R. P. Bread-Winners Abroad. J. S. Ogilvie & Co. $1.
Pressensé, Mme. E. de. Geneviève. Boston: Schoenhof.
Reception Day, No. 4. A Collection of Dialogues, Recitations, etc. E. L. Kellogg & Co. 25 cents.
Ritch, W. G. Aztlan: The History, Resources, and Attractions of New Mexico. 6th ed. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Ritter, F. L. Manual of Musical History. Charles Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.
Ruskin, J. The King of the Golden River, or the Black Brothers. Classics for Children. Boston: Ginn & Co. 20 cents.
Roe, Mary A. A Long Search. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Russell, W. Clark. In the Middle Watch: Sea Stories. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Vetoes by the Governor of Pennsylvania of Bills Passed by the Legislature at the Session of 1885. Harrisburg: State Printer.

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1885		1,339,525 10
Total Marine Premiums		$5,196,143 76
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1885, to 31st December, 1885		$3,770,094 30
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Returns of Premiums and Expenses	776,712 42	
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Cash in Bank		228,897 88
Amount		$12,740,326 46

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 28, 1886.

The Week.

GENERAL LOGAN is a Senator with whose political views we often have to disagree, but there is a certain manliness about his methods which commands the public respect. This quality was displayed during the fortnight after the Presidential election of 1884, when he accepted defeat in dignified silence, while Mr. Blaine was secretly trying to find some way of getting around the popular verdict, and openly abusing the majority of the national jury for deciding against him the case which he had submitted to them. The same quality was again exhibited on Thursday, when the Illinois Senator made a vigorous attempt to persuade his colleagues to consider all executive business hereafter with open doors. General Logan declared that the people of the United States had as much right to know what was said and done in regard to nominations as in regard to legislation, that they were equally interested in both, and that it would be to the advantage of the Senate, the President, the public, and the men whose nominations were under consideration, to have the doors kept open, and all the proceedings of the Senate conducted in the presence of the people. This is the exact truth, and General Logan deserves the heartiest praise for violating all the precedents of the body to which he belongs, and declaring for the rights of the public. The Senate rejected his proposition by an overwhelming majority, but it will have to accept his platform one of these days. The unrepublican, un-American secret session, which is a survival of the worst traditions of the "effete despotisms of Europe," must be abolished.

Senator Van Wyck, of Nebraska, has been sedulously and for a long time earning for himself the title of the buffoon of the Senate. If anybody had thought of disputing that distinction with him, the futility of such rivalship became apparent on his introducing a bill to prohibit the making of contracts payable in gold. Even in the height of crass foolishness which overtook Congress in the dark days of the war, when gold was an object of mingled detestation and alarm, and when the law-making power was invoked to "strike it down," nobody thought of prohibiting gold contracts. The short-lived anti-gold bill of Thaddeus Stevens merely prohibited gold contracts in cases where the gold was not actually delivered, *i. e.*, ordinary gold-room contracts, where only "differences" were paid by buyers and sellers. Anybody who wanted to buy or sell gold by the process of actual delivery remained at full liberty to do so. The well-remembered effect of the Stevens anti-gold law was to put up the price of gold from about 220 to 280 within a few days, at the end of which time the law was repealed, much to the humiliation of its advocates. It is not to be supposed that Mr. Van Wyck is serious about this matter. If he is, then he is serious for the first time within public recollection.

We have much pleasure in calling the attention of our unfortunate contemporary, the *Sun*, to the unanimous report of the Civil-Service Committee of the House against all the bills repealing or modifying the Civil-Service Law. If it inquires the cause of this untoward event, we can inform it that the explanation has been furnished of late in its own columns. It is due in part to the hypocrisy of the Jeffersonians in the House, who hate the law, but see that it would damage them to attack it; so they basely pretend to like it and let it alone. It is due in part, also, as Judge Seney says, who brought in one of the repealing bills, to the fact that Republicans like it because it ties the hands of the Democrats, and "a good many Democrats favor it because it takes a good deal of trouble off their hands and they are not troubled by applicants for office." This is correct, but what a picture it presents of the political morals of the Jeffersonians—some so deceitful, according to one correspondent of the *Sun*, that they pretend to like the law when they hate it; and some so selfish and lazy, according to another, that they favor it because it saves them trouble.

Two notable cases of "abandonment" have taken place within a short time which have not attracted so much attention as they deserved. The first occurred on the 9th inst., at Providence, R. I., when ex-Senator Hill, of Colorado, formally repudiated international bimetallism, declaring that it is "repugnant to the experience and practice of the world for thousands of years. Never," he added, "until Cernuschi made his appearance as a financial discoverer, was the doctrine heard of that it was necessary to the use of the metals as the world's money that they should both be used as money in every country." Mr. Hill then made an argument to show that the United States is able "to turn the scale in favor of silver" by its own unaided strength. Being himself perhaps the largest producer of silver in the country, he would lend a great deal of strength to the effort required to turn the scale. Incidentally he trod heavily on the toes of the capitalist classes, whom he called "financial Pharaohs." We are not surprised to find that Mr. Hill has a low opinion of all such. Indeed, we were prepared to expect it by his recent denunciations of Senator Teller, whose election to the place formerly occupied by Hill was ascribed by him to the influence of overweening "organizations of wealth"; leading us to infer that a poor man like Hill has no chance in Colorado. One statement of fact in Mr. Hill's Providence speech we must really take exceptions to. He says that "an importation of silver from Europe is impossible because that continent has no stock except its coinages, in which silver is rated about 3 per cent. higher than it is in our dollars and more than 20 per cent. higher than it will command to-day in our markets." It was officially communicated to the last Paris monetary conference that the German Government had about $75,000,000 worth of silver *bullion* to dispose of, and one of the stipulations talked of was that Germany should agree not to sell this silver for some years to come, provided the other governments would agree to open their mints to free coinage. We have not heard of the selling of this silver by Germany since the adjournment of the conference, and even if it has been sold it has probably not been swallowed by anybody, but must exist somewhere in the form of bullion, and therefore cannot be 20 per cent. or any per cent. higher in price "than it will command to-day in our markets."

The other case of abandonment occurred nearer home. The guilty party, we regret to say, is our esteemed Butler contemporary, the *Sun*, which has not only abandoned international bimetallism, but all kinds of bimetallism, and declared itself for the single silver standard in these words:

> "Thus monometallism seems to be the only safe and wise course. By our present legislation this country is moving surely though slowly away from gold, which is now our standard, toward silver. There seems to be no possibility of arresting this movement. Congress cannot be brought to repeal the present law providing for a steady coinage of silver; and, although the operation of this law is slow and gradual, it is sure, and, after a few years more under it, silver will be our only standard money, and the gold will be gone. Will this result be good? Will it be beneficial? *We think so*, and we see no good reason for travelling any longer toward the benefit by the slow and circuitous route that we have hitherto pursued."

The depositors in our savings banks who have been laying up gold or gold value these many years against a rainy day, may be angered against the *Sun* for supporting a policy which avowedly aims to reduce the value of their savings 20 per cent., but they should bear in mind that its course is the result of "honest conviction," and that it is designed to reduce the amount of evil in the world, by gradually extirpating its proverbial root, money. As for the capitalists, they are all (except ex-Senator Hill and the editor of the Chicago *Tribune*) so hardened to the existence of evil that they will stick to gold through thick and thin. We recommend them, now that there is plainly an abandonment of bimetallism on the part of the silverites, to abandon it also, and adopt for their own the query of Mr. Stanley Matthews, "What have we to do with abroad?" It is time to stop fooling with Paris conferences and get in line of battle for the gold standard and nothing else.

There are encouraging signs that sound ideas as to the government of cities are slowly winning acceptance in this country. A striking evidence of this tendency, which has not received the attention that it merits, is to be found in Governor Foraker's recent inaugural address. Ohio is the last State in the Union from which one would expect to hear sound doctrine on such a theme, and Mr. Foraker, judging him from his bloody-shirt tirades on the stump, is the last man one would expect to hear preaching such doctrine. It is, therefore, the more noteworthy that he should have given the Legislature one of the best recent contributions to the discussion of the municipal problem. The Governor points out very forcibly the chief defect of the traditional

system of city government, in the fact that responsibility is so divided among a multitude of officials that nobody can be held to account, the result being that "practically the entire city government falls into the hands of men selected without that care and consideration that should be exercised." He recognizes that there is only one remedy—"a fixing of responsibility so there may be accountability"; and only one way of applying it—"there should therefore be the fewest possible number of elective officials." If the duties of an office are not important enough to impress the people who elect the incumbent with the necessity of care in his selection, he holds that the office should either be abolished or be filled by appointment. He therefore recommends that the whole subject of municipal government in Ohio be carefully investigated, and meanwhile advises the law-makers not only to stop multiplying elective boards or minor officials of any sort, but to abolish all unnecessary boards now in existence, and make such changes in the laws as will impose upon mayors the duty of appointing such boards as may be necessary. To the objection that this would be conferring too much power and authority on one man, his answer is the sufficient one that "the importance of the trust is calculated to induce the people to select only worthy and competent men, and the fact that there cannot be any evasion in such case of accountability will be the strongest incentive to a faithful discharge of duty."

For some years past Massachusetts has regulated the liquor traffic by a local-option system, which allows any city or town to decide by popular vote whether the sale shall be licensed, and, if so, leaves the local authorities to determine how many licenses shall be granted. There are 348 cities and towns in the State. Half-a-dozen towns did not vote on the question last year; 230 refused to grant licenses; and 112, including nearly all the cities, voted in favor of license. The aggregate vote in favor of license was 92,419, and against the system 81,161. There was thus a majority in the State of 11,258 for license, although about two-thirds of the municipalities declared against the principle. Nearly 10,000 of this majority was contributed by Boston. It would thus require but a small change in public sentiment to produce a majority in favor of absolute prohibition throughout the State upon a general vote on this question. The Prohibitionists would consider it a great victory for their cause if they could secure a popular majority in their favor in this way, but such a majority would not at all affect the vital question, which is how most effectually to restrict the sale of liquor in places where public sentiment will not sustain prohibition. If the question had been submitted to the voters of Massachusetts last year whether any licenses should be granted anywhere within its limits, and 6,000 men in the smaller towns had voted no instead of yes, there would have been a majority in the State against any licenses, but with Boston voting 19,621 to 10,445, or almost two to one, for license, and therefore against prohibition, the result would simply have been that liquor would have continued to be sold in Boston, because the local sentiment of that city sustains the sale, while the public treasury would have lost the $502,340 which was paid into it by the sellers under the license system.

The decision of Judge Brewer in the United States Circuit Court at Topeka, which declares that the State of Kansas must make good to the owners of a brewery in Lawrence the value of property which was virtually confiscated by the enactment of the prohibitory law, is obviously just. Before 1880 the brewing of beer was as free from restriction in Kansas as the milling of flour, and when the Legislature enacted a statute forbidding the further brewing of beer, it made every brewery worthless. To pass such a law without compensating the owners of breweries for the losses thus imposed upon them is simply to legalize robbery by society in its organized capacity. The Federal courts are bound to protect the injured citizen in his rights if he can secure no redress from the State, and there is no doubt that the Supreme Court will sustain Judge Brewer if the case is carried to Washington. Section 1 of the Fourteenth Amendment provides that "no State shall deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law," and the highest tribunal has already gone on record, in the case of Bartemeyer vs. Iowa, some years ago, as holding that, while a State may regulate, and even prohibit, the traffic in intoxicating liquors, it may not deprive the owner of property in which he had invested under a permissive system, without making him due amends. The decision is of more practical importance in Iowa than in Kansas. The latter State has never gone extensively into the manufacture of liquors of any kind, but the census of 1880 showed that Iowa had 114 establishments for the production of malt liquors and three distilleries, which reported an aggregate capital of about $2,100,000. But it must be remembered that this represents only the value returned for purposes of assessment and taxation, and that the actual investment was much greater than this estimate. The larger share of this was undoubtedly invested in buildings and machinery, which prohibition rendered worthless, and the State is thus bound by Judge Brewer's decision to pay over some millions to the people who were interested in such establishments when the law was passed—or, rather, the State would be bound to such a course if the law were enforced, for we believe it is a fact that some of the largest breweries in Iowa are still in operation.

The wisdom of deliberation about the admission of Territories into the Union is not enforced alone by the nation's sad experience with Nevada. Most people have forgotten all about it by this time, but it is a fact that nearly twelve years ago, in May, 1874, the House of Representatives, then Republican by more than two to one, voted by an overwhelming majority to admit New Mexico into the Union, and that only the conservatism of the Senate saved the country from having the little band of "greasers" in that Territory wielding as much power in the upper branch of Congress to-day as the five millions of people in New York. The utter untrustworthiness of politicians' estimates of population was strikingly shown in the case of New Mexico. One advocate of admission in 1874 declared that the Territory had then at least 130,000 people, while the census of 1880 showed only 119,565. The history of the country proves that the nation has never regretted delay in erecting a Territory into a State, while in the case of Nevada it suffers serious harm from undue haste, and in the case of New Mexico must rejoice at its narrow escape from a blunder that would have been no less serious. The moral is plain in the cases of Montana, Washington, and Dakota, which are now under discussion. The two former should wait at least until the question of their boundaries is decided by dividing northern Idaho between them, while nothing should be done about Dakota until it is made clear by a decisive test whether a majority of the people in the Territory favor the pending scheme for its division, which there is strong reason to doubt.

Florida has been making steady and rapid progress ever since it emerged from the conflicts and confusion of the reconstruction period nine years ago. Northern people have been settling there in large numbers, and the development of the State has gone forward with a speed that quite amazed the survivors of the slow-going era before the war. There is, however, reason to believe that Florida has suffered a serious check during the past month. The "cold spell" has undoubtedly frightened a great many intending settlers out of the idea of going where the mercury has shown itself capable of sinking almost as low as it falls in New York city, and it will be many years before the memory of the damage inflicted upon the orange crop in the opening days of 1886 will cease to deter the Northern prospector who is of a cautious turn of mind. News of the unexpected harshness of nature has unfortunately been accompanied by reports of frauds on the part of man which will perhaps prove even more serious in their effect. During the past few weeks a number of speculators have done a great business in selling Florida lands to people who knew nothing at all about what they were buying. It turns out, as might have been expected, that some advertisements have flagrantly misrepresented the facts, and that thousands of people have been paying good money for bad land. Some of the swindles appear to be as outrageous as have ever been known in the long history of such frauds in this country, and the exposures will inevitably prejudice people against the State so strongly that it will be hard work for the owners of good land in Florida to sell it for a long time to come. It is, by the way, a remarkable illustration of popular credulity that men and women who would never think of accepting another person's representations about a piece of goods which they contemplated buying in their own city, but would insist upon examining into the matter themselves, will swallow any story, however absurd on its face, about real estate in a remote part of the country.

The discovery of a case of "Irish landlordism" in Illinois, Kansas, and Nebraska, all

carried on by one man, a certain Scully, of "Celtic birth," which is reported in the morning papers, is very startling, and shows what an insidious thing this "Irish landlordism" is. It appears that Scully lives in London, and yet he "builds up his system" in any State of the Union he pleases. "His rule," it appears, "has reduced two hundred and fifty (250) tenants," in one county in Illinois, and their families, "to a state of serfdom." His process is to make them sign agreements to pay rent and taxes, and sell their grain always in the fall, no matter what the state of the market may be, and he notifies the grain-dealers not to buy of the tenants till his rent is paid. How the dealers are kept from buying, or how they are all notified, the report does not say, but presumably with bloodhounds. Nor does the report set out why Scully's serfs do not run away, but presumably he chains them to the soil, mediæval fashion. If he would only live here, he might be shot, but the cunning Celtic rascal keeps himself in London, and collects his rents in the regular Irish fashion, through an agent who probably transmits the money to him in *gold*. The affair is very startling, and calls for some action on the part of somebody.

Gladstone's splendid opening of the session of Parliament on Thursday, winning over the Irish, overpowering the mutinous Liberals, and bringing Parnell to his feet to talk like a statesman, is undoubtedly one of the most important events of the day. It was the best possible answer to the words of sullen and somewhat brutal defiance which Salisbury, after much backing and filling, at the last moment, had the audacity to put into the mouth of the Queen. His proverbial good fortune was never more apparent than in the way he has again foiled his enemies. The Tories had prepared a careful ambuscade for him by which he was to bring in a resolution providing for the legislative independence of Ireland, on which the Ministry was to fall and then go to the country in defence of "the unity of the empire." Lord Salisbury, however, overreached himself in his preparations, because he put into the Queen's speech a threat against the Irish for doing a perfectly constitutional thing—namely, seeking the repeal of an act of Parliament—for the Union rests simply on an act like another, which Parliament may any day repeal. This gave Gladstone and the Irish an excellent excuse for debating the Irish question without pushing their arguments home, or producing any programme, and furnished both with an occasion for the display of their very best oratory, and left the Ministry in a position of great embarrassment.

Lord Salisbury's Ministry has come to an end, sooner, probably, than its enemies expected. For a few weeks after the election its prospects were considered very gloomy, but its position was considered to have sensibly improved after it had leaked out that Mr. Gladstone was ready to concede to the Irish some form of home rule. The burst of indignation which this excited in "society," and in the clubs, and among the Whigs, led the Tory chiefs very naturally to regard it as a blunder which was to give the battle to their hands, and they made elaborate preparations to take advantage of it. They raised the cry of danger to the empire, got the Queen to open Parliament in person with much pomp as a sort of solemn protest against it, and made her speak of the Act of Union as a "fundamental law," and of the Irish agitation for its repeal as if it were treasonable, and then prepared to meet Gladstone and the Irish on this ground, and, if defeated, to dissolve Parliament on the Union issue.

The expectation of the Ministry undoubtedly was that on this occasion the amendment would relate to the Irish question, and would raise the home-rule issue at once, and that on this the Ministry could well afford to be defeated, and dissolve Parliament. But the Opposition were too shrewd for them. They discussed the Irish question, giving Parnell and Sexton a chance to make very quieting and moderate speeches, but they attacked the address in the interest of the new county voters. Mr. Collings, who more particularly represents the labor interest in the House, moved an amendment deploring the omission from the Queen's speech of all proposals for legislation in aid of the acquisition of small holdings by laborers in the country districts. This, whatever may be the economic or other objections to it, is something on which it would be useless to dissolve. In an election on this issue the Conservatives would probably lose every county. Accordingly, when defeated on it, there was nothing for them but to go out of office, and this they are to do to-day.

The great success of Mr. Sexton's speech in the House of Commons on Friday night does not foreshadow an immediate success for the Home-Rulers. But it shows what is really an immense advance, viz., that the Irish question has at last taken firm hold of English public opinion. Formerly, paying serious attention to what Irishmen said about it was the last thing Englishmen and Scotchmen in the House thought of. In fact, an Irish debate, initiated by Irish members, used generally to drive the Englishmen away. Parnell began to be listened to more or less attentively after the Land League was formed in 1881, but Sexton, the only one of the Home-Rulers who makes any show as an orator, generally addressed empty benches. With eighty-five votes behind him, and talking with a certain authority on the great topic of the day, he will probably gain in power, and in some degree revive the old traditions of Irish Parliamentary eloquence, which in the hands of the Parnellites have well-nigh died out. There is in the last *Contemporary Review* a clever dialogue between Parnell and the Shade of Grattan, in which the former, however, ably defends the failure of himself and his followers to maintain the old glories of Irish oratory, by pointing to the greater success of their own methods in impressing themselves on the English mind.

The Greeks armed in 1877, and prepared to assist the Montenegrins in attacking the Turks, but (they said in deference to the urgent remonstrances of England and the other Powers) refrained from taking any part in the conflict. They then found that at the Berlin Conference, as usual, their peaceable demeanor, instead of securing consideration for them, made them objects of contempt to the "blood and iron" men, and they got with great difficulty only a small extension of their frontier in Epirus. Even this, however, the Turks refused to surrender, when the Conference was over, and only after much parleying, and after considerable pressure from Mr. Gladstone, who had come into power, the Greeks got a part, little over half, of what the Conference awarded them. This was a very mortifying result, and it was made more so by the fact that Greece was the only one of the small States surrounding Turkey in Europe which had not fired a shot or lost a man in the great Russo-Turkish struggle. She has now armed again, but, as before, the Bulgarians and Servians had fought and made peace before the Greeks could bring themselves to strike a blow, and they are once more threatened with a settlement of the Balkan question which will leave them out in the cold. They are very proud, however, and dread keenly the European laughter which their second fiasco would excite—the more keenly because they have managed until now to keep up a very respectable military reputation based on their War of Independence. A second taking of the field without fighting would, however, not leave a shred of this reputation, and would destroy all chance of a proper share of the spoils in the final distribution of the Turkish Empire which every one feels is approaching. So they go forth either to fight or to find somebody who will prevent their fighting by overwhelming force, which will answer their purpose perhaps nearly as well. If the British fleet will not let them attack the Turks, it will serve nearly the same purpose as attacking the Turks, and be much less expensive.

The precarious position of the Salisbury Ministry in England has naturally encouraged the Greeks to disregard the British prohibition against attacking Turkey—the more as England is the only Power likely to impede their naval operations. They have only three ironclads and about a dozen other vessels of iron or wood, a squadron of gunboats, and about sixty torpedo-boats. The Turks, on the other hand, have 3 first-class, 4 second-class, and 8 third-class ironclads, but hardly anything else. There has been talk of equipping a number of torpedo-boats, but it has not come to anything, we believe, for want of funds. Of this fleet the Greeks are not in the least afraid, relying, as in 1821, on their immensely superior seamanship. In fact, as regards officers and crews, no comparison is possible, and it is very doubtful whether the Turkish ships would venture outside the Dardanelles, and expose themselves to the dauntless courage and ingenuity of the Greek cruisers, which has, there is every reason to believe, in no way declined since the days of Kanaris. There is, too, to-day a firm belief, in Greece, that it is only necessary to fight gallantly to enlist the sympathies of Europe in any contest with the Turks. The experience of Montenegro and Servia and Bulgaria seems to demonstrate this.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 20, to TUESDAY, January 26, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN the United States Senate on Wednesday, Mr. Morrill (Rep., Vt.) made an elaborate reply to Mr. Beck's recent silver speech.

In a debate on the Electoral Count Bill in the Senate on Thursday, Mr. Sherman offered an amendment striking out the clauses which allow either house to exclude a State, and providing that, in case of disagreement between the two houses, the question in dispute shall be submitted to a joint convention of both houses, which joint convention "shall immediately, without debate, upon the roll-call of the respective houses, vote upon the question or questions upon which there has been such a disagreement, and the decision of the majority of the members of the joint convention present shall be deemed final and conclusive, and the vote shall be counted accordingly by the President of the Senate." This did not please Mr. Edmunds.

The Senate devoted Tuesday to eulogies upon Vice-President Hendricks. Mr. Voorhees and Mr. Evarts were among the speakers.

Mr. Edmunds, from the Judiciary Committee, on Monday reported to the Senate a resolution, "That the Attorney-General be, and he hereby is, directed to furnish the Senate with all the papers in the possession of the Department of Justice touching the suspension of George M. Duskin, late United States District Attorney for the Southern District of Alabama, and the appointment of John D. Burnett as his successor." This was adopted, the Democrats not voting.

The House of Representatives, on Wednesday, passed the bill which had passed the Senate to authorize the purchase by the Government of the old Produce Exchange building in this city, at a cost of $250,000 for the land and structure and $200,000 for alterations and repairs.

In the House Committee on Foreign Affairs on Thursday, Mr. Belmont submitted a plan of consolidating the minor diplomatic missions so as to increase the appropriations for and the efficiency of the first-class missions without increasing the aggregate cost, and at his suggestion it was determined to ask the opinion of the State Department as to the desirability of these consolidations, and as to the importance of duties at these minor posts.

The House Committee on Banking and Currency on Thursday voted to report favorably the Wilkins bill which permits national banks to issue circulation to the par of bonds deposited as security for circulation.

The Fortifications Board, of which Secretary Endicott is President, reports to Congress that $126,000,000 are necessary to put the coast in a proper state of defence, and recommends that $25,000,000 be immediately appropriated.

Charles J. Canda was nominated on Wednesday by the President for the post of Assistant Treasurer in this city. Mr. Canda was born in Paris, France, and is about fifty-two years of age. His first prominence in business matters was attained while he was connected with William B. Ogden, with whom he remained until about twelve years ago. During his connection with Mr. Ogden he acted as his general manager. In 1875 he was appointed Treasurer of the Democratic National Committee. During the past four or five years Mr. Canda has been managing embarrassed railway organizations, acting especially in this capacity for Amsterdam bankers and investors. He is also largely interested in locomotive and car works upon the Ohio River, and is prominently indentified with the management of the Lake Superior iron industry. He is a business and political friend of S. J. Tilden.

Attorney-General Garland has declined to take any part in the telephone case, and has placed its entire management in the hands of the Solicitor-General.

Senator Vest, in a letter to ex-Governor Crittenden, of Missouri, explaining his failure to secure for the latter a foreign mission, says: "When Cockrell named you the President said he could not entertain the idea; that in the East you were believed to have bargained with the Fords for the killing of Jesse James, and, whether true or not, he could not shoulder public opinion on the subject."

Senator Payne has sent a letter to the Chairman of the recently appointed Investigating Committee of the lower house of the Ohio Legislature (referring to the charge that he obtained his seat by bribery), in which he says: "I propose to give it appropriate attention. For myself I invite the most thorough and rigid scrutiny. My private correspondence and books of account will be cheerfully submitted to your inspection if you desire it. I only insist, in case any testimony is given which in the slightest degree inculpates me, I may be afforded an opportunity of appearing before the Committee."

Mr. Dorman B. Eaton has resigned from the Civil-Service Commission, from the date of March 9. He says in his letter to the President: "The political question which seems to have been raised over my nomination, and which did not allow an earlier offer of my resignation, makes it proper for me to say that when you nominated me you well knew the fact that I was still an adherent of the Republican party, as I had been from its origin, in every sense that I was a Republican when appointed a Commissioner either by President Grant or by President Arthur."

Mr. Cannon, Comptroller of the Currency, has resigned in order to enter into business.

In the New York State Senate on Wednesday the bill incorporating the Grant Memorial Association was passed unanimously.

Robert Ray Hamilton introduced a resolution in the New York Assembly on Monday evening, which was adopted, requesting "the Senators and Representatives of this State to use their utmost endeavors to secure the repeal of the law commonly known as the Bland Act, and that they be, and they hereby are, requested to urge such legislation as will maintain the currency of the country upon its present basis, and preserve the obligations of the United States from depreciation and the confidence of its creditors from disappointment." The resolution was reconsidered on Tuesday in order to allow opportunity for a full and free discussion.

The American Opera Company, Limited, has just been formed, as a permanent organization for carrying on the American opera enterprise which has been begun at the Academy of Music. The capital is to be $250,000, divided into fifty shares. C. E. Locke is to be the salaried manager of the company, whose incorporators include many well-known residents of New York and other cities.

Mr. William D. Sloane and his wife, who is a daughter of the late William H. Vanderbilt, have offered to build and equip a maternity hospital on a part of the land given by Mr. Vanderbilt as the site of a new building for the College of Physicians and Surgeons. The building will be begun at once.

By the will of Isaac D. Farnsworth, of Boston, Wellesley College receives $100,000 for a fine-arts college building.

Serious riots occurred on Wednesday and Thursday between striking coke workers in western Pennsylvania and the police. 5,000 men have joined the strike.

One of the severest storms that have ever visited the Pacific Coast began on January 17, and reached its height soon after noon on January 20. It extended from the northern boundary of Washington Territory to the southern boundary of California, and from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean. On Wednesday the storm was a hurricane in San Francisco, unroofing houses and blowing down buildings, and even lifting cars from the tracks.

James T. Farley, who was United States Senator from California from 1879 to 1885, died on Friday after a long illness, at the age of fifty-seven. He was a Democrat.

Representative Joseph Rankin, of the Fifth Wisconsin District, died on Sunday in Washington, aged fifty-six. He was a member of the last Congress, and came from his home in a special car to the present session, though dying, in order to take his seat.

FOREIGN.

The opening of Parliament, on Thursday, by the Queen in person was a brilliant spectacle. In the House of Lords was a distinguished assemblage. The Queen appeared very well. Princess Beatrice and the Prince of Wales stood on one side of the throne. After reviewing foreign affairs the Queen's speech said: "I have seen with deep sorrow the renewal, since I last addressed you, of the attempt to excite the people of Ireland to hostility against the legislative union between that country and Great Britain. I am resolutely opposed to any disturbance of that fundamental law, and in resisting it I am convinced that I shall be heartily supported by my Parliament and my people. Although there has been during the last year no marked increase of serious crime, there is in many places a concerted resistance to the enforcement of legal obligations, and I regret that the practice of organized intimidation continues to exist. I have caused every exertion to be used for the detection and punishment of these crimes, and no effort will be spared on the part of my Government to protect my Irish subjects in the exercise of their legal rights and in the enjoyment of individual liberty. If, as my information leads me to apprehend, the existing provisions of the law should prove to be inadequate to cope with these growing evils, I shall look with confidence to your willingness to invest my Government with all the necessary powers. Bills will be submitted for transferring to representative councils in the counties of Great Britain local business which is now transacted by the Courts of Quarter Sessions and other authorities. A measure for the reform of county government in Ireland is also in preparation. These measures will involve the consideration of the present incidence of local burdens. A bill for facilitating the sale of glebe lands in a manner adapted to the wants of the rural population will also be submitted to you—as will also bills for removing the difficulties which prevent the easy and cheap transfer of land; for mitigating the distressed condition of the poorer classes in the western highlands and the islands of Scotland; for the more effectual prevention of accidents in mines; for extending the powers of the Railway Commission in respect to the regulation of rates, and for the codification of the criminal law."

After the reading of the Queen's speech, Lord Salisbury, referring to Ireland, said the Government had refrained from renewing the Crimes Act because there had been a prospect of returning order in that country. The experiment, however, had failed, although every chance had been given to make it succeed. Nothing, he said, could exceed the patience of the Earl of Carnarvon in carrying out his mission of peace. The disease, said Lord Salisbury, existed in Westminster and not in Ireland, and the Government must try to stamp it out there. The words of Mr. Gladstone, he declared, were answerable for many Irish evils. The House of Lords on Thursday agreed to the address in reply to the Queen's speech.

In the House of Commons Mr. Gladstone spoke for one hour and twenty minutes. He congratulated Lord Salisbury on the conduct of the Government in the Rumelian affair. In regard to Ireland Mr. Gladstone said he wished the Queen's speech had been more explicit. He was convinced that only a gentle and conciliatory handling of the Irish question would

be effectual. He had always striven to eliminate the elements of wrath and passion in discussing Ireland. The exercise of candor and justice could alone afford the smallest hope of solving the difficulty. "Whatever," he continued, "it may be necessary to do for Ireland should be done promptly. In the name of heaven, let us maintain the Union. We have been maintaining it for eighty-five—yes, six hundred years. Let us not deviate from the path of good temper and self-command, but, forgetful of every prejudice, let us strive to do justice to the great, the gigantic interests committed to our charge." Mr. Gladstone said that in seeking a reëlection he was mainly guided by a wish to procee l with proposals in regard to both the legislative and the social position of Ireland. Only the Government, however, was able to act in such a matter. He, believing it would be mischievous to do so, did not intend to introduce proposals of his own, but he would reserve his opinion. Mr. Parnell said he had always believed that if the principle were admitted that Ireland was entitled to some form of self-government, the settlement of the details would not be found a formidable task, and that there would be no great difficulty in securing the empire against separation. The whole question was one of reasonable or exorbitant rents. He denied that the National League encouraged boycotting. The Nationalist members, he said, on seeing the manifest desire of England to weigh the Irish question calmly, had resolved that no extravagance of word or action on their part should mar the first fair chance Ireland ever had. Lord Randolph Churchill, in proposing that the debate be adjourned, said he wished it to be clearly understood that it would be impossible for the present Government ever to sanction an Irish Parliament.

Mr. O'Brien's amendment in the House of Commons to the address in reply to the Queen's speech says: "This House, with the view of insuring respect for law and order, should consider as soon as possible measures by which the Irish courts will be enabled to stay evictions and arrange a settlement between tenants and landlords." In the debate on the address on Friday night, Mr. Sexton, member from Sligo, spoke for an hour in his most eloquent manner. In the course of his speech, he said: "A rising in arms by the rebel population of Rumelia is conclusive proof to the royal mind of the justice of their cause, but the election by five-sixths of the population of Ireland, instead of being dealt with like a rising in arms as an expression of the desire of the people, is to be treated, in the language of the sovereign, as simply a regrettable and deplorable attempt to excite hostility against legislative union. What is the moral the Government wants to drive home to the people of Ireland? It is false and delusive to say that the integrity of the empire, the supremacy of the Crown, and the supremacy of the Imperial Parliament are called into question by the demands of the Irish people." A very significant incident followed: "Perhaps the chief reason," continued Mr. Sexton slowly, "why the honorable member for Cork refrained from moving an amendment to the address upon the present occasion was that the right honorable member for Midlothian had repeatedly affirmed, with the consent of the country, and, as he believed, of all reasonable Englishmen, that he was favorable to the settlement of the claim of the Irish nation to a national Legislature, provided the integrity of the empire and the rights of the Crown were guaranteed." Then, in view of the whole House, Mr. Gladstone deliberately nodded three times. Everybody saw it, and wild and prolonged cheers broke from the Irish party.

New procedure rules of a very sweeping nature were laid on the table by the Government in the House of Commons on Friday night. They make a quorum of 100 instead of 40; establish a large committee system to save the time of the House; make the hours of sessions from 2 to 7 and 9 to 12 P. M., all business to stop at half-past 12, and Parliament to adjourn in July and reassemble in October.

The Conservative Government on Monday changed front and resolved to let the Irish coercion question come up before the new procedure rules, which it consented to modify so as to provide that the House of Commons should meet at 4 and adjourn at 1, abolishing the proposed dinner interval.

In the House of Lords on Monday afternoon the Earl of Kilmorey, Conservative, moved the abolition of the office of Viceroy of Ireland, but afterward withdrew the motion.

In the House of Commons on Tuesday afternoon Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, the Conservative leader, gave notice that the Government would introduce on Thursday a bill to suppress the Irish National League and other dangerous societies, to prevent intimidation, to protect life and property, and to maintain public order in Ireland. This announcement was greeted with loud cheers. Sir Michael said he would ask the House to give the bill precedence. He added that this measure would be followed by a bill dealing with the Irish land question on the lines of policy indicated by the land-purchase act of last session. Mr. Collings then moved an amendment to the address, expressing regret that the Queen's speech contemplated no measures for the relief of suffering in Ireland in consequence of the depression in trade and agriculture; particularly through facilities to farm laborers for obtaining allotments of small holdings on equitable terms (derisively characterized as a "three acres and a cow" measure). Mr. Gladstone strongly supported, and the Marquis of Hartington opposed, the amendment, which was adopted by a vote of 329 to 250, the ayes including 73 Parnellites as well as Messrs. Gladstone, Chamberlain, Dilke, Trevelyan, Labouchere, and Bradlaugh. Among the noes were Lord Hartington, and Messrs. Goschen, Courtney, and Lubbock. Parliament was adjourned till Thursday, when the Ministry will announce their resignation.

The guards of the principal public buildings were doubled on Saturday, and there were indications of unusual police vigilance in every quarter. It is asserted that this activity on the part of the police is occasioned by the fact that the authorities have become cognizant of threats of violence uttered in consequence of the unsatisfactory character of that portion of the Queen's speech referring to the Irish question. The Prince of Wales, while visiting at Chester, was carefully guarded.

The tunnel under the Mersey, connecting Liverpool and Birkenhead, was formally opened on Wednesday by the Prince of Wales and his two sons, Princes Albert and George.

Madame Louise Mourey, who, with Mr. Stead, editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, and others, was convicted in November last in connection with the Armstrong abduction case, and sentenced to six months' imprisonment, died on Friday in Milbank Prison of Bright's disease.

Joseph Mayer, F. S. A., a famous English archæologist, numismatist, author, and philanthropist, died on Thursday, lacking but one month of being eighty-three years old. He was a jeweller by trade.

The Eastern war excitement was revived on Sunday. It was announced that the Grecian Army would soon be ordered to cross the frontier into Turkey. A Greek fleet sailed on Sunday from Athens under sealed orders. England officially informed Greece that she was prepared to send a fleet to prevent the latter from attacking Turkey by sea. The Greek Premier replied that his country would not disarm; that the representations of England infringe on international and diplomatic observance, and that Greece reserves perfect freedom of action. The answer further says that Greece has not declared war, nor has she given cause for England to interfere regarding her attitude. Bulgaria having violated the treaty of Berlin under the ægis of England, Greece is justified in using every means in her power, and even to resort to arms, if necessary, to obtain the concessions the treaty of Berlin gave her. Greece will maintain her claim to Thessaly and Epirus, no matter what the cost may be, and is prepared to take the field at the earliest moment and fight to the bitter end in support of her rights. She is confident of success. The first movement of Turkish troops against Greece will be the signal for a revolt in Albania and Macedonia, and Europe will not look placidly on.

The Greek fleet on Tuesday departed from the Piræus, the Port of Athens, to avoid being blockaded by the British fleet. New regiments are rapidly forming. The Porte has asked the Powers to assist in a prompt settlement of the question. Mr. Gladstone, in reply to an appeal for his support as against the resolution of the Salisbury Ministry, telegraphed to the people of Athens on Tuesday: "Considering the authority attaching to the action of the Powers, both on general grounds and by reason of their intervention in the formation of the Greek kingdom, I earnestly hope Greece will pause before placing herself on this occasion in conflict with their deliberate and united recommendation."

The Italian Minister of Finance has announced that there is a deficit in the current budget of $10,000,000, which is attributed principally to cholera and the Massowah expedition. The duties on sugar, coffee, and spirits are to be increased.

The Cologne *Gazette* says the Prussian Government has determined to Germanize the Polish provinces, and with this view will purchase estates in those provinces, and parcel the land out to German peasants.

The German-Americans on the island of Foehr, whose expulsion from Germany was recently ordered, have petitioned the Government to allow them to remain until April 1.

A member of the Hungarian Parliament accuses Baron Armin Podmanczky, a friend of Herr Tisza, of squandering one-third of the Hungarian revenues.

Hippolyte Charamaule, a famous French lawyer and publicist, is dead at the age of ninety. He was prominent in the February Revolution which proclaimed the Republic, and, after the *Coup d'état* of Napoleon III., against which he protested, he retired to private life.

Jean Jacques de Tschudi, the Swiss naturalist and traveller, is dead at the age of sixty-eight. His explorations were principally made in Peru and Brazil.

The Congo Railway syndicate has appointed Mr. Henry M. Stanley manager of the work of laying the line of railway in the Congo country.

Michael Czaykowski, better known as Sadyk Pasha, a general once in the service of Turkey, has committed suicide. His career has been remarkable. He was born in Poland in 1808, and in his youth attained some fame as a poet and novelist. In 1831 he won renown and the title of General by fighting against Russia. Some years later he went to Constantinople to reside. His surrender to the Russian authorities was formally demanded, and to avoid being given up he in 1851 adopted the Moslem religion and assumed the name of Mahommed Sadyk. During the war between Turkey and Russia in 1853-55 he had the rank of Pasha and commanded a corps of the Turkish army. Subsequently he was Military Governor of Bucharest. In 1872 he quitted the Turkish service, and, obtaining permission from the Russian Government to return to his native country, he took up his residence in Kiev.

It is rumored that Zorilla, having failed in his efforts to incite an insurrection in Spain, has returned to London, the French Government having refused him a refuge in French territory.

SENATOR MORRILL'S SPEECH.

SENATOR MORRILL'S speech on the silver question, in reply to Senator Beck, is a very able presentation of the subject which just now engages the largest share of public attention. It is especially strong in support of the moral considerations which should impel all governments to do what was expected of them at the time when they entered into their financial engagements, instead of studying sharp devices to save sixpences at the expense of shillings in any future emergency calling for the employment of the public credit. Senator Beck's treatment of this branch of the controversy exposed him to a broadside which he has now got. In close connection with this, Mr. Morrill called his attention to the classes of persons who for the most part constitute the hostile army of bondholders, showing that they are not as a rule wealthy persons at all, but the note-holders of national banks, depositors in savings banks, infant heirs of deceased persons whose property is held in trust, wards in chancery, etc., while the millionaires commonly invest their money in things which yield higher rates of interest than 3 or 4 per cent. "This," says Mr. Morrill, "is the true character of those who now hold our bonds, and yet they are covered with defamatory epithets, as though they were culprits worthy of sentence to a dungeon or to a chain-gang." It is worth while for politicians to bear in mind that the number of depositors in savings banks in the State of New York is equal to the number of voters, being about eleven hundred thousand. Let any man ambitious for public honors take his stand in any of our large savings banks about the time when the interest on deposits falls due, and he will get a lively idea of the fate that would befall him if he should be suspected of an intention to cut away some part of the security for the deposits, or to reduce the value of the same 20 per cent.

The demagogue stamp upon Senator Beck's speech was exposed by Mr. Morrill in another way. Mr. Beck had soundly berated the bondholders for pushing up the premium on the bonds to so high a figure—as though *they* had any interest in having them sell at 124 rather than at par. "He unquestionably knows," says Mr. Morrill, "that it will make no scrap of difference to bankers and bondholders now whether our bonds bear a premium or not. All they expect to realize or can realize from their bonds is the fixed rate of interest and their par value when due, and it makes not a farthing's difference to the Government whether bonds bear a premium or not, unless the Government proposes to use its funds for speculative purposes, and make purchases of them in advance of their maturity."

The immoral practice of "striking down silver" also engaged Mr. Morrill's attention to good purpose. We can do nothing better than quote his paragraph on that subject:

> "The fall in the value of silver in the United States has been denounced by some of our advanced silver financiers as though it was a trick of the Wall Street bondholders, and not, like the recent fall in the value of copper, owing entirely to a largely increased supply and a diminished demand. The banks are also denounced as conspirators engaged in this unholy depreciation of one of the precious metals, because their customers whom they serve have not found a use for it; but the imputation is hardly less preposterous than it would be to charge the banks with the depreciation in the value of copper, because they do not buy and hoard uncalled-for millions of bronze or copper cents. Democratic Treasury officials are held to be no more honest than their predecessors, and it is not for me to claim that they are; but all have been at work from the early morn until the evening twilight in pushing silver at every cross-roads of the country, although esteemed in some quarters as nothing less than traitors because they have not had greater success, as accredited missionaries, in persuading mankind that the silver dollar is worthy of a more obedient faith and greater adoration among the unconverted."

We cannot so highly commend Mr. Morrill's excursion into the tariff dispute, where, however, he was only following Senator Beck. The latter had stated incidentally that American agricultural industries received no consideration in the distribution of favors by the tariff. What he ought to have said was that they *could not* receive such favors, since they are articles of export and not of import. Duties, we must remind both Senators, are levied only on imports. Mr. Morrill, however, takes Mr. Beck literally, and favors him with this astonishing information:

> "Tobacco in the leaf is subjected to a high duty; and corn, wheat, pork, bacon, lard, beef, cheese, butter, sugar, leather, oils of all kinds, hemp, flax, and even peanuts are not omitted. If there is a single agricultural product that has been neglected let it be named, and I shall have great pleasure in following the lead of the Senator from Kentucky in giving it a 'protecting arm.' Upon one question, at least, we will go arm in arm. Surely the Senator forgot, when he made his statement, where he was, and supposed he was on the stump in the blue-grass region instead of the United States Senate. Certainly agricultural products have not been neglected."

There is one considerable article not embraced in Mr. Morrill's list of protected agricultural products, which Mr. Beck might adduce by way of putting the Vermont Senator to confusion, and that is cotton. Why were we vouchsafed duties on wheat and corn, and not a scrap of duty on cotton? We import as much of the latter as of the two former. Again, how did it happen that in the microscopic survey of human industry embodied in the Morrill tariff we have a duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem on ants' eggs and no duty at all on hens' eggs? Hens' eggs are imported largely, although cotton is not. Would a revision of the tariff in order to put a duty on hens' eggs and to repeal the duty on ants' eggs be such a revision as the Republican national platform authorizes?

Senator Morrill's speech has a significance which he vainly endeavors to cast away, but it will not be cast away. It is a defence on the Republican side of the chamber of a Democratic Administration against Democratic attack. It is the only defence that the Administration has yet had against the attacks of Beck, Eustis, Vance, Pugh, Reagan, and other Democratic leaders. Mr. Morrill's disclaimer of any intention to interfere in a family quarrel will not count for much against the plain facts. The masses pay no attention to such technicalities; they only look at the picture as a whole. It seems now as though the chief support of the President and the Secretary of the Treasury upon the chief issue in national politics would come from the Republican party. It would be premature to speculate upon the larger consequences of this alliance, but that there will be consequences, running the length and breadth of the republic, no one can doubt.

WHY NEW MEXICO DOES NOT FLOURISH.

WITH the construction of the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railroad through New Mexico, a new era seemed to dawn upon that distant and nearly forgotten land. It was discovered that it possessed great wealth and enjoyed singular advantages, and for a short time people began to flock to it; capital was enticed thither for investment, and a great number of enterprises sprang up in almost every direction. The "boom," however, fell almost as rapidly as it arose. This was largely owing to a lack of resources in our Southwestern region. But if, remembering its beautiful and salubrious climate, we ask ourselves why it is plainly shunned by industrious people of modest pretensions; why it remains to-day a "good country" only for large capital in the hands of a few, for land syndicates and so-called monopolists in stock-raising, the answer must be because a system of land tenure, antedating the American annexation, acts as a deadweight upon it, making its real estate unavailable, nay inaccessible to the small buyer, to the poor renter. The old land grants cover a vast portion of New Mexico, and are, through their immobility, an almost insurmountable obstacle to the growth of the Territory.

These grants, sometimes of enormous extent, were originally vested in a few; but in process of time the descendants of one grantee have come to number twenty or thirty heads of families, living scattered, and, as not infrequently happens, with one or more of them lost to sight, without record. The small purchaser can nearly always acquire the individual interests of a single heir, or of a few even, but then he only owns an "undivided part," and obtains no control of it except in partnership with people whom he oftentimes never becomes acquainted with, and who in any case are foreign to him, in language, in ideas, in mode of life and manner of working. This investment remains dead capital until he can secure the remainder, and what hope has he of obtaining it? Wealth it may eventually become, but can he afford to have it dormant? Assuredly not. There is little inducement for the immigrant with modest means to settle in a country when such impediments are thrown in his way. Only the capitalist can buy out all those interested in the larger grants, and what he thus purchases is seldom, if ever, wanted for parcellation. It is sought for some enterprise on a grand scale that excludes the small settler.

Not only are a considerable number of grants held by many, but such is their legal status that they cannot be bought at present. No grant is regarded as perfect until it has been confirmed by the Congress of the United States. It is, therefore, first submitted to the Surveyor-General of Santa Fé, who examines the claim and then reports upon its merits, for or against, and Congress decides whether to approve or reject it. If approved, a patent deed is issued directly from the Government; if rejected, the claim is regarded as void. These are very lengthy proceedings; they take years, and cost correspondingly. No small settler can afford to sacrifice the time and the money needed for this, and this again throws the real estate of New Mexico into the hands of a few

to the exclusion of the many. It obstructs settlement and renders improvement almost impossible.

Unless a grant has been already confirmed, it is unsafe to buy it or to purchase any portion of it. There is a great variety of these titles, some made by the Spanish Government, some by Mexico. The Spanish grants were usually issued by the former Governors, Mexican grants by Governors or political chiefs. It is held by some that certain officers had no right to convey lands, by others that they had. Many contend that the title was never in fee simple, that nothing was conveyed but the right to use for certain purposes. Again, it is alleged that many grants are void, that the limits have been fraudulently extended, that the same tract has been granted several times over to entirely different parties, that grants overlap each other. Whoever touches an unconfirmed title, buys not only heavy expense and loss of time, but also a fair prospect of litigation with possible squatters and neighbors. To cap the climax, special grants were issued by Spain to the various tribes of sedentary Indians ("Pueblos") occupying fertile tracts throughout New Mexico. These tracts are regarded by the majority of people as desirable, but as equally unpurchasable, being made to a community as a whole and without any right to dispose of them. Others contend that they are transferable under certain conditions and under certain circumstances. At all events, they are at present untouchable.

The maze of difficulties in which the Territories once belonging to Mexico labor, so far as real estate is concerned, in consequence of an obsolete landed system, deserves prompt and earnest attention. Otherwise these Territories can never prosper, because they can never be freely settled. Mining there has its limits, and it is narrowly circumscribed. Agriculture and stock-raising are capable of much greater extension, but then the landholder must feel sure of what he owns, and the immigrant with small means must be able to acquire a home. As it is, only the wealthy buyer, who seldom cares for living out West, unless he is consumptive and goes there in the hope of deferring his death, can secure real estate and keep it. There are, of course, desirable parts of New Mexico which are not covered by grants of any kind, but the most accessible sections are, and these are specially attractive to him who wishes to make his home in the Southwest. It devolves upon Congress to find a remedy for the present hopeless confusion in regard to land titles. There seems to be no obstacle in the way of a prompt disposal of them one way or another. The Territories are suffering from the present state of things; public opinion there points to the old land grants as the cause of ailment, and since Congress has taken upon itself to decide whether they shall be respected or not, it is to Congress the appeal for relief is made with urgency.

THE GAS QUESTION IN ENGLAND.

THE relation of our modern municipality to the gas supply is one of the most interesting questions of local government and local finance now before the public. It is what may be called a burning question in this country in every large city and in many small ones, and although it is perhaps nearer a solution in Europe than with us, it is not by any means finally settled even there. English experience on the subject is the longest and most varied, and cannot but be of great value to us. The English Parliament and English localities have tried nearly all possible experiments in this field, and the conclusion to which they are very rapidly drifting is that the only solution of the problem lies in the ownership and management of gas works by the municipalities. As this is a result quite different from what we might expect from the history of such undertakings in this country, it is well worth our while to examine the course of events which has led to it.

They first tried the experiment of chartering competing gas companies, allowing each to make its own terms with consumers. The earliest acts authorized different companies to supply the same districts throughout the metropolis, and for a time opposition existed between the Chartered, and Imperial, and the City of London Companies, in a portion of their districts. The attention of Parliament was, however, very early called to the evils arising from this competition. Sir William Congreve, who was inspector of gas works, in a report to the House on the matter about 1820, expressed the strongest disapprobation of it, and recommended that no act should be passed without limiting the district of each company. Consequently, in all acts passed for a series of years, each company was limited to a specified district, under a heavy penalty for every light supplied beyond it.

Other companies were, however, formed with statutory powers for supplying the metropolis, and in 1842 the principle of exclusive districts which had been adopted in 1821 was finally abandoned. An act was passed authorizing a comparatively new company to supply districts already lighted by other companies, and, closely following upon this, several other acts were passed upon the same principle. This strengthened the competition which had existed for years in certain parts of the metropolis and initiated an era of the wildest competition. The leading companies laid their mains in all the leading thoroughfares where there was a large consumption, and some of the streets were supplied from six different works through as many mains. The strife for business on the part of the companies became most unscrupulous and ruinous both to the companies and the public. The companies could pay no dividends, the discriminations were enormous and dangerous to soundly conducted business, while the repeated tearing up of streets interfered to a serious extent with the regular traffic. This sort of thing could not of course continue forever. As a matter of fact, it did not continue quite ten years. In 1853 the companies agreed to quit competing, divided up the territory among them, and established uniform prices for gas throughout their respective territories. The price of gas was raised considerably in order to cover the losses incident to competition, and consumers in London are still paying dividends on capital invested in the useless mains of that period. This combination and the consequent increase of price created such a great excitement that a Parliamentary investigation was ordered. As a result of this inquiry, which was unusually careful and detailed, an act was passed confirming the districting arrangements, securing the companies in their respective districts, and prohibiting all other companies from supplying gas within this territory without special sanction of Parliament—thus recognizing finally and forever that competition was out of place as a regulator of gas prices.

Simultaneously with this process of dividing up the territory, a process of absorption was begun, by which one company after another was swallowed up by the larger ones. In 1853 there were thirteen companies supplying London. This number had dwindled to three in 1883. There are now only two companies, with a strong probability of early consolidation into one.

Even before the gas companies were finally recognized to be practical monopolies, an attempt had been made to regulate the maximum price of gas and its quality, by fixing the former and providing tests for the latter. Various laws were passed looking toward securing an impartial and sufficient service for all consumers. Efforts were also made to limit the exploitation of the public by fixing maximum dividends, and providing for a lowering of the price of gas after the dividends had reached the maximum. In spite of all these experiments, the dissatisfaction of the public continued to increase until the adoption of what is known as the sliding scale, which has done much to remove certain causes of complaint. According to this plan an initial price of gas was fixed, and also a standard dividend. For every reduction of a certain amount in the price, an augmentation in the dividend is allowed, and on an increase in the price the dividend must be correspondingly diminished. Thus the Gas Light and Coke Company of London has for its ordinary stock a standard rate of dividend of 10 per cent., while its standard price for gas is 3s. 9d. per 1,000 cubic feet. On reducing the price 4d. it was allowed 1 per cent. additional dividend. In 1884 it had reduced the price to 3s. and increased the dividend to 12 per cent.

Outside of London the course of development has been somewhat different. Competition broke down there as in the city, but they were not content with trying to regulate the companies. The municipalities began to establish their own works. No objection was raised to this in those places where no private companies had been established, but when the municipalities, despairing of regulating the companies successfully and unable to purchase their works because of the outrageous price asked for them, began to erect competing works, the private companies succeeded in getting an act of Parliament, in 1872, prohibiting municipalities from erecting works where private companies were already established. This handed over the communities, bound hand and foot, to the tender mercies of the gas companies, since they could only get hold of their works on "terms agreed," which meant on the terms demanded by the companies. These terms have been in most cases extravagantly high. The companies have put in all manner of claims—for maximum dividends on capital from the beginning of their organi-

zation, for the hopes of future profits based on the experience of the most successful companies in England, etc. In spite of all this the evils of private management are considered so unbearable that city after city is purchasing the existing works, and it is stated on good authority that one of the first steps of the reorganized City of London will probably be the acquisition of the gas works of the present companies.

According to the report of gas undertakings in the United Kingdom, made to Parliament in 1884, there were at that time on the islands more than 160 towns and cities which owned and managed their own works, and the number is increasing every day. Now, what has been the result of public management?

According to Mr. Arthur Silverthorne, a prominent English expert who has given much attention to this subject, "the event has proved that nothing could be more felicitous than the way in which the municipal authorities have managed even the largest gas undertakings confided to their care, and I fearlessly assert that these unpaid bodies have achieved far superior results to those obtained under the directorate of private companies." In spite of the high price paid for the gas works of private companies, varying from 150 to 400 per cent., and averaging about 250 per cent. of face value of stock and from four to ten times the value of the plant, they have nearly uniformly succeeded (1) in paying interest on debt contracted to purchase the works, (2) in lowering the price of gas to consumers, and (3) in handing over a handsome surplus to the City Treasury. There are several reasons why this should be perfectly possible, and the statistics leave no doubt of its being actual.

The city of Birmingham, under the lead of the irrepressible Mr. Chamberlain, purchased its works in 1875, which were earning at the time of purchase only £82,290 per year. By lowering the price, thus largely increasing the consumption, and introducing improved machinery and processes, the city increased the earnings by 1879, within four years, to £165,000, *i. e.*, it earned 35 per cent. dividend instead of 17 per cent. The striking results of such public management were made the basis of increased demand on the part of other private companies whose works were desired by the municipality.

The city of Nottingham acquired the gas works in 1875, when the price was at 3s. 4d., and reduced the price within ten years to 2s. 2d., with the following result in amount consumed and profit realized:

Year.	Price per 1,000 c. f.	Amt. consumed in millions.	Profit.
1877	2s. 10d.	662	£5,783
1878	2s. 8d.	723	12,525
1880	2s. 6d.	891	23,000
1882	2s. 4d.	1,040	27,615
1884	2s. 2d.	1,163	33,169

The city of Leeds has a still more striking record. The authorities have managed the undertaking so well that they were asked recently to reduce the price to 1 shilling per 1,000 cubic feet.

Germany seems to be seeking the solution of the same problem in the same direction. In 1860 there were in Germany 266 gas works, of which 66 belonged to the municipalities and 200 to private companies. In 1883 there were 600 establishments, of which 290 were public and 310 were private, the ratio changing in twenty-five years from 25 per cent. to nearly 50 per cent. in favor of public undertakings. Even now, of the 164 leading cities 88 own and manage their own works, and if we take Germany as a whole, the public works are far more important than the private works. The capitalized value of city undertakings is nearly double that of private works, being $143,000,000 to $78,000,000. The inhabitants of cities supplied with public works amount to 7,000,000 as opposed to 4,500,000 in those supplied by private companies. The public works consume more than 65 per cent. of the coal used in the manufacture of gas.

It would be eminently worth while for some of our experts to make a thorough examination of this whole subject, both in this country and Europe. It would be very desirable to know exactly how these public works are managed, and the secret of their undoubted and increasing success. They seem destined, in Europe at least, to supplant entirely the private undertaking.

THE OLD IRISH REMEDY.

THE report that after much debate and cogitation the only measure the Tory Cabinet can agree on for the solution of the Irish difficulty is a new coercion bill, derives much probability from the history of all previous legislation in London on the same subject. In fact, the readiness of the English mind, after tormenting itself for a while over remedial measures for Ireland, to put them aside and fall back on simple force has been almost comically persistent.

On this point the recently published volume of Mr. Barry O'Brien's 'Fifty Years of Concessions to Ireland' (London: Sampson Low & Co.) is most instructive. The war between the tenants and the landlords, which slumbered for a few years after the Union, broke out with renewed atrocity in 1807. Murder, arson, mayhem, and resistance to the police, all caused by the land question, raged all over the country during the following forty years. During this period a swarm of observers, English and foreign, visited Ireland and wrote on this question. A Government Commission, too, of which the Earl of Devon was chairman, investigated and reported on it. All told the same tale. All said that the root of the Irish trouble was the dependence of the Irish tenant on the landlord's discretion, and the barbarous indifference of the landlord to his condition, and his readiness to confiscate the tenant's improvements. Nevertheless, during the whole of that period—from 1807 (and in 1807 the evil was already a century old) to 1847, not one legislative attempt was made to remedy it, but plenty of time was found to pass coercion bills. In 1800-1 there was an Insurrection Act, and a Suspension of the Habeas Corpus. In 1803–4 these measures were continued. In 1807–8–9 there were an Insurrection Act and Martial Law. In 1814–15–16–17 there was an Insurrection Act and Martial Law. In 1822–3–4 there was an Insurrection Act. In 1825–6–7–8–9 there was an Act for the suppression of the Catholic Association, which was carrying on the agitation for the emancipation of the Catholics. In 1831–2 there was an Act prohibiting the possession of arms, called out by the desperate resistance of the peasantry to the collection of tithes for the Protestant clergy. In 1833–4 there was a Coercion Act, which was continued into 1835.

Between 1829 and 1835 the English mind was at last sufficiently moved by Irish turbulence to emancipate the Catholics, and stop the levying of Protestant tithes, but neither violence nor agitation could induce it to touch the land question, until in 1849 the Encumbered Estates Bill was passed, providing an easy process for the sale of the estates of bankrupt landlords, and enabling them to give "a parliamentary title" to the purchasers. But for the tenants nothing was done.

In the meantime, however, there had been plenty of coercion. In 1843-4-5 the possession of arms was prohibited. In 1847 there was a Crime and Outrage Act. In 1848-9 there was a Habeas Corpus Suspension Act, a Crime and Outrage Act, and a Removal of Aliens Act. From 1850 to 1855 there was a Crime and Outrage Continuance Act. In 1856-7 there was a Peace Preservation Act. From 1858 to 1863 there was a Peace Preservation Continuance Act. In 1865 there was also a Peace Preservation Continuance Act. From 1866 to 1869 there was a Habeas Corpus Suspension Act. In 1870–1 there was a Peace Preservation Act. From 1873 to 1880 there were a Peace Preservation Act and a Protection of Life and Property Act. In 1881–2 there was Forster's Coercion Act, and in 1883–5 there has been the Crimes Act.

During this period there was a Land Act, passed in 1860, which, as it simply allowed the tenant to be paid for his improvements if he made them with the landlord's consent, proved a total failure. In 1866 the Whigs made an attempt to give the tenant property in improvements which the landlord had not forbidden. In 1867 the Tories proposed to go further than this, and create a Commissioner of Improvements who should decide what improvements the tenant might make without the landlord's consent. But neither proposal came to anything, and the war went on. In 1869 Gladstone at last disestablished the Church, and in 1870 passed the first real remedial land act—"the best measure, perhaps the only good measure," Froude said, "which has been passed for Ireland in 200 years." But, like all other Irish remedial measures, it did not go far enough, for it left it in the power of the tenants to contract themselves out of the purview of the Act—that is, to agree in writing not to avail themselves of its provisions, and therefore, as the *British Quarterly Review* said in 1880, "Some landlords set themselves deliberately to defeat its provisions; . . . others required their tenants to sign leases deliberately drawn to defeat its provisions." So it also proved nugatory. Consequently the Land Act of 1881 was the first really effective attempt to settle the land question, but it, also, came too late.

We thus see that while English opinion in eighty years was able to consider and pass twenty-four coercion acts, it was only able to settle on four remedial acts—the Catholic Emancipation Act, the Tithes Commutation Act, the Church Disestablishment Act, and the Land Act of 1881; and the first three of these really simply provided for the cessation of gross oppression. In truth the whole story

of the government of Ireland by the Imperial Parliament since 1800, as told by Mr. O'Brien —with great calm, let us add, and profuse citation of authorities—is so absurd that it may fairly be called "light reading," and, in spite of the bulk of the volume, may be taken up by the fireside, in the evening, for pure entertainment. If the Tories should now, after profound reflection on the home-rule problem, bring in simply a good rattling coercion bill, it would cap the climax, or in other words give the finishing touch to a sorry farce.

THE FRENCH JEFFERSONIANS.

THE French fill their civil service by non-competitive examination, but the places are practically held during good behavior, so that the spoils system, as we know it, has never grown up, vacancies being rare. Since the establishment of the Republic and the seizure of all power by the Chambers, however, office-seeking, in the absence of the competitive system, has become a veritable nuisance. During the existence of the "scrutin d'arrondissement," as it was called, when each electoral district had one member, the voters got into the way of looking on him, as many voters look on members of Congress here, as merely an agent for getting places or favors for them from the Government, and in France the number of places and favors the Government has to bestow is enormous.

Under the operation of this system, it was becoming rapidly impossible for any Ministry to keep in power except by an elaborate and extensive system of bribery. The individual member, in order to retain his seat, had to get tobacco licenses, furloughs, transfers, places, and decorations for his constituents, and the Cabinet had to give them, or rather promise them, in order to secure his vote. It was under the pressure of this terrible burden that Jules Ferry tried to justify the Tonquin and similar colonizing schemes, by pointing out the opening it would offer for the young Frenchmen who now pester the Government for small offices. One of the strongest arguments in favor of the "scrutin de liste," or departmental ballot, by which all the deputies of the Department are elected on a general ticket, was that, no one member representing any particular district, no particular set of voters would have a special claim on him, and the whole body would thus be delivered from the office-seekers. But the traditions of French politics have proved too strong even for the scrutin de liste. Frenchmen cannot unlearn in a year or two the lesson which two centuries of highly centralized government have taught them—that everybody connected with the ruling power has unlimited influence. M. Clovis Hugues, the well-known Radical Deputy, sends to the *Lanterne*, as an explanation to his constituents, the following extraordinary account—after making allowance for all exaggerations—of the present state of affairs. He says:

"Every day, each deputy receives on the average twenty letters asking for personal services in no way connected with the pending questions of politics. In all these letters there is an abounding confidence in the fortunate member. He has only to make the smallest sign with the ends of his fingers to realize the dreams of his correspondent. With a word subscribed to the application, he can distribute tobacco licenses, obtain pardons, dispense charity, bring home emigrants, reverse or modify judicial decisions, get furloughs for soldiers and decorations for buttonholes, procure the dismissal of functionaries, find wet nurses and lost umbrellas, get ministerial decisions changed, appease creditors, negotiate marriages, settle divorces, mollify mothers-in-law, hush up scandals, pull candidates through examinations, appoint prefects, sub-prefects, vice-consuls, Republican bishops, and clerks in Government offices, in banking houses, in the offices of great corporations, and even in those of private individuals—and all this in a single day."

He goes on to say that every deputy has always about fifty applications for office on foot either in the post or the telegraph office. He sends to the Minister of War every month about thirty applications for furloughs, changes of regiment, or discharge. To the Minister of Finance he sends every quarter about sixty applications for tobacco licenses. Every January and July he recommends about fifteen unknown persons for the Legion of Honor. M. Hugues's own correspondence amounts, he says, to 500 letters per month on the average, and he answers every letter, promising to support the request, whatever it may be, but of course he does not do it. How can he? "How could he," M. Hugues asks, "and give any attention to the affairs of the country. In the morning, when he might be studying the questions of the day, he would be growing mouldy in the ante-chambers of the appointing officers. In the Chamber during the session he would be writing letters, or paying with a vote against his conscience for the services the Minister was to render him."

For the habit of asking general favors of the Government there is, of course, no cure but the improvement in the political education of the French people, which time and the practice of parliamentary government will bring about. But the office-begging nuisance can never be abated by anything but the competitive system, which the French will eventually have to adopt. No pass examination will suffice, because this still leaves the appointing officer an enormous discretion. The competitive system, on the other hand, delivers him from importunity, by giving a small number of the ablest competitors an exclusive claim to the place, and thus furnishes both Minister and Deputy with the only sure defence against this great curse and weakness of modern democratic government—the desire of the incompetent, the lazy, the vicious, and the unsuccessful, to quarter themselves on the public treasury.

CAN THE ENGLISH CONSTITUTION BE AMERICANIZED?

OXFORD, January 1, 1886.

To Conservative thinkers who have accepted the advent of the democracy in England, the institutions of the United States present (as I pointed out in my last letter) three points of attraction—the independence of the President, the authority of the Senate, the immutability of the Constitution. Whether these characteristics of American republicanism can by any imitation or adaptation of transatlantic morals be impressed upon the democratic Constitution of Great Britain, is already an inquiry of more than academic interest. It may any day become a question of pressing moment. My aim in this letter is to examine how far, in the three matters which I have mentioned, the Constitution of the United States in reality excels the English State-system (to use an expression of Mr. Frederic Harrison's), and how far the provisions of your Constitution present a model for imitation by English statesmen.

There is assuredly something striking in the contrast between the position of a President such as President Cleveland and the situation of a Premier such as Mr. Gladstone. It will, I suppose, be admitted on all hands that Mr. Cleveland does not possess anything like the amount of power wielded by Mr. Gladstone when in office, or for that matter when out of it. No declaration of policy by the President would, I presume, have anything like the effect on the public life of America which has been produced by the mere rumor of Mr. Gladstone's adherence to home rule; or which would result from an announcement that Lord Salisbury had determined at all costs to resist every demand for anything like the legislative independence of Ireland. But if the extent and area of the President's authority are much narrower than the sphere of a Premier's influence, such powers as an American President possesses can be exercised with an independence unknown to the most powerful of English Ministers. Whether administrative reforms shall be really carried out, whether public offices shall or shall not be treated as spoils belonging to the victors in a party contest, appears, to an Englishman at least, to depend at the present moment wholly on the will of President Cleveland. Grant that his policy may seriously affect, one way or another, his chance of reëlection, still, during his four years' term, his conduct is controlled pretty nearly by his own judgment and conscience. No vote of Congress can remove him from power. The dissatisfaction of his own supporters may doubtless be unpleasant, but it can hardly restrain his action. A Prime Minister, on the other hand, is, even at the height of his power, liable to be overthrown by any change of feeling among his supporters. No statesman ever looked more powerful than Lord Palmerston after the elections of 1857, yet two years did not pass before a Palmerstonian House of Commons dismissed him from office, and dismissed him for insisting, with perfect justice, that attempts to assassinate a foreign potentate must be treated in England as crimes. Contrast Palmerston's inability to carry through, in the face of temporary unpopularity, an enactment passed a year or two later without opposition or comment, with the ease with which Lincoln surrendered Slidell and Mason to England, and you have the measure of the difference between a President's independence of momentary popular sentiment and the absolute dependence of even a powerful minister on the public favor.

A Prime Minister is, in short, a party leader. A President is a ruler appointed by the nation. The one has too much influence and possesses too little independence. The other holds very limited powers, but, for the exercise of his authority, he is responsible only to his conscience and his country. To thinkers who believe that the weak point of democratic government is instability of purpose, there is something very fascinating in the notion of substituting a President for a Premier. The change promises two advantages. The country will, it is hoped, be freed from dependence on the sudden resolutions or still more sudden irresolutions of great party leaders. The real head of the executive will at the same time be delivered from the necessity of studying each momentary change of public feeling. Still, a moment's consideration shows that whatever American institutions may be transplanted to England, the Presidency is not one of them. His independence would of itself be absolutely fatal to the working of the Government. Opposition between the House of Commons and the Executive would produce temporary paralysis of the

State, and the English Empire would hardly survive even a slight fit of political paralysis. The President, again, is, as has been pointed out by Bagehot and Maine, a sort of historical survival. He is a reproduction of an English King such as was an English King in the time of George III. The Presidency is inconsistent with the monarchy, and, at the present moment, the last institution which the majority of Englishmen are prepared to abolish is the Crown. If the Executive is to be placed to any extent above the reach of party, the result can in England be attained, if at all, only by some increase in the royal power. Whether this method of freeing the nation from the evils, such as they are, of party government be practicable, is, to say the least, most uncertain. But it would do less violence to English habits than to attempt to imitate Presidential government. Moreover, the Presidency does not appear, to any student of American history, to be the strong point of your Constitutionalism. The office has, in more ways than one, frustrated the expectations of its creators. It is curious that at the very moment when English thinkers are dwelling on the evils of the connection between the Executive and party, American theorists note with dissatisfaction the disconnection between the President and the Legislature.

To an English observer, if the Presidency seems the least satisfactory, the Senate certainly appears the most original and the most successful among the creations of American statesmanship. The Senate and the House of Lords are the only existing bodies which perform with any effect the functions attributed by theorists to a second chamber; and no competent judge can doubt that the Senate is in efficiency and authority far superior to the existing House of Peers. The American second chamber lacks, it is true, the dignity of age and the augustness conferred by historical prestige; but though it has not existed for a century, the Senate is based on a far firmer foundation than the House of Lords, and it is not rash to anticipate that the constitution of the American second chamber may remain unchanged long after our upper house has been either abolished or so modified as to lose its identity. The reason of this difference is palpable to every one. The Senate is in reality, if not the most powerful, certainly one of the most powerful, of the members of the American Constitution. It contains within its body the ablest statesmen of the country; it combines executive with legislative functions, and exercises a constant and (unless I am mistaken) an increasing influence on the course of public affairs. It is in reality superior to the House of Representatives both in dignity and in authority. All this is of course well known to your readers. I dwell upon it in order to bring out the contrast between the American and the English second chamber. The House of Lords contains within it many eminent men, but of these eminent persons some, like many of the law lords, or like officers ennobled for success in war, are not expected to play a leading part in politics. The statesmen, such as Lord Salisbury, Lord Derby, or the Duke of Argyll, who add distinction to the peerage, are involuntary exiles from the House of Commons, which is their natural sphere of action. It is absolutely certain that any one of these three peers would, if the course were open to him, stand for a seat in the House of Commons and be at once elected. The House of Peers is the tomb of statesmen, and Mr. Gladstone's elevation to an earldom would be welcomed by his opponents as equivalent to political death. The members of the House who themselves gain from being part of it are a dead loss to the House itself. No statesman, speaking generally, wishes to be a peer whom any admirer of the peerage would wish to have a seat in the House of Lords.

This house, again, is, from one cause or another, becoming more and more detached from connection with the really important questions of the day. Of administrative authority it has none. Its legislative weight is far less than any one would expect it to be who ran through the list of eminent lawyers who now as at all times add lustre to the peerage. Our upper house suffers from two all but irremediable defects. It is based on the hereditary principle, and the idea that the discharge of serious public functions should depend upon birth is out of harmony with the spirit of the time. It has, during the last hundred years, become what it certainly at one time was not—the representative not of the nation nor even of a class, but of a party. Since 1784 the majority of the House of Lords has invariably belonged to the Tory or Conservative party of the day. The House of Commons represents the electors; the Crown in a sense represents the unity of the State; the upper house, as things now stand, represents neither the nation nor the empire, but the will of the Tory leaders. No doubt this condition of affairs does not in England produce all the evil that might be anticipated from it. Party rarely leads statesmen to forget all the claims of common sense and of patriotism; but the Conservatism of the House fatally weakens its influence. The Peers are uncertain whether they represent the nation or not, and hence dare not resist any measure which even appears to command popular support. A strange result follows. The House can and does delay reform, but it never resists for a moment anything which appears like revolution. The body which is intended to preserve the Constitution, stimulates that kind of systematic agitation which is most dangerous to the political stability of our institutions. It has been compared often enough to a drag, but it is a drag which is kept on while the coach is going up hill, and is of necessity taken off when the horses threaten to rush down hill.

To Englishmen who note the prestige and the defects of the House of Lords, the idea naturally occurs that the dignity of its associations may be retained and its political defects removed by turning it into a body like the Senate. The difficulties in the way of such a transformation are, however, immense. The members of the House of Lords are between five and six times as numerous as those of the Senate. The House has no connection with the Executive Government. It might, perhaps, by the adoption of Lord Palmerston's proposal, have been insensibly changed into a body of officials holding peerages for life; but such an assembly, whatever its merits, bears no resemblance to the Senate. The essential obstacle, however, to any Americanization, so to speak, of the peerage, lies in the very nature of things. The strength of the Senate consists in its representing the rights of the States. In the United Kingdom there are no States or anything corresponding to States for the upper house to represent. If, indeed, the British Empire should at any time develop into an imperial confederacy, the House of Lords might conceivably be the name of a body analogous to the American Senate. If the United Kingdom were to be split up into a Federation consisting of three or four States, the House of Lords might again possibly become to some degree the representative of the members of the Federation. But such revolutions as these would, it is more likely, involve the fall of the peerage. In any case, the question now to be considered is, not how far the upper house might form the Senate of a Federal State, but how far—the United Kingdom, being what it is—the House might be reformed so as in some degree to reproduce the features of the American Senate. It were rash to say of such a reform that it is an impossibility; it is safe to assert that nothing at the present moment seems less probable than that it should be even attempted.

Is it, lastly, possible to give to the fundamental laws of the British Constitution the kind of immutability possessed by the articles of the American Constitution? Attention to the current of opinion shows that some thinkers are prepared to answer this question in the affirmative. In favor of such a reply, take the obvious consideration that the mutability or flexibility of our Constitution is an attribute hardly to be found in the State system of any great country except England. It is natural enough to infer that if the Americans, the Swiss, and the French have all founded constitutions of a more or less rigid character, there is no insuperable reason why Englishmen should not confer upon their time-honored Constitution the quality of immutability; nor can any one who notes either the tendencies of democratic government or the special difficulties which England is required to meet at the present day, deny that much would be gained if the fundamental laws of the State could be placed for a time—in theory, at least—beyond the reach of discussion.

It would take far more than the space at my disposal, toward the end of an already long letter, to discuss the possibility of the proposed revolution. Three observations, however, are worth making, and should be borne in mind throughout the whole of a discussion which has only just begun to interest the public, and may well be destined to last for years. The proposed alteration is, in the first place, essentially a revolution: if adopted, it will change from top to bottom the whole character of the British Constitution. It cuts far deeper, so to speak, into the body of the Constitution than would the transition from a monarchy to a republic. The rigidity of the Constitution means the destruction of that kind of pliancy which has hitherto been the strength of the English State. It is impossible, in the second place, to give to any laws the fixity possessed by the articles of the American Constitution, without also conferring on the courts the powers possessed by the judiciary of the United States. To do this is to give to the judges an authority never yet possessed by any English tribunal. It is, lastly, a mistake to consider that anything like universal experience tells in favor of rigid or inflexible constitutions. The experience of the United States points in one direction, the experience of Continental Europe points in another. The Constitution of the American republic has been changeable, and has therefore not been changed. French constitutions have in general been immutable, and therefore have lasted on an average about six and a half years. The stability, moreover, which thinkers desire to confer upon the Constitution of England is given to the fundamental laws of the Swiss Federation by methods differing considerably from those adopted by the founders of the Union for giving permanence to its Constitution; and it is at least open to argument that in this matter English innovators or reformers may learn more from the Swiss Confederation than from the American republic.

A. V. Dicey.

A MEDIÆVAL CUSTOM-HOUSE.

Italy, January 5, 1886.

An incident from the Middle Ages may not be uninteresting to the readers of the *Nation*.

On buying tickets from Geneva to Genoa, I was advised to register luggage to the end, and was told that it would be in waiting on our arrival at the Italian frontier. At the northern end of the Mount Cenis Tunnel our basket-trunk and valise, which were all that we took for a

short stay in Italy, should have been opened, but I was told that they had been sent forward for examination at Turin. We got to Turin in the evening in a snow storm, and saw several travellers undergoing examination. As there were not enough passengers to go round, they fared badly —three or four officials working one poor traveller. An East Indian gentleman had his wardrobe much tossed about, and gave the officials some amusement by his vehement protestations in bad English: "No smuggly! No smuggly! Italians! Ugh!" The porter who took me in charge, after some searching, informed me that my luggage had gone forward to Genoa. The next day, which was Christmas, we reached Genoa, and, after much bother about it at the station, I was told that the luggage had not yet come, and that it had no doubt been sent to the "Coast-house." If I would only come back the next day or the day after! Everybody was polite; there was no irritation; there was no hurry; nobody was surprised; it was taken quite as a matter of course that baggage should be detained, and that travellers should wait for it. Would it certainly come? "O! it's got to," answered a hotel porter who stood by and kindly interested himself in my affair.

That night I rested at Nervi, where no snow storm ever comes, and spent the morning wandering in the very perpendicular garden of our villa, the walks of which are mostly stairways in the cliffs running down hundreds of feet to the edge of the sea, with halting places in thatched summer-houses at almost every angle of the paths or stairs. In the garden grow aloes, palms, and palmettoes, as well as pines; orange and lemon trees are here loaded with ripening fruit, and in one of the summer-houses near the water I sat and listened to the ludicrous stories of a party of friends whose baggage had also been involved in the costly meshes of Italian red tape. Reluctantly leaving our sunny garden at eleven o'clock, I started into Genoa; and after some unavailing search for the American Consul, who had "changed house," as I was told, I gave over the notion of asking advice, and made my way from the Via Roma to the water through those narrow gorges between high buildings that seem so little like streets. Arrived at the Porte della Mercanzia, I was directed to the Dogana. On making inquiry of some uniformed porters, I was put into the charge of a man whom they called (as it sounded to my ears) "Mary Ann"; probably they would spell it Merian. He was an old man, and had perhaps been long in the Custom-house. No doubt he had once been able to walk like a man; he might even once have been a boy, and played at the sprightly Genoese game of bowls that one sees so often; but year by year all notion of vigor in motion had disappeared from his mind, and Mary Ann had now what might be called the custom-house gait developed in ideal perfection. With a delicious languor, he led me a leisurely ramble through a wilderness of heaped-up merchandise, along one warehouse and across into another, much as Virgil's ghost, having all eternity before him, may have conducted a brother-poet through the land of shades. At length my guide paused at the foot of a stairway, up which he had evidently no notion of climbing: it was not the way of a customs porter. He told me to mount to the top and then go to the other end of the building, where I should find a door. As I went up the stairs, whose steps were deeply worn, I saw my guide placidly wending his way back through the labyrinth toward the place whence he came, intent only on consuming as peacefully as possible the hours until closing time, and I wondered whether even some *centesimi* could have quickened his pace.

I reached at last the mysterious door, which was locked, and I knocked in vain. There were several men in this upper story engaged in slowly taking merchandise out of boxes and spreading it over the floor as though they might have some intention of counting the parcels to-morrow. Addressing myself to one of these, he sent me to another, who explained to me in tolerable French that railway baggage was never sent to this place, but to the other custom-house at the Porto Salomi, half a mile away. When I reached this other custom-house I saw a pile of luggage, newly received, by the side of which lay my large valise, tied up with custom-house cord and sealed with a lead seal. The trunk, which should have accompanied it, was nowhere in sight. There was a watchman in charge of this heap of goods, sleeping peacefully on one of the boxes. I was obliged to disturb him in trying to find my trunk.

Distrusting my knowledge of spoken Italian, I inquired for some one who could speak French, and was sent up stairs. Here a lad of fifteen years offered to take charge of my case, but I insisted on finding some one capable of speaking French, and the lad brought me another *expéditeur*, as he called himself in French, a custom-house attaché and a commissionaire in one. This man was the only person I saw about the place capable of despatch. He took my luggage ticket and immediately conjectured that my wicker trunk was in a large willow receptacle lying locked near the valise. To verify his hypothesis he tried hard to peep through the cracks of this great basket, for it seemed that there was no man high or low who had authority to unlock it at the present stage of the game. The formalities must be observed, and the *spedizioniere* told me there were "beaucoup de formalités." Acting on the presumption that the rest of my luggage was in the great wicker case, he hurried off with me to the railway station, calling my attention as an American to the statue of Christopher Columbus, whose vigorous soul must also have known the vexations of a Genoese custom-house. Arrived at the station, we waited half an hour for those who were ahead of us at the window on similar business, but the *spedizioniere* at length recognized a friend within and so got himself admitted behind the window, and, after paying four francs and a fraction for a beginning, got my little yellow paper changed for a blue paper and a white one and a red one. The red one he kept himself, the other two he gave to me.

We now went back to the custom-house, where he informed me we must wait "a moment": other freight had the start. Moments grew to minutes, and nearly an hour passed before my valise was brought in by the porters, who all walked like Mary Ann, as though their legs were moved, without volition, by slow-going clock-work not to be accelerated in the least degree without a probable dislocation of the machine. I saw my *spedizioniere* pay small fees now and then in the vain hope of getting things along; I even saw the young rascal who had brought this particular man to me exact money from him, apparently as pay for the introduction to a client. But at length the long agony seemed nearly over. It had taken about an hour to handle half-a-dozen packages, and the big wicker was brought in last and duly weighed, and then, after a pause, unlocked. My trunk was not there! The *spedizioniere* made a wry face, asked me to remain where I was, and darted away again to the railway station half a mile off. I sat down on a bench with the porters, and watched the lagging movements of the officials. After awhile there entered a chief of some sort, who had probably been three hours at dinner, and who now flew around with a kind of purposeless energy. Seeing me there waiting, he began to scold in resonant Italian. The Italian is a beautiful language for scolding, the open vowels ring so long and exasperatingly. The case was explained to this man and he subsided. Thinking I might expedite a little on my own account, I arose and told him my predicament, and the importance of my getting through in time for a late afternoon train. I begged that my papers might be made out and my valise examined before the arrival of the trunk. He shook his head. The *expéditeur* had the red paper. I showed him the blue paper and the white paper, but nothing could be done without the all-important red paper. So I sat me down upon my bench again.

The hour of closing was drawing near. One of the porters asked me the time of day—there was no clock; another got out a leathern bag from which he began to take iron keys, in pleasing anticipation of the hour when no imaginary duties should detain him from the *caffè*. I knew that closing was the one thing about which these men were punctual, but I inwardly resolved that I would not leave without my luggage. At length the *spedizioniere* plunged "into our midst," and dashed impetuously up the long stairs, crying to me like a madman, "Enfin! enfin!" and the porters gently nodded to me in placid congratulation. Five minutes later my trunk was wheeled in. With what knotty formalities the poor *spedizioniere* was wrestling above stairs I know not, but it was a quarter of an hour before he appeared again, when he came flying down stairs with two large papers in each hand. These he thrust under the nose of a man who sat at a rough desk by a side door. The man wrote something on them, and the *spedizioniere* rushed wildly up the long stairway again. This time he was gone twenty long minutes, during which the porter put keys in the doors and tried the locks, and the entire force sat down to wait for the fulfilment of the solemn rites necessary to release my two pieces of luggage from durance. At length the *spedizioniere* came down nodding to me in triumph. The chief came too. The clerks and porters gathered about in a pleased group. The valise was put in a large hay-scale and weighed and then set aside. The trunk was also weighed and set aside. Then the *spedizioniere* borrowed a jack-knife from a porter, and cut the rope that enclosed my valise, and handed it with the lead seal to another man. I unlocked both pieces, and the actual examination did not take two minutes. It had taken the whole afternoon, however, to get to it, and half-a-dozen men had waited an hour, impotently entangled in their own formalities. One of the employees now dipped a brush in some indescribable paste or glue, and smeared a paper ticket with it, and slowly stuck it on my valise. This ticket was numbered, another number was stuck to my trunk, and then both pieces were mounted on a hand-truck. A porter wheeled this slowly down the length of the custom-house to the front. The *spedizioniere* followed him. I followed the expeditor. At the door a man took off the numbered papers and threw them away. The last ceremony was now concluded, and my luggage was free; the relieved officials were already locking the great doors.

It remained to settle the bill. There was no duty on anything in my trunk or valise, only petty fees. There was a custom-house fee charged at the frontier, for not doing anything, I suppose. There was a charge also at the frontier for porterage, another for tying up my valise, another for the rope itself, and one for the lead seal on the rope. Then there were charges for the bills which specified the charges. There were eighty *centesimi* for *commissione*, whatever that may mean. There was two cents for a stamp, and then a parallel set of charges for what had been done at the coast-house. Last of all, there were four francs to pay for *spedizione*. If this word be taken to mean speed, the charge

was too high; if it stands for the work done by the *spedizioniere*, it was dog-cheap.

It only remains to add that Genoa is the chief port of Italy. E. E.

Correspondence.

GEORGE BORROW'S WORKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps you will kindly permit me to interview your public so far as to ask them, or some one curious in these matters, whether any of the works of the late George Borrow not included in the subjoined list are known. Allibone's meagre mention of Borrow gives an 'Autobiography' under date of 1851, which, however, can only be the 'Lavengro' of that year and not a separate book. The 'Celebrated Trials from 1400 to 1825' were in part compiled by Borrow, and published at London in 6 vols., 8vo, in the latter year, I believe. Lowndes does not speak in high terms of them, doubtless because he knew not the charitable influence of Taggart's snuff-box. At the end of the second volume of 'Romany Rye' (2d ed., London, 1858), there are announced a number of titles of inedited works by Borrow, some of which have appeared under the ægis of "Glorious John," and others have not as yet been printed. These are: 'Celtic Bards,' 2 vols.; 'Songs of Europe,' 2 vols.; 'Kœmpe Viser' (Danish Ballads), 2 vols.; 'Penquite and Pentyre,' 2 vols.; 'Russian Popular Tales,' 1 vol.; 'Northern Skalds,' 2 vols. (unfinished); 'Death of Balder'; 'Bayr Jairgey and Glion Doo.' The published volumes that I possess are the following:

1. Romantic Ballads. Norwich, 1826. 8vo.
2. Targum. (Poet. transl. from thirty languages.) St. Petersburg, 1835. 8vo.
3. The Talisman (from Pushkin). St. Petersburg, 1835. 8vo.
4. El Nuevo Testamento (Scio's version). Madrid, 1837. 8vo.
5. Gypsy Version of St. Luke. Madrid, 1837. 12mo.
6. Basque Version of St. Luke. Madrid, 1838. 12mo.
7. Gypsies of Spain. London, 1841. 2 vols., 8vo.
8. Bible in Spain. London, 1842. 3 vols., 8vo.
9. Lavengro. London, 1851. 3 vols., 8vo.
10. Romany Rye. London, 1857. 2 vols., 8vo.
11. The Sleeping Bard. London, 1860. 8vo.
12. Wild Wiles. London, 1862. 3 vols., 8vo.
13. Romano Lavo-Lil (Gypsy Dict.). London, 1874. 8vo.
14. The Turkish Jester. Ipswich, 1884. 8vo. (Posthumous.)

I should be glad of any note or information that would complete this collection as far as possible. W. I. Knapp.

Yale College, January 19, 1886.

THE BOYCOTTING OF POSTMASTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial on the boycotting of fourth-class postmasters seems to recognize no possible motive but the desire to gratify "a petty political spite."

I know a little village with only one public store or office, and that the only suitable place for the post-office. I am told that all the Republicans and a majority of the Democrats opposed a change. But a Democrat wanted the office, and had to have it. He is shiftless, addicted to the use of liquor, and generally considered dishonest.

I know another village—one that has grown up around a college. The college is unanimously Republican, the precinct heavily so, and the college makes the work of the post-office. There is a man in the village who was a rebel during the war, was captured, took the oath not to bear arms against the Government, and then reënlisted in the Confederate service. His business at present is illicit whiskey vending. He neither fears God nor regards man. He is openly accused, by those who know his past, of arson and robbery, and is suspected of other crimes; and I doubt if his best friend would not consider it flattery to call him dishonest. A change is daily expected which will practically make that man postmaster. Every Republican and almost every Democrat will oppose it. But what is to be done when every Democrat becomes a would-be P. M., and the Democratic M. C. determines to make a "clean sweep," and the present incumbent is an "offensive partisan"? Clearly, civil-service reform demands a change.

These are extreme cases, but your article admits that boycotting has been generally introduced where the will of the majority of the people has been disregarded. But when a Democratic Congressman determines to reward his faithful rural friend by securing for him the cross-roads post-office, and the powers that be are deaf to the voice of the people, and grossly incompetent and unworthy men are placed in offices in which every citizen is interested, what remedy have the people but to reduce the postmaster's income with a view to compelling him to give up the office? I do not know any post-offices where boycotting prevails to any considerable extent. I doubt not there are a few men unreasonable enough to try the method in almost any rural community—indeed, I have long since known families, who took some offence at a village postmaster, to mail all their letters on the trains. But where any considerable number of the citizens unite in so doing, it is safe to admit the possibility of some other cause than ultra-party spirit. And when a majority of good citizens combine in "such performances," it is safe to conclude that, whether their manner of redress be justifiable or not, there is at least just cause for complaint. The Republican majority generally represents at least half the good sense of a community, and the presumption is in their favor.

Respectfully, W. E. Barton.

Robbins, Tenn., January 19, 1886.

A DRIVE FOR TROTTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having been a constant reader of the *Nation* since its inception, attracted mainly by the breadth of its views, it was a surprise to see so much narrowness expressed in an article of the above caption.

This part of our continent (the blue-grass region of Kentucky) is visited by many foreigners, attracted doubtless by its park-like beauty; but what engrosses their attention when here is the trotting horse. His high finish, his great speed, his light and airy rig, are all marvels to them. It is the one thing that is strikingly American, and on that account particularly entertaining. One of my guests, an Englishman of position, after a spin behind a fast roadster, said to me: "If the Prince of Wales had a span of such horses, he would drive nothing else, and then America could not breed trotting horses enough to supply the English demand." As it is, not enough can now be bred to supply the home demand, and men of means have for years been purchasing colts and keeping them until they were old enough to use—laying them in as they do their wines—because the matured could not be obtained at reasonable prices.

No amount of cold water thrown on this recreation can abate the fever. Let us, then, make the best of it, and so arrange for its enjoyment that harm cannot come from it. If "roads frequented by trotters are sure to be lined with groggeries," let your Park drive be exempt from this evil, and by those who must "needs fill themselves with rum, gin, brandy, or whiskey," some other drive would be sought. The Park drive would neither foster nor hasten the "kidney trouble" among highly-fed business men, for the frequent drinks on that road could not be obtained. But why driving a horse in New York faster than a jog should create such an abnormal thirst, needs some explanation. It certainly does not have that effect elsewhere, not even in a country where whiskey is supposed to flow as water.

But your very provincial idea of "a race course with all that its name implies," is as striking to one living outside of your bailiwick as your bibulous argument. At our fair in this place, the trotting races have been attended for years by from five to six thousand spectators, more than one-half of whom are females, and the divines of every denomination are present. Not a drink of liquor has ever been sold on the grounds, not a drunken person has ever been seen there, and not a cent has ever been wagered on a race. Neither "grass, nor trees, nor shrubery" in this park have been injured, and "women and children and quiet men" are not driven away, but in increased numbers seek this place when the trotting race is expected. No quarrel, no profane language, and no bluster has ever been heard there, and this crowd is composed of "lawless Kentuckians." Surely sedate, Christian New Yorkers might contain themselves even if Maud S. and Jay-Eye-See were flying past them.

Your "moral view of the trotting horse" is even more startling than that of the race course; it surpasses the Methodist mountaineer's belief, that the devil is in a fiddle, or that a pack of cards is a coal of fire from hell. Would it not be advisable to have guardians appointed for those "poor young men who have a taste for trotters"? for if deprived of a place to trot their horses they will, without doubt, find some other adequate means of making their "banks or tills suffer sooner or later." Such idiots are made conspicuous because they are seen behind fast horses. Your city is full of just such men who go to the bad without ever having driven a trotter. An ambition to improve one's dwelling, as well as to improve one's horse, makes the tills of many weak men unduly suffer, but handsome dwellings should not on this account be tabooed.

To deprive your hard-worked merchant, whose tax for the benefit of the Park is often princely, of his innocent and healthful recreation, when he has grown too old to straddle a bang-tailed Anglicized American plug, and bob up and down with your host of badly-seated and ill-at-ease horseback riders, because some loud fellows prefer white coats and gin-cocktails when they drive, is hardly reasonable.

No part of your Park would be so entertaining to your visitors, be they native or foreign, as your trotting drive. To see the action and poise of the finest and most tractable horses ever produced in any land, driven by men some of whom are known to fame, and who have a reputation outside of their city not appreciated by their fellow-townsmen, would be worth a visit to New York if nothing else could be seen.

That driving fast horses is immoral cannot be maintained, and that the amusement is low can only be supported because it is American. That nothing is more exhilarating and refreshing to closely-confined mental workers than the rapid motion of the horse, either ridden or driven, is well known. To enjoy horseback exercise one must be a rider, an art only acquired by constant practice in youth, and few of our youths have an

opportunity to so indulge themselves. To drive, and that well, requires much less education, and can be acquired by the old as well as the young. Your horseback riders on their sorry steeds are forlorn objects, that cut a ridiculous figure in the eyes of your English neighbors and your Southern brethren. Your road drivers are behind horses superbly adapted to the business, and at a glance you see that the driver is at his ease—a perfect master of the situation. In the most of our recreations we are weak imitators; in this one we are original. In itself is there neither harm nor guile, and all that is needed to secure its proper rank is a fashionable and genteel place for its enjoyment. No better place could be found to elevate this national taste than your Central Park; and to abandon to rowdies that which is good in itself, and in which we excel, because it is not of foreign importation and lacks the stamp of royalty, is not only puerile but almost contemptible. M.

KENTUCKY, January 18, 1886.

[It is easy to take a hopeful view of what the effect of a trotting course on the Park would be, when looking at the matter from the blue-grass region of Kentucky. But people who live nearer to the Park, and are more interested in it, look into the details a little more closely, and are less sanguine. We are quite willing that the enjoyment of trotting should be "arranged for," and that the Prince of Wales should be tempted into the purchase of a pair of trotting horses, and that "the hard-worked merchant" should not be deprived of his trot. We simply say that there is no room in the Park for the trotting course, and that, if introduced there, it would ruin it as a popular pleasure ground. This may seem startling to any one to whom "five or six thousand spectators," "one-half females," with a sprinkling of "divines of every denomination," is an immense multitude. But we are accustomed here to seeing 75,000 people in the Park in a single day, often without a single divine among them; and the Park is only 700 acres in extent, without the possibility of any addition to it, while a race course in Kentucky, for all practical purposes, embraces the entire State.—ED. NATION.]

THE DEATH-RATE FROM CONSUMPTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation*, No. 1072, Doctor Shattuck objects to the Michigan statistics because not all deaths are reported. No one claims that they are; but, on the other hand, no one claims that there is any greater proportion of deaths reported of persons at one age than another; so that the evidence on relative numbers at different periods of age is good, theoretically, and practically we know it is good because it agrees with the evidence from other sources. In my first letter, I did not "base an argument on such small figures," but referred to them as an illustration of perhaps the first demonstration of a fact which I assumed was well known to statisticians. Since he seems to question what I assumed was well known, the following illustration, from figures on pages 56 and 75 of the Fortieth Report on Vital Statistics of Massachusetts, 1881, should convince him and others who have not given the subject attention.

Doctor Shattuck seems to favor Massachusetts statistics. Employing statistics of nearly one hundred thousand (97,047) deaths from consumption in Massachusetts, during the nineteen years 1863-1881, and an average of the population in Massachusetts in 1865, '70, '75, and '80, I find by computations the proportions at decennial periods of age as follows:

DEATHS FROM CONSUMPTION ANNUALLY IN 1,000 INHABITANTS IN SAME PERIOD OF AGE.

Aged under ten years	1.12	per 1,000	living.
Aged ten, and under twenty years	1.91	"	"
Aged twenty, and under thirty y'rs.	4.94	"	"
Aged thirty, and under forty years	4.28	"	"
Aged forty, and under fifty years	3.70	"	"
Aged fifty, and under sixty years	3.80	"	"
Aged sixty, and under seventy years	5.27	"	"
Aged seventy, and under eighty y'rs.	6.86	"	"
Aged eighty, and over	4.97	"	"
The average at all ages	3.31	"	"
The average at ages under 50 years.	3.04	"	"
The average at ages over 50 years	4.77	"	"

It will be seen that the average of decedents from consumption at ages over fifty years is about fifty-seven per cent. greater than the average at ages under fifty years.

I suggested that the larger death-rate from consumption (as it is known to statisticians) at ages over fifty years may account for the *apparent* greater death-rate from that disease among the foreign-born, who average much older than our native-born because the native-born includes so large a proportion of the children of the foreign-born.

I again respectfully submit that to decide the question we need statistics showing the death-rate of each class at each period of age, because of the great variation of the death-rate from consumption at the different periods of age.

Very respectfully, HENRY B. BAKER.

LANSING, MICH., January 22, 1886.

OUR FOREIGN MINISTERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of your article, "Our Foreign Relations," in No. 1072 of the *Nation*: Many years ago, travelling from Rome to Naples, I was shut up in the front compartment of the diligence with one of our foreign ministers accredited to a Continental Power. I had a card of introduction to him, and found him polite, agreeable, and very communicative. Among other things, he said, giving doubtless the results of his own experience, that the United States had no need of ministers in Europe, excepting, perhaps, England and France; that there was nothing for them to do; that if any serious difficulty should occur requiring the presence of a representative from this country, the business could be settled, as you intimate, by a "special envoy."

GEO. G. FIELD.

RECTORY, COATESVILLE, PA., January 19, 1886.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS' spring announcements include: 'Humorous Masterpieces from American Literature,' edited by Edward T. Mason, in three volumes; 'The Life and Letters of Joel Barlow,' author of "The Columbiad," United States Minister to France, etc., by Charles Burr Todd; 'France under Richelieu and Mazarin,' by J. B. Perkins; 'The Adirondacks as a Health Resort,' by William Stickler, M.D.; 'Evolution of To-day,' a summary by Prof. H. W. Conn, of Wesleyan University; 'Mechanics and Faith,' by Charles Talbot Porter; 'Poetry as a Representative Art,' by Prof. George L. Raymond, of Princeton; 'Reflections and Maxims,' by Batchelder Greene; 'Le Romanticisme Français,' edited for students of French by Profs. T. F. Crane and S. J. Brun, of Cornell; "The Boys' and Girls' Library of American Biographies"—Fulton, Lincoln, Washington, etc.; and 'The Mill Mystery,' by Anna Katharine Green.

The same firm will begin publication in March of a monthly journal to be called the *International Record of Charities and Correction*, a quarto of sixteen pages, edited by Mr. Fred. H. Wines, than whom no one more fit could be found to conduct such a periodical.

S. E. Cassino, Boston, has in press 'Mineral Physiology and Physiography, or Geological and Mineralogical Studies,' with a general introduction, by Dr. Thomas Sterry Hunt. This work will be incidentally a tribute "to the work of Amos Eaton, who, more than fifty years since, laid on a sound basis the foundations of American geology."

'Without Blemish—To-day's Problem,' by Mrs. J. H. Walworth, is in the press of Cassell & Co. This new tale, by the author of 'The Bar Sinister,' deals with the problem of the negro's future.

From Houghton, Mifflin & Co. we have new editions—the twenty-second of vol. i, the fifth of vol. ii—of the Rev. James Freeman Clarke's 'Ten Great Religions.' The two volumes are uniform in style, and in handsome dress for the library.

The sixth volume of Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge's edition of Hamilton's Works possesses many features of marked interest—the closing documents in the Whiskey Rebellion; a large number of military papers, culminating in interest as war threatens with France, and Washington is drawn from his retirement; the controversies with Jefferson and with Adams; and the Reynolds pamphlet. This last has a great moral value—all the more because of its unsavoriness. During the late Presidential campaign it was often cited, but probably had little weight in so heated a time. Now that we are eighteen months distant from Mr. Cleveland's nomination, and that so good a Blaine man as Mr. Lodge thinks it right (and we agree with him) to include among Hamilton's permanent works the history of this scandal—this high example of a public man's sacrifice of his character for chastity and conjugal fidelity in order to protect his reputation for official integrity—perhaps some will read and ponder who in 1884 were incapable of it.

Harper & Bros. lend their aid in fostering the newly awakened interest in Count Leo Tolstoi, and send out Part I. of his 'War and Peace' in their Franklin Square Library. The English translator is Clara Bell, who follows a French version by a Russian lady, and is in turn revised by some one unnamed in this country. Some day we shall perhaps do better than this.

Mr. Charles C. Moreau has privately printed a hundred copies of a 'Catalogue of Books Illustrated with Engravings by Dr. Alexander Anderson,' with a biographical sketch of that earliest of American wood-engravers. Anderson was born in New York in 1775, and, under the influence of Bewick, taught himself how to engrave on wood. This 'Catalogue' will be illustrated with Anderson's book-plate, engraved by himself, and by head and tail-pieces cut by Anderson after he was ninety years of age. A few copies of this interesting bibliography will appear in the February sale catalogue of Nash & Pierce, Nassau St., New York.

Students of Montaigne, and of Shakspere as well, will be glad to have John Florio's translation of the 'Essayes' made accessible to them in the reprint edited by Henry Morley (Routledge). The original editions are practically unattainable, and though bulky are harder reading than the very fine though clear print of this reproduction, for which the editor has written a good introduction and a short glossary.

Mr. Clarence E. Blake, Principal of the Springfield (Mass.) Collegiate Institute, has published (D. Appleton & Co.) a small lexicon to the first three books of Homer's 'Iliad,' together with portions of books iv, v, vi, xviii, xxii (entire), and xxiv. In his preface Mr. Blake says: "It has been the author's aim to give the student a *full knowledge of each word found in the work.* . . ." The italics are his own, and there is

some more to the same purpose. It is perhaps needless to say that any such pretension in a little book of 215 pp. is absurd. It is also out of place, because it unnecessarily challenges the critic to try the book by a test which it could not and need not bear. Tried by a more appropriate standard the book seems to be sufficiently full, complete, and accurate to enable the student to read satisfactorily so much of the 'Iliad' as is usually required for admission to college. It will save a vast amount of labor, both of head and hands, to the student who uses it at so early a period in his Greek studies, instead of the mighty quarto of Liddell and Scott. That is enough to entitle the book to the approbation of teachers and pupils.

We have received three additional volumes of the "College Series of Greek Authors," edited under the supervision of John Williams White and Thomas D. Seymour (Boston: Ginn & Co.). The first is a "text edition" of the "Bacchantes" of Euripides, edited by I. T. Beckwith, Professor in Trinity College, "on the basis of Wecklien's edition." As it contains nothing but the Greek text, the only remark it seems to call for is that the mechanical execution is very neat and attractive. The second is an 'Introduction to the Language and Verse of Homer,' by Professor Seymour, of Yale, one of the general editors of the series. The book is intended to bring together and arrange in their proper connection the dialectic forms, metrical peculiarities, and noteworthy characteristics of Homeric style and syntax, which are usually scattered in a fragmentary manner through the commentary. An actual perusal of a large portion of the work warrants us in saying that it fully redeems all the promises of the preface.

The third volume is Plato's 'Apology of Socrates' and 'Crito,' edited on the basis of Cron's edition by Louis Dyer, assistant professor in Harvard University. We have rarely come across an edition of a Greek classic more satisfactory than this. Any one who reads the introduction, containing a summary of the history of Greek Philosophy anterior to the time of Plato, and who dips here and there into the commentary, will not wonder that German scholars have indicated their appreciation of Cron's work by calling for eight editions. Professor Dyer has, however, not confined himself to a mere translation of Cron's work, but has made such alterations and additions as seemed advisable to adapt it to the wants of an "English-thinking and English-speaking public." We are quite confident that no edition of the 'Apology' and 'Crito' can be found equal to this for use as a college text-book. Another advantage of this edition is that the commentary is printed on the same page with the text. This practice is almost universal in Germany, is very generally adopted by English editors, and conduces greatly to the convenience of the reader.

The fourth number of the *American Journal of Archæology* offers a fine array of news and discussion. We can instance particularly M. Salomon Reinach's description of a singularly pleasing statue of Artemis in the Museum of Constantinople, which this expert regards as a probable late copy of an original to be assigned to the time of Praxiteles—"some masterpiece of the fourth century which has long ago been converted into lime." Professor A. C. Merriam gratifies a widespread curiosity by publishing the text of the law code of the Cretan Gortyna discovered in the flume of an old mill, as our readers are aware. This he both translates and annotates. The tables relating to slaves and to the rights of married women are of especial interest. Professor Merriam assigns these laws to the Solonian period. Compare this with our Fugitive Slave Law of 1850: "Whoever intends to bring suit in relation to a freeman or a slave, shall not take action by seizure before trial; but, if he do seize him, let the Judge fine him ten staters for the freeman, five for the slave, because he seizes him, and let him adjudge that he shall release him within three days. . . . But if one party contend that he is a free man, the other that he is a slave, those that testify that he is free shall be preferred." Besides the plate of the Artemis, which M. Reinach says does more than justice to the victim of barbarous Turkish scrubbing, there are two other heliotypes, representing fragments of the sculpture of Notre Dame. The monoliths of San Juan Teotihuacan, Mexico, are illustrated in the text of the paper, by Mr. Wm. H. Holmes, which discusses them.

Our excellent contemporary, *Scandinavia*, published monthly in Chicago, has passed through a financial crisis which menaced its continuance except in more restricted proportions. We are glad to learn that it will not be suspended or reduced, and that an incorporated company has taken hold of it.

The Baltimore *Civil-Service Reformer* begins its second volume with renewed vigor. Its positiveness and aggressiveness are refreshing, and quite distinguish it from other papers of the same class. Like these, however, it deserves a more than local circulation.

The *Monthly Index* is the latest outcome of the Q. P. Index scheme. No. 1, for January, lies before us, a broadside—one-half, we are told, of what the February number will be. The subscription price is twenty-five cents a year. A column is devoted to correspondence—a sort of notes-and-queries department. The editor's address is 230 New Jersey Avenue, S. E., Washington, D. C. The publication office, as usual, is Bangor, Maine, and checks should be made payable to Q. P. Index. This monthly issue (which does not supersede the annual volume) is for sale in Boston by Cupples, Upham & Co., and in New York by J. W. Christopher, 47 Dey Street.

The International News Company sends us the first number of the *English Historical Review*, of which we can now only praise the absolute beauty of its typography. Pending our review of its contents, we commend it heartily to all students of history in this country.

The twenty-third Bulletin of the United States National Museum is devoted to a sketch of the life and a full bibliography (filling 273 pages, 8vo, in double columns) of the writings of one of the most venerable and persistently industrious of living naturalists, Dr. Isaac Lea, of Philadelphia, now in his ninety-fourth year. Mr. Newton P. Scudder has edited what is virtually an autobiography of Mr. Lea, full of interesting details relating to himself and to the eminent scientists whose acquaintance he made during two visits abroad. Dr. Lea is of Quaker ancestry, but forfeited his birthright by enlisting for the war of 1812, though not called into service. He is probably the only surviving subscriber to Silliman's *Journal* from the first number of that publication, as he may well be the oldest person in this country ever actively engaged in the publication of books (firm of M. Carey & Sons, Dr. Lea having married a daughter of Mathew Carey). Dr. Lea has preserved all his scientific correspondence since 1818; and the portion of it here printed, embracing letters to and from the late Jeffries Wyman in regard to Agassiz's reluctance to admit the occurrence of animal remains among the coal strata, is suggestive of the value of the vast mass that remains. A fine etching of Dr. Lea serves as a frontispiece to the biographical sketch.

With the February number the *Book-Buyer* will be enlarged and illustrated. In addition to the series of author-portraits there will be other illustrations, taken most frequently from new books in the manner of the special Christmas number. Mr. Laurence Hutton will begin a brief series of articles on "American Bookplates," a subject of much interest to collectors and hitherto almost wholly neglected. Mr. Hutton's articles will be illustrated. A portrait of Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett will be the extra illustration of the February number.

The January *Portfolio* (Macmillan) opens with the beginning of a new book by the editor on "Imagination in Landscape Painting." Those who have followed the discussion in these columns over realism and idealism will find something to the purpose in Mr. Hamerton's chapters, which, by the way, are illustrated in the text, and by a full-page mezzotint after David Cox. Two other etchings are noteworthy: "Elizabeth of France," after Rubens; and "Cattle in Regent's Park," after James Ward, concerning whom Mr. C. O. Murray has large words of praise as an animal designer.

L'Art draws for its material in Nos. 516, 517 (Macmillan) on two forthcoming works—on Phidias, by Prof. Max Collignon, and on Donatello, by Eugène Müntz. The chapter borrowed from the former relates to the frieze of the Parthenon, and the illustrations are very fine specimens of "process." Two etchings, after portraits by Antonio Moro of an unknown Jean Gallus and his wife, are the gems of these numbers. But there is also one after Rembrandt's "Jacob Blessing the Children of Joseph," and scattered through the text of an article on Rembrandt by Emile Michel are numerous facsimiles of the artist's own etchings, including some of the most famous.

Mr. Samuel Waddington, the editor of two valuable collections of English sonnets, is now engaged on a third—a gathering of translations into English of sonnets of foreign authors. Mr. Waddington, whose address is No. 47 Connaught Street, Hyde Park, W., London, will be glad to receive suggestions or translated sonnets from any one interested in the subject.

Bertram Dobell, of No. 66 Queen's Crescent, London, is preparing for immediate publication by himself a 'Catalogue of a Collection of Books and Pamphlets Printed for Private Circulation.' This will be the first English book on this interesting subject since the second edition of Martin's 'Catalogue of Books Privately Printed' appeared in 1854.

The Publication Agency of the Johns Hopkins University are about to issue, under the editorial supervision of Prof. Isaac H. Hall, a reproduction in phototype of seventeen pages selected from a Syriac MS. containing the Epistles known as "Antilegomena." These embrace the commonly rejected Epistles 2 Peter, 2 and 3 John, and Jude, of which but one other MS. has ever been published before. Each page will have a separate leaf. The price by mail is three dollars. The same Agency has also nearly ready a photographic map in seven plates, of the normal solar spectrum, made by Prof. H. A. Rowland. It extends to wave-length 5790., and is superior in definition and freedom from distortion to any engraved map ever published. The set unmounted costs ten dollars.

—The discussion of educational reform has been more obviously concerned with the object of attack, the classics, than with the challenger, science; but it becomes plainer that this masked champion of the new age is really dual, and it begins to be uncertain whether applied science, as distinguished from theoretical, is not the more dangerous, and whether the field of conquest will not prove to be in the general public schools rather than the colleges of the old time. In the February *Harper's* Mr. Charles H. Ham recites the progress made by manual training in this country during the decade which has elapsed

since its introduction, and the showing is a very gratifying one. The Massachusetts Institute of Technology has been a very valuable feeder to the new movement, and the lately established school at Chicago bids fair to be to the West in this department what Michigan has been in the academic; the schools at Baltimore, Toledo, and Philadelphia are highly prosperous, and it appears that the system obtains in twenty-seven States. The article, however, is more to be commended to educators and others because of its broadly argued philosophy, which puts the discussion on the grounds of the highest debate. The author disavows the suggestion, lately emanating from Cornell, that these schools should be devoted to training in the arts of their localities, which would involve, he thinks, a perpetuation of caste by education. He does not plead for them on the basis of utilitarianism as being merely practical, but holds that they are better education of the mind and morals, and better adapted to our civil needs, than the schools of the past; he does not even allow that they are a phase of merely industrial conditions. It is the old conflict of training against culture, of action against thought, of society against the individual, though these antitheses are, of course, only suggestive. It does seem, however, that the habit of continually blending the thought with the act is of the highest intellectual value, that accustoming the youth to labor tends to give them more correct and sensible notions of the business of life, and to kill out the notion—that miserable outgrowth of our high-schools—that hand labor is degrading, and thirdly, that the hygienic effects (for these hours of manual training are only supplementary to the ordinary English branches) are excellent in the extreme.

—The *Atlantic* is noteworthy for the most admirable article in the political field, both as a piece of reasoning and as a literary production, that has been in its pages for a very long time. It is a discussion by Mr. A. L. Lowell of the probable effects upon our Government of making our present Cabinet responsible to Congress, in the same way as a Parliamentary ministry. The author discusses the subject in all its branches, as it would affect the two houses, the President, and the courts, and incidentally unfolds the scheme and underlying philosophy of our Constitution with a lucidity, speed, and grasp that are of the greatest rarity in this department. He concludes that the change would wreck our governmental structure and seriously narrow its political theory. It will be of interest to note that at the close of his article he opposes Mr. Wilson, the author of the recent notable book on Congressional Government, holding that the balance of powers, as originally framed, has not been practically deranged by the political development of the century, although there have been gains and losses of power by the various component parts; the gradual recovery of power by the States since the Reconstruction period, the recuperation of the Presidency since Johnson's administration, and the enlarged field and essentially unchanged prestige of the Supreme Court, being especially insisted on.

—The effort of Professor Freeman, a few years since, to formulate a science of comparative politics, worthy to rank with political economy on the one hand and comparative philology or religion on the other, has not proved very successful; chiefly, we suppose, because the number of politicians, whether practical or amateur, among the reading class is so much smaller than that of theologians and philologists. The recent discussion of its rules by the House of Representatives was generally treated by the press as an abstruse question, of no interest except in its bearing upon specific legislative propositions such as tariff reform. The lately published handbook of the Librarian of Congress does, indeed, give a synopsis of the rules of the French House, but the procedure of other parliamentary bodies, especially those of Germany, which, from the federal nature of its government, present peculiar analogies with our own, are not even mentioned. "Der Mechanismus des Reichtags," as it is called by a writer in the January *Vom Fels zum Meer*, affords, however, material for an interesting study, since at almost every point the procedure contrasts with that to which we are accustomed. As everywhere, except in Great Britain, the German Parliament decides upon the qualifications of its members. At the beginning of the session the reports of all the voting precincts, forwarded by the various State governments, are examined by committees, the members who have a prima-facie valid title to their seats being divided for this purpose into seven sections, chosen by lot, the same number of cases being assigned to each, and the destination of each case being likewise determined by lot. The fact of the Parliament's being an afterthought, or, as is often asserted, a fifth wheel on the Government chariot, instead of being the ruling estate, or, at any rate, one of three mutually independent bodies, is shown at the outset in its inability to unseat an illegally elected member. All it can do is to adopt the committee's report to that effect, which carries with it a request to the Ministry to take the further steps necessary. But as the Ministry is independent of the Parliament, it takes its time, and often its investigation is not finished till Parliament's term of service has expired. Add to this that contestants get neither expenses nor salary, and it will be seen that the inducements to contest on the part of anti-administration candidates are not great.

—The credentials of at least 200 members having been reported to be correct, Parliament proceeds to the election of its speaker—the acting speaker having been its oldest (in service, we presume) member. Two vice-presidents, always members of the majority, are then chosen, and eight secretaries, among whom, by custom, all considerable "groups" are represented. Four of the secretaries, who are chosen from among the youngest and most active members, serve at a time, one of their duties being to prevent members, in revising the stenographic reports of their "remarks," from making any changes except verbal corrections. It appears, however, that complaints of the inaccuracy of the "record" are not infrequent, even in Germany. The secretaries also count the votes and act as tellers, as well as serve as reading clerks. The permanent committees, six in number, are chosen by vote by the seven divisions above described, each division having an equal representation. The committees deal, respectively, with rules, petitions, commerce and industry, finance and taxation, justice, and appropriations. The speaker has the right to take part in the proceedings of any committee, and any member of Parliament who chooses may be present. But the public, including reporters, are rigorously excluded, so that the papers have to depend upon the favor of members for their information. This secresy makes corrupt combinations possible and, it is charged, not infrequent. In nothing, however, is the practice of the German Parliament so widely different from ours as in the rules intended to prevent waste of time and printer's ink. Such a bunkum institution as our "bill day" is avoided by forbidding even the introduction of any original proposition unless the would-be introducer can secure for it at least thirteen sponsors besides himself. The practical result of this rule is that no bills are introduced merely to please a constituent or to call forth a commendatory leader in a local paper—none, in short, which have not at their back the majority of some one of the many parties or groups into which the Parliament is divided. The present Parliament, by the way, is the first in which the Socialists could obtain a hearing, except in debate on a bill fathered by some other party—their number, hitherto, having been below fourteen.

—Professor Preyer, of Jena, well known through his researches into hypnotism, the development of the infant mind, etc., does not believe in telepathy, and attempts in a twenty-two-page article to give the readers of the January *Rundschau* the reasons for his scepticism. His criticisms are confined to the Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research in London, which in September, 1882, numbered 100, and a year ago 520 members, including 140 women. With truly German contempt for the feminine intellect, Dr. Preyer remarks that "the large number of female members and participators shows at the very outset that a strictly scientific spirit cannot be regarded as underlying the Society's proceedings." But since the Society has assumed such large dimensions as to have its special headquarters and a library, and since it includes among its active or honorary members such names as Balfour Stewart, Lord Rayleigh, Professor Bowditch, Mr. Crookes, and Mr. A. R. Wallace, Preyer thinks it worth while to examine their proceedings critically, so as to caution his countrymen against these useless proceedings, and prevent, if possible, the formation of a similar society in Germany. Preyer's analyses of a number of the 600 reported cases of telepathy are exceedingly ingenious and subtle, and, though he concedes that the *possibility* of thought transference cannot be disproved, he makes out a good case that the experimenters have constantly ignored sources of error which vitiate their conclusions. Especially ingenious is his explanation of the countless ways in which the two persons to be examined can communicate with each other, if in the same or adjoining rooms—as by means of different noises made in breathing through mouth or nose, movements with the foot, gnashing of the teeth, etc.; remembering at the same time that individuals, owing to great nervous susceptibility or to training, are endowed with as abnormal acuteness of the senses as are hypnotized persons. In Liverpool, for example, two girls were examined who claimed that one could tell what the other ate, if the latter was allowed to put her hand on the former's shoulder. Aside from the fact that there might have been a prearranged alphabet of signs through pressure on the shoulder, there was the probability that one of the girls had a very acute sense of smell. The result showed that in thirty-two trials only six answers came out correct, and in five of these cases the substance used had a strong odor. In other instances, where one of the persons under examination puts the question himself to the other, Preyer points out that the whole secret may be betrayed by special accents placed on certain words, in the same way that dogs can be taught to pick out certain cards, to add and subtract, by emphasizing certain words. The cases of alleged action of one mind on another, at greater distances, Preyer regards as either due to coincidence, to fraud, to hallucinations, to incorrect reporting, or to lack of accurate observation, which, always difficult, is more especially so in the region of psychic phenomena. In conclusion, he points out that savages ascribe nothing to chance, while with progressive civilization we see more and more how many things that appear to be related as cause and effect are mere coincidences.

—In the same number of the *Rundschau* Eduard von Hartmann has a long and interesting article

on "Musical Æsthetics," which is probably a chapter in his forthcoming general work on æsthetics. He briefly examines the theories of Kant, Schelling, Hegel, Vischer, Schopenhauer, Hanslick, Lazarus, Engel, Hausegger, and makes many subtle and suggestive criticisms. Hartmann, if we mistake not, had intended to become a musician before the happy thought struck him that he might chisel a new idol, and place it in the pantheon of metaphysical fetishes, labelled the "Unconscious." His early musical training, therefore, ought to qualify him to speak more intelligently than most of his predecessors on this subject. The great trouble with musical æsthetics has hitherto been that almost all the authors who have written about it have been either ignorant of music or of psychology. Kant and Schopenhauer, with their deep insight into mental problems, had a ludicrously inadequate conception of music from a practical point of view, and Vischer was in the same predicament. Hanslick, on the other hand, as well as Engel, Ehrlich, and even Wagner, had but an elementary knowledge of psychology, so that they were little better off than the other group. Hartmann is both a musician and a psychologist, but whether this advantage has enabled him to find the key to the mysteries of mind and music cannot be inferred from the *Rundschau* article. There are, unfortunately, indications that, as usual, he has prostrated himself before his fetish, and is going to parade that once more as the final cause and essence of all things. The best thing in his article is the incisive and lucid manner in which he exposes the inconsistencies and contradictions in the systems of Schopenhauer, Engel, and especially of Hanslick, whose treatise on the 'Beautiful in Music,' being the only generally intelligible one ever written, has reached a sixth edition, despite his absurd attempt to deny music its emotional import, and his formal theory which degrades music to something little better than an acoustic kaleidoscope.

—M. Alex. Bertrand has protested, in a memoir read before the Academy of Inscriptions, against applying the division of prehistoric archæology into Stone Age, Bronze Age, and Iron Age to other countries than Scandinavia. There the division holds. There was first an epoch when the metals were unknown and the dead were buried in megalithic monuments; then one in which gold and bronze were known and the dead were burned; in a third, iron and silver are added to the metals known. But this chronology, first employed by Thomsen, Keeper of the Copenhagen Museum of Antiquities, between 1830 and 1835, is only partly true of the rest of Europe. An early age in which metals were unknown may generally be found, but if a country was settled late, by nations who already were acquainted with metals, those countries would have little or no trace of a Stone Age, and this appears to be the case with Greece and Germany. And in the two last ages there is no reason why bronze should everywhere precede iron. Bronze, an alloy of copper and tin, would only be made where tin was easily obtainable. At any rate, the Bronze Age is confined to Scandinavia and Ireland. But Gaul makes up for its poverty in this respect by having three stone ages—the Quaternary, when man coexisted with animals now extinct; the Cave period, to which the engraved reindeer bones belong; and the Neolithic or polished-stone age. As to the Iron Age, all one can say is that it is late everywhere, but it is thousands of years earlier in some countries, Egypt, for instance, than in others. It appears to have slowly marched from the East, reaching the Danube and Italy long before Gaul, and Gaul six or seven centuries before it is found in Denmark and Ireland. Westward the path of iron takes its way.

HADLEY'S RAILROAD TRANSPORTATION.

Railroad Transportation, its History and Laws. By Arthur T. Hadley. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

PROFESSOR HADLEY'S treatise is no less timely than it is valuable. Prepared as a course of college lectures, the published work, as is not unusual in such cases, bears plain traces of the fact; much of it, while sufficiently good for class-room delivery, hardly bears the test of reading. It would have been well if these portions, when not wholly stricken out, had been considerably reduced in the process of printing. Nevertheless, taken as a whole, the work is the result of an investigation no less wide than exhaustive, and one possible only to a thoroughly equipped man, familiar with many modern languages.

The treatise comes just when Congress is called upon to deal with a new question of first-class importance. Up to the present time the national Government has made no effort to solve the so-called railroad problem. So far as this question is concerned, the statute book is as yet a clean sheet of paper; and if national legislation regulating railroad traffic between the States is now to be entered upon at all, it is important it should be entered upon intelligently. The indications thus far have not been encouraging. For years certain members of Congress have been groping around the subject in a blind sort of a way. Among these Mr. Reagan, of Texas, has been most prominent. Indeed, the "Reagan bill," so called, has regularly made its appearance before each recent Congress, has almost as regularly been reported to the House against the judgment of the major part of the Committee which had the matter under consideration, and has then passed by acclamation. Every effort to stop it has proved futile. In the Senate it has as regularly met its death, generally disappearing among the mass of unfinished business. It has deserved its fate. A cruder, more bungling piece of legislation could hardly be devised. Some twenty years behind the times, it is based upon no thorough study, and rumor says was originally drafted by an obscure Pennsylvania lawyer, who hoped to deal through the national Government with questions arising between the Pennsylvania and some other railroad of that State. Nevertheless, the Reagan bill will undoubtedly be pressed before this Congress by its author no less vehemently than it was pressed before the last. It may again pass the House of Representatives, though there is slight chance that it will ever become a law. This is fortunate, for in entering upon legislation the first step goes for much. Where that is wrong, all that follows is apt to be wrong.

The Reagan bill will probably fail to become a law owing to the fact that the two branches of Congress are at cross purposes on the subject to which it relates. Senator Cullom, of Illinois, took the railroad question up during the last Congress as his peculiar province in the Senate, as it was that of Mr. Reagan in the House. In the measure which he prepared he came near the correct principle, for he proposed the establishment of a commission. His bill was substituted for that of Mr. Reagan by the Senate, and there the matter ended. Meanwhile a Senatorial Committee was appointed to investigate the whole subject, and during the past summer that Committee has been over almost the entire country, hearing evidence and receiving impressions from all sorts of people. The material thus accumulated fills two bulky volumes which few will have the courage to open. It is this which makes Prof. Hadley's book so peculiarly timely. In it he compresses the recent experience of all Europe bearing upon this same question, and puts it compactly at the disposal of the Congress. He neatly supplements the work of the Cullom Committee, and there is no other book which covers the same ground in the same way. Some years since, indeed, a treatise was published by Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., then about to leave the Massachusetts Railroad Commission, which covered a portion of the ground; but new investigations have since taken place, establishing results then only partially developed. Some of the conclusions at which Mr. Adams arrived have by experience been found erroneous, and Mr. Hadley has also penetrated into fields which either then did not exist, or which Mr. Adams did not enter upon. This work, therefore, supersedes the earlier treatise. It is not only wider and more thorough, but it is later. It covers recent developments in Great Britain, as well as in Belgium, Prussia, Austria, France, and, above all, Italy. The last word each of those countries has to say upon the transportation problem is, therefore, presented at just the right moment, in compact, easily comprehended shape.

Yet after all perhaps the most curious feature of the work is the small value which all this vast mass of matter that Prof. Hadley has condensed, has for America. In other words, the railroad experience of one country seems to be of limited value to other countries. Too much depends upon the traditions and political habit of the people of each country, upon the manner in which they approach problems, and the business organizations through which they work. This is brought out very clearly by Prof. Hadley in some criticisms he passes upon a conclusion of Mr. Adams's, to the effect that results worked out to a satisfactory practical result by an appeal to public opinion in Massachusetts had likewise been worked out to a similar result by appeal to public opinion in Great Britain. Speaking from recent official investigations, Prof. Hadley shows that this is not the case. The direct opposite is the case. Influences which in this country, working through newspapers, public discussion, and in the halls of legislation, will produce a certain effect, cannot be relied on to produce at all equal effects in Great Britain. The great railroad corporations there have not the same regard to public opinion; they have not the same fear of legislative action. Everything in England moves in slower and more conservative channels, and in a less aggressive way. As Prof. Hadley's investigation widens he finds this true also of other countries, only in yet greater degree. Public opinion has less power in France than in England; and less again in Germany than in France.

On the other hand, the influences which have produced results in Europe can hardly be depended on to produce them in America. The power of the Government does not make itself felt in the same way; the people look less to the Government for direction and support; military conditions do not need to be regarded; police regulations are less customary. It becomes, therefore, apparent to the careful reader of Prof. Hadley's pages that, to be worked out successfully, the American railroad problem must be approached in a wholly new spirit and from a new direction. It must be handled with the most careful regard to the political, social, and business conditions existing on this continent; and with very little regard for those existing elsewhere. In fact, European experience is largely misleading for America.

The present tendency of American railroad legislation is distinctly toward what is known as the Massachusetts system. This system was the result of what Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., who had a good deal to do with it in its early days, has termed "a happy legislative guess." In 1869 public opinion in Massachusetts called for some regula-

tion of railroads. A commission naturally suggested itself, but the Legislature was not willing to intrust the Commissioners with large or general powers. Accordingly, a bill was passed creating a commission, but giving it power to do little more than investigate, report, and recommend. Only under certain conditions was the Attorney-General to lend assistance to the Commissioners when it appeared that a statute of the State was distinctly violated. We believe we are correct in saying that in not more than two or three instances in the course of fifteen years has this reserve power been called into play. At first the Commissioners had small faith that they could accomplish anything. Indeed, the question was, How could they avoid falling into contempt? Nevertheless, they went to work receiving complaints and investigating. Their investigations were of two classes—first, those arising out of specific causes of complaint; and second, those of a general character instituted by themselves. Gradually a system built itself up. It was what might fairly be called an essentially "American system." The only force the Commissioners had to rely upon was an intelligent, educated public opinion. Not having the sheriff's officer at their beck, they were obliged to meet the corporations or their representatives when any subject of complaint presented itself, and to discuss the issue to a result. If the Commissioners were wrong in the conclusions they reached, the fact would surely be made to appear, and they would be unable to press their demands. On the other hand, if they were right, it became a question of the degree of weight which the corporations would attach to their findings. The appeal, therefore, was neither to the constable nor to the court of law. It was to reason and an intelligent public opinion, with the Legislature always in the background. The result perhaps astonished no one so much as the Commissioners themselves. Half the time, at least, they found themselves compelled to take the side of the corporations. The causes of complaint were frivolous, or groundless, or unreasonable. They would not bear statement. The taking the side of the corporations in so large a proportion of cases inspired the latter with confidence. They felt that the Commissioners were fair. Accordingly, the corporations were not wholly indisposed to yield when the decision was against them; and where a decision was thus rendered, and was supported with a sufficiently vigorous presentation before the Legislature, the corporations almost always did yield. Indeed, it is said that the cases on record are few in which they failed in the end to do so.

Such a system is a new departure. It is also essentially, and in the best sense of the word, "American." It was constantly referred to in the hearings before the Cullom Senatorial Committee, and in their report it is spoken of as "the most conspicuous instance of the purely advisory Commission; . . . and by reason of its successful working under a novel plan and of the ability of its membership, it has always made its influence widely felt. . . . Its success is now undisputed." The Committee accordingly recommends that Congress should provide for a national Commission based on the same fundamental idea. Meanwhile, in Massachusetts itself, the Commission seems to be somewhat drifting away from its original moorings. As it has acquired the confidence of the community, powers have gradually been conferred upon it. The constable is more and more placed at its disposal. This seems unfortunate. The more a constable is placed behind a Commissioner, the less the Commissioner will rely upon investigation and the correctness of his findings, and the more he will rely upon force. It is difficult also to persuade the people even of this country to have faith in reason, discussion, and the ultimate supremacy of what is fair and right. They are continually clamoring for laws which will bring about at once the results they desire. This is especially the case in the West. Wherever a Western railroad commission has been organized upon the Massachusetts principle, it has almost universally been argued either that the Commissioners were bribed by the railroad companies; or else, having no power, that they could accomplish nothing. In point of fact the men who have been appointed Commissioners have, as a rule, been incompetent to perform their duties. They could not meet the representatives of the corporations in discussion. Had they been qualified to do so, the results would probably have been more satisfactory.

In addition to the vast amount of light shed upon the results of European experience, this American phase of the question is elaborately discussed by Prof. Hadley. The course of the Massachusetts Commission is traced from its commencement. It is to be hoped, therefore, that this treatise may find its way into the hands of as many members of Congress as possible. The fact should be recognized that a great system for the regulation of the most important material interests of the day is to be built up. In that work it will be well to make haste slowly. A commission should be provided, not too large, the first duty of which would be to investigate, and formulate the results of its investigations in recommendations of law. The Commissioners should look into every cause of complaint to which their attention is called. From these cases, as they are presented and heard, principles would gradually be evolved. When principles are so evolved, and not until then, can Congressional measures calculated to dispose of the matter find their way into the statute-book.

But it is impatiently asserted that this process takes time. It certainly is open to that objection. Meanwhile, on the other hand, the results thus far reached through that other process by which the Reagan bill was evolved—covering as they do a period of fifty years—are certainly not satisfactory. The number of statesmen who, like Senator Logan, of Illinois, think that the last results of political economy and social science may be mastered by giving to their study the leisure time of a fortnight, is considerable. Probably there are still many members of both branches of Congress who believe that in the course of half an hour they could formulate a few short laws which would settle the whole railroad question. Prof. Hadley's book would be of value to such, if for no other reason than to show how, through half a century, all the countries in Europe have been struggling with this question, and have as yet reached no satisfactory results. It might also show them that the results reached in Europe are hardly applicable to this country, and that whatever results are applicable to this country are in a large degree to be found in the experience and records of a single State. Finally, it is greatly to be hoped that, should a national commission be organized, a man so thoroughly equipped for its work as Prof. Hadley may find a prominent place upon it. His study, habit of mind, and power of patient investigation could hardly fail to affect in a marked degree the results reached by any body of which he might be a member. Probably there is no other available man in the country equally well equipped for this particular work.

THE SCHUYLERS OF NEW YORK.

Colonial New York. Philip Schuyler and his Family. By Geo. W. Schuyler. 2 vols., 8vo. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1885.

COLONISTS on this continent from both the great national stocks which mainly produced them were piously mindful of the Scriptural injunction to replenish the earth and subdue it. The first appearance of the sturdy emigrant from Amsterdam, Peter Schuyler, is on the occasion of his marriage in 1650; and of his eleven children the nine who were married (fourteen times, among them) have left nearly 500 descendants whose names find a place in this record, besides the many undiscovered.

The race is remarkable for quality as well as for quantity. Its succession counts many not obscure nor inactive in each generation. A Schuyler of the earliest days spent his life in negotiation and diplomacy. The friend of the Indians, his policy of honesty protected the colony from their attacks and from French invasion more completely than could the weapons of either its mother, Holland, or its stepmother, England. A Schuyler of the later day has given inherited diplomatic ability to the public service in the border lands of Europe among races as fickle as the Five Nations, and only on the surface less savage. Before New York first changed its master the Schuylers were familiar with the profession of arms, as indeed the inhabitants of the outpost towns Beaverwyck and Esopus had need to become. A Schuyler held high command at the opening of the Revolution, and devoted skill and sacrificed fortune in preparing the way for Burgoyne's surrender, of which another reaped the honor. In the civil war and in the border contests which now employ our army the Schuylers maintained the family traditions of ability in action, fortitude in reverse, and courage at all times.

The author does not attempt to trace his ancestor's lineage further back than the landing from Amsterdam, merely saying that he came as a free man, not brought over as a patroon's colonist. To be sure, the authentic coat-of-arms is given from which a Burke might easily weave a connecting thread with perhaps imperial Henry the Fowler. But the writer's sensible view, that the best nobility is that of a man's own deeds, expresses itself in amusing criticism upon the efforts of certain other Dutch lines to pierce and dignify the uncertainty of their family origin. He takes pains to show genealogically that the sovereignty of Courland can never have belonged to an emigrating ancestor of the New York family bearing a slightly similar name. He puts a peasant at the head of the race of Buren, instead of the counts who bore that title as kin to the house of Orange. And the blood of the De Lanceys is rather curtly "said to have been derived from a noble family," though in this instance the claim can be clearly made out.

The first Schuylers, like most of the Dutch colonists of note and enterprise, began as traders, and ended as land buyers. Their arts were those of peace, and their possessions fairly purchased. The regulations of the West India Company for the planting of colonies obliged all settlers outside of Manhattan Island "to satisfy the Indians for the lands they shall settle upon." The Dutch faithfully and honestly practised that justice which the planters of other colonies either did not attempt at all or failed to persevere in. They had their reward in the constant friendship of the most powerful of the native tribes.

The wealth gathered in trade by the early Schuylers was prudently invested in houses and lands. Yet they did not aspire to rank among the five or six great landholders of the colony who afterwards immensely enlarged their possessions through royal grants from provincial governors. We do not read that the boundary lines of their individual purchases ran, as in other instances, for sixteen, twenty, twenty-four miles, including such natural landmarks as mountain chains and rivers. The curious land history of

New York is rather to be traced in the records of the patroon and the manor holder. Patroons were originally members of the West India Company, and, on certain conditions as to colonizing, enjoyed semi-feudal rights over their purchased territory, including the appointment of civil and military officers and the settlement of clergymen. The only patroon at the time of the English conquest was the descendant of the only one ever really recognized, Killian van Rensselaer, and his domain (but not all his dominion) was confirmed to him by royal patent as a manor, in 1685. The next year Robert Livingston obtained from Governor Dongan the erection into a manor of his great possessions; and in 1697, Governor Fletcher granted the same privilege, little else than titular, to the Van Cortlandts. Part of these great estates remains with the descendants of the original patentees, the greater portion being parcelled out among numerous families. The Schuylers do not appear to have kept together the bulk of their landed property, though we read of one descendant in New Jersey, the heiress also of other lines, who in 1765 bestowed herself and her very considerable estate upon Captain Kennedy, afterwards Earl of Cassilis, who thus became "the greatest householder in New York."

Nor was it as politicians, influential with the managers of State affairs at the capital of the province, that the Schuylers shone. The type of the men who pushed their fortunes at that remote time by such means, is Robert Livingston. As an enterprising trader, as a great Government contractor, as an office-holder for fifty years, his Scotch thrift, his Dutch alliance, his friendship with men near the throne, his influence with provincial governors, earned him high consideration. His life was stirring and adventurous. By turns displaced from office and restored, intriguing on both sides of the ocean, the patron of Kidd, now the friend and now the enemy of Bellomont and Burnet, once a Leislerian and again an anti-Leislerian, he is the most notable example of the versatile politician of his day. He left a great estate, and a name as conspicuous as any in colonial annals.

There was, however, a field for action vital to the interest and even the existence of the colony and the province in which the early Schuylers spent life and fortune, and won deserved fame. Along the northern and western frontiers of New York, beyond Albany and Kingston, stretched the territory held by the powerful confederacy of the Five Nations, numbering twelve hundred fighting men of the most warlike Indian tribes. A New England policy of seizure for the saints and persecution to extermination for conscience' sake would have turned them into relentless enemies. The Dutch spoke them kindly. What lands they wanted they honestly bought. What goods were needed they fairly bartered. Instead of a deadly terror, these savages became close friends, bound with the Dutch in a covenant-chain, and a safeguard to the English against French invasion. One English governor said, "They are a better defence than so many Christians." Another wrote, "They are our only bulwark." These trading Hollanders builded better than they knew. They built with good faith and good will, little dreaming that they were sheltering the young life of a State from the enmity of one empire till it should prosper and strengthen into the might to cast off the oppression of another. In 1686 Peter Schuyler, son of the Amsterdam immigrant, appointed by Governor Dongan Mayor of the newly chartered city of Albany, was officially chairman of the Board of Commissioners for Indian Affairs. Thenceforward for nearly forty years he continued in this service. His bravery, his hospitality, and his self-respect in dealings with the Indians gave him an unbounded influence over their capricious and suspicious natures. They trusted "Quidor"—the nearest imitation of the name of Peter they could frame—when they would trust no one else. "During this time," says the author, "his prudence in council and his authority among the Five Nations saved the province from serious difficulties." More than once his timely warnings gave protection to the settlements in Massachusetts also.

Before the conversion of the Dutch colony into the English province the Five Nations had usually been hostile to the French, who made more than one inroad with disciplined forces into their territory, and suffered the horrors of savage retaliation. With the near approach of English power, the French changed their policy. If they hoped to succeed in the struggle for empire on this side the ocean, the Indians would be useful allies. If presents, and the promise of trade, and the persuasions of Jesuit missionaries could not win their aid, at least they might be conciliated and held neutral. For the English it was essential to maintain the friendly relations nursed by the Dutch, brightening and strengthening the old covenant-chain. The Five Nations were shrewd enough to profit by the quarrels of kings without pledging allegiance to either Power, or directly aiding either by arms. In this crossing of interests and purposes the tact and experience of Peter Schuyler found ample occasion for their display, and the English governors were content for the most part to borrow his influence and claim at home the credit for its fortunate results. The singular usurpation of Leisler for a time disturbed this condition of affairs, which was further complicated by the declaration of war between England and France. Schuyler wrote that the Indians would side with the strongest. Leisler, gaining possession of Albany, deposed Schuyler, who was, however, restored to office within three months, on Leisler's fall and execution. Thereafter he continued to conduct negotiations with the Indians, to convoke and attend councils, and to command attacks upon Canada, some of them brilliantly successful, till the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, gave repose to the province for thirty years, until long after the death of Schuyler.

The study of Peter Schuyler's public career leads to the conclusion that there was no citizen of the province in his day to whom its safety and prosperity owed so much; and the retrospect of its history teaches us that his repute in England, the other colonies, and France, as the great obstacle to French plans of empire on this continent, was well deserved. His name has outlasted the existence of the tribes he controlled. The State doles out a few thousand dollars yearly to the remnant of the great Indian confederacy, but their public action lingers only in an occasional lease of lands to a corporation or the grant of a railroad pass for their annual meetings; unless, indeed, some trace of their character may be supposed to be adopted and to survive in the treaties and the treacheries of Tammany sachems.

As is the case with all the early Dutch families, the bearers of the name of Schuyler, in the second generation even, by no means represent all the character and influence of the line. Before half a century from his coming the children of the founder had intermarried with almost all the principal settlers of Beaverwyck. In the next generation the complication of inter-alliances thickens, and the genealogical tables and comments that fill many pages of these volumes present a tangle of cross-relationships as entertaining—to those concerned—as a Chinese puzzle. Such intermarriages promoted unity of interest and action at Albany, while in New York the effect upon the intimately allied inhabitants of public changes was very different. At the court end of the province the caprice of governors lifted families into importance or dropped them out of favor and employment. Leisler, connected by marriage with leading people, divided society into hostile factions whose violence, embittered by his execution, disturbed the town for generations. The presence of Government, of course, fostered a strong Tory party in later times, so that the Revolution found brother arrayed against brother and compelled cruel divisions among kindred. Leading families were broken up, crushed by confiscation or exile, and on the ruins of their fortunes new ones rose, the obscure growing prosperous. Mutations of politics affected Albany less. Its citizens had, of course, their factions, but at no time did Leislerians or Tories control.

The history of Albany, indeed, is the history of the province separate from that of the capital, and is more purely and distinctly colonial than that of New York city. In making this history the work of the Schuylers was direct and constant and on the right side. Albany stood independent from the beginning. Her patroon held his rights firmly against the Dutch Directors. The city yielded to Leisler for a few months only, through force and by persuasion of the other colonies. Self-protection amid constant dangers compelled united action. The war-path from Montreal and from Onondaga led straight to her homes. She stood sentry at the outpost of greatest peril. The fidelity, courage, and sacrifice of her chief citizens entitle them to a record that has been unfairly overshadowed by the more varied and exciting annals of the capital.

Whatever of that history may be gathered from these volumes is full of interesting detail and curious anecdote. They do not aim to present it compactly or continuously. The nature of their subject requires tedious repetitions. The incidents of the family record, however, with some pains taken in comparisons, piece out a tolerably connected narrative of public affairs in colonial times. This faithful study of an ancestral line throws a strong light upon the solid virtues of the Dutch founders of our commonwealth, and deserves the praise of all New Yorkers who are proud of the truth that Holland is an equal sharer with England in the building of their State.

SCHLIEMANN'S TIRYNS.—II.

Tiryns. The Prehistoric Palace of the Kings of Tiryns: The Results of the Latest Excavations. By Dr. Henry Schliemann, Hon. D.C.L., Oxon., etc. The Preface by Prof. F. Adler, and contributions by Dr. Wm. Dörpfeld. With 188 woodcuts, 24 plates in chromo-lithography, 1 map, and 4 plans. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1885. Pp. lxiv., 385.

THE *megaron* was the principal room in the palace, in which guests were received and entertained. This *megaron* measures about 38 feet by 31, and was supported by four pillars, of which only the round stone bases remain. The floor was covered with a concrete, chiefly of lime, on which was painted "a bright, simple carpet-pattern" (pp. 225, 226), made by bands of three parallel lines dividing the surface into squares and rectangles. Distinct traces of red color remain in some of the squares, and faint traces of blue in the dividing bands. In the middle of the room is a circle, about 10½ feet in diameter, in which there is no concrete: this is without doubt the hearth of the house, the centre of domestic life. The four pillars of the roof surround it; and we have before us the scene of the 'Odyssey,' when Nausicaa directs Ulysses to her mother. He is to go directly to the *megaron* of the palace, where he will find the Queen "sitting at the hearth in the light of the fire, leaning against a pillar, plying her spindle with sea-purple wool,

while behind her sit her hand-maidens." Against the same pillar stands the seat of her father, "on which he sits and sips his wine like an immortal" ('Odyssey,' vi., 305—309).

Near the great *megaron* on the east, but without any direct communication with it, is a small courtyard, upon which opens a smaller *megaron* through a nearly square vestibule, which here represents both *prodomos* and *aithousa*. This *megaron* measures about 25 feet by 18; it has a central hearth, but no supporting pillars; and its vestibule appears to have had no columns between its antæ. This is a repetition, on a smaller scale, of the principal court and its hall, and there can hardly be a doubt that it is the women's dwelling so frequently mentioned by Homer. The plan of the palace will show that, although there was no direct passage between these apartments and the great hall, there was a very indirect means of communication through several narrow and winding passages in the rear of the palace, and possibly another between the two inner courts through a third court on the east. There was also a narrow passage leading from the women's court directly to the outer propylæum of the palace. It is difficult to reconcile some references in the 'Odyssey' to the women's quarters in the palace of Ithaca with the more complicated arrangements found at Tiryns, especially as regards communication between the two *megara;* but we can easily understand that in a palace with only one or two courts the separation of the women's apartment from the men's would be much less complete.

The discovery of these courts and *megara* at Tiryns sheds new light on the similar buildings found on the acropolis of Troy. It is now obvious that the two structures at Hissarlik, which were called temples by both Schliemann and Dörpfeld in 'Troja' (*Nation*, No. 974), are *megara* with vestibules, built on the same general plan as those at Tiryns. The greater hall at Troy had a central hearth, and was much larger than that at Tiryns; it was about 33 feet wide, and 60 feet long to the edge of the northern trench dug by Schliemann, by which the greater part of the building was cut off before its existence was suspected. It is hard to decide whether the smaller structure at Troy (called Temple B. in 'Troja'), which had three divisions, was the women's apartment, or (as Dörpfeld suggests) "a smaller men's house" (p. 224). What we hear of the domestic arrangements of the large royal family of Troy gives us wide range for speculation. We can now understand the structure southeast of the supposed temples at Hissarlik, which is obviously a gateway to an inner court; indeed, the open passage and the great stone threshold of the gate were found in 1882, although they are not marked on the plan in 'Troja.' We think we can see, further, why this structure was built directly over the long covered way which led into the hill from the lower level of the southern gate (NF in 'Troja'): a flight of steps from the covered way to the propylæum would give the inner court of the palace a direct communication with the southern gate below, while the gateway itself would be approached on the same level by the great southeast gate of the acropolis (OX in 'Troja').

In the northeast corner of the palace at Tiryns are many rooms of various sizes, which may have been bedrooms or storerooms, and others on the west have been swept away with the western wall. One most interesting room remains on the west, which at once suggests the elegant hospitality of an heroic prince, the bathroom. This measures about ten feet by eight and a half, and its floor consists of a single slab of limestone, more than two feet thick, with its upper surface "carefully levelled and polished." The use of the room is made certain by "a square gutter" in the northeast corner of the floor, by which water was carried into a drain. Evident traces of drainage are found in other parts of the building (pp. 232, 233). The room was probably wainscoted, as is shown by rows of dowel-holes. Even a fragment of the bath-tub has been found, and it is shown in plate xxiv. It was made of terracotta, painted inside with spirals and outside with stripes; it had a thick upper rim and strong handles; and it seems to have had the shape of a modern bath-tub (p. 232). This can hardly be one of Homer's "well-polished bath-tubs," which perhaps were made of metal. In the palace of Menelaus were two silver baths, given to him by his friend Polybus, of Egyptian Thebes, whose wife gave Helen a silver work-basket on wheels, with rim of gold, and a golden distaff. The bathroom was approached by a small anteroom, which had two opposite doors, one opening on the corridor which led to the *prodomos* and also to the courtyard, the other on the winding passage which led to the women's apartment. It was thus accessible to the women by a private way, and it could easily be reached from the central hall, while a guest arriving in the courtyard could be conducted to his bath without entering the palace, and could afterward enter the *megaron* through the side-door of the *prodomos*. It will be remembered that the two young princes in the 'Odyssey' are taken to the bath before they enter the *megaron* or are received by Menelaus. If the bathroom of the palace at Mycenæ should ever be found, it would have a most tragic interest for readers of Æschylus.

As none of the walls of the palace now standing are more than three feet high, they give us no help on the many chronic questions of roofing, lighting, and door-fastening. There are, of course, no remains of an upper story, but it is thought that traces of a staircase can be seen in a small room near the women's apartment. In the rubbish on the floors and in a few places on the walls themselves were found pieces of plaster with excellently preserved fresco painting, of which many specimens are given by Schliemann in colored plates. The walls were first covered with clay, then plastered with lime and painted. Only three colors, blue, red, and yellow, are found besides white and black. Many of the patterns are surprisingly modern, and some are extremely fanciful; the strangest is the figure of an acrobat (?) dancing on the back of a leaping bull, which appears in gold on the outside of the volume, and in its real colors and of nearly its real size in plate xiii. Several fragments of a remarkable frieze, on alabaster slabs about two feet wide, have been found built into a wall to which they cannot have originally belonged. The pattern consists of semi-ellipses and rosettes inlaid with pieces of blue glass and ornamented with blue glass bands. Dörpfeld is confident that we have here a veritable *kyanos*-frieze, like that which adorned the palace of Alcinous in the 'Odyssey.' He refers to the argument of Lepsius, showing that the Homeric *kyanos* "was not blue steel, as was universally believed, but either the natural *lapis lazuli* and the real ultramarine color, or the artificial blue Egyptian glass." On this basis Helbig ('Das Homerische Epos aus den Denkmälern erläutert') argues that, as it is impossible to conceive of the real *lapis lazuli* as used for the long bands of a frieze, therefore the *kyanos* of Homer must be the artificial kind, "a glass paste colored blue with copper ore, sometimes with cobalt, which imitated *lapis lazuli*" (see 'Tiryns,' pp. 284–292). Dörpfeld thinks that this conjecture of Helbig is wonderfully confirmed by the frieze found at Tiryns.

The discovery of this most interesting palace, with its ground plan so perfectly preserved and the character of its rooms so clearly indicated, would be a most important event in archæology even if we were compelled to assign it to the very latest period of the history of Tiryns. We have no building of this character, even for that recent age, which we can compare with it. But the great question with us all is, whether we have really found a genuine palace of the prehistoric kings who reigned before the Dorian invasion, in the sense in which we have their fortresses in the walls of Mycenæ and Tiryns. We have previously (*Nation*, Nos. 658, 659) given grounds for the strong presumption (which we think few will absolutely deny) that relics of royal state or even of high refinement and elegance found at Mycenæ are to be assigned to the old Achæan kings rather than to any subsequent Argolic dynasty. These arguments are equally strong when applied to Tiryns. The Dorian kings of Argos can no more have built the palace of Tiryns than they can have been buried with gold and silver treasures in the royal tombs of Mycenæ. There is every reason for believing that both these cities were seats of powerful kings in the heroic age before the Dorian invasion, and no reason whatever for believing that they were so at any subsequent period, but every reason for the opposite opinion. We have, therefore, a right to expect that those who assign either the tombs or the palace to any later date should give strong reasons for their decision. No theory of a later origin of the tombs of Mycenæ has ever found favor with scholars; on the contrary, we think the decided tendency of opinion among those who dissent from Dr. Schliemann's view has been towards an earlier rather than a later date than his. Professor Adler, in his preface to 'Tiryns' (p. xxviii.), pronounces these tombs to be the burial places of the older Perseidæ rather than of the Pelopidæ; the same view is taken by Steffen in the text of the *Karten von Mykenai* (mentioned above), published by the German Archæological Institute; while Köhler believes them to be Carian tombs. If the palace of Tiryns is once admitted to the heroic age, there will be no reason for making it later than the great outer walls. Dörpfeld *regards it as certain* that the walls and the palace were built at the same time (p. 252). Among the proofs of great antiquity found in the palace itself we may mention the conclusive evidence that the pillars and the antæ were made of wood. On no other theory can we explain the fact that, while the stone bases of 31 pillars and 26 antæ remain in place, not a single fragment of the upper parts has been found. Many of the antæ-blocks have dowel-holes in their upper surfaces, evidently to hold the woodwork. Many of the bases of the columns are burned at the edges, and not in the centre. We abstain from more than a brief mention of the important collection of pottery found in and about the palace, which is described by Schliemann in chapters iii and iv, and copiously illustrated in the text and in the colored plates, because we believe that ancient pottery should be left, for some time to come, to experts to discuss, before others can have a rational opinion about its age or its relations. We leave also the wall-painting and the alabaster frieze to those who can discuss them more intelligently after careful examination of the fragments that are preserved. We can believe that the palace was built in the heroic age, and yet admit that it was preserved, repaired, and used in later times. Marks of later walls in the courts and in the *megaron* show that extensive changes were at some time made in the original plan. It is too early yet to decide how much that has now been discovered may belong to these later restorations; but this question is entirely distinct from that of the origin of the palace itself.

Dörpfeld is positive in his statements that the upper parts of the palace walls were built of sun-

dried bricks, like the buildings of Hissarlik. As no brick walls are now standing, except two which are admitted to be late, the evidence for this is found chiefly in the masses of brick débris and half-burnt bricks with which "almost all the rooms of the palace were filled" (p. 258). He also believes that the great southwest tower of the outer wall had an upper story of brick, "as scarcely any stones, but almost exclusively half-baked, sun-dried bricks and red rubbish," were found in the closed rooms within the tower. Some very ancient walls, which clearly belonged to a building older than the palace, Dr. Dörpfeld tells us, were found buried several metres deep in brick rubbish; and in this rubbish a trench was dug to make a foundation for the terrace wall of the upper citadel. No one who has read Dörpfeld's essay entitled 'Der antike Ziegelbau und sein Einfluss auf den dorischen Stil' will be surprised at these statements. We do not profess at this distance to judge independently of evidence which has convinced so good an architect and so acute an observer as Dr. Dörpfeld. But we do feel that it is now too late to dispose of all the evidence of the use of bricks in Greece and Asia Minor in the heroic age by the simple statement that no bricks were used there at that time. Perhaps this is true; but it must be proved by showing, on independent grounds, that the brick buildings at Hissarlik, Hanaï-Tepeh, Tiryns, and perhaps Mycenæ, do not belong to the heroic age, and not by merely denying the age of the buildings because they are built of brick. After his experience at Tiryns, Dörpfeld abandons the theory which holds so important a place in 'Troja,' that the brick walls of Hissarlik were baked by fires built around them after they were built, and he now believes that all the bricks used at Tiryns and at Troy were sun-dried and unbaked, and that the burning of them must be ascribed to the conflagrations which destroyed both cities. We may mention here the tragic verse preserved by Hesychius, and ascribed to Æschylus by Nauck ('Trag. Frag.,' p. 685): Τιρύνθιον πλίνθευμα, Κυκλώπων ἕδος, *brick-building of Tiryns, seat of the Cyclopes.*

The discovery of the palace at Tiryns at once suggests the probability that a similar one may be found on the still unexplored height of the citadel of Mycenæ, where the palace of the Pelopidæ must have stood. We hope that Dr. Schliemann will not allow his spade to rest until he has again explored Mycenæ in the light of the experience which he has gained on the hill of Tiryns.

Chosön, the Land of the Morning Calm. By Percival Lowell. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

THE number of white men who have seen Corea beyond tide-water is so few that, after Hamel and his Dutch compatriots in the seventeenth, and the French Jesuits in the nineteenth century, we wonder if there be even one. Of sailors and ship men who have touched on the coast; of diplomats, missionaries, and curious visitors to treaty ports and the capital on the river and near the sea, we have had hundreds. Some of these have written letters or taken photographs of natives and scenery; but, excepting Lieutenant Bernadon and Ensign Foulke, our naval attachés of the Legation in Séoul, we know of none who has really seen the interior of Chō sen. These venturesome young men, bent on exploration, were recalled from their inquest by royal messengers, on the outbreak of the riots in Séoul in December a year ago.

Mr. Percival Lowell, of Boston, who accompanied from Japan the Corean Embassy to New York and Washington, returned with Hong Yŏng Sik, the Liberal envoy, and by royal invitation wintered in the capital. He saw little of the country except Pusan, the port opposite Japan, and the road between the west-coast port Inchŏn and Séoul, barring a trip to a monastery, and the mountains and valleys near the city. His book, then, is not about Corea, but an account of one city and his adventures in it. Fortunately, Mr. Lowell is an amateur photographer, and the most valuable portion of his book lies in the illustrations. Twenty-five full-page Albertypes of Corean natives and scenery form no mean addition to our stock of knowledge concerning Chō-sen. They present new subjects; the smaller woodcuts being of minor value, and treating chiefly of costume, on which much has already been written, with illustration by pencil. When one contrasts the triple title (quadruplicate, if the Chinese ideographs be added) with the table of contents, he will find a wide discrepancy. If he expects the information which the labels suggest, he will be disappointed. Paris may be France, but Séoul is not Corea, and it is the capital and not the country which the author describes. In Appendix B Mr. Lowell says: "The name the Koreans give their land is Chosŏn. By way of forestalling any want of appreciation on the part of others, they also call it Tè Chosŏn—Tè signifying 'great.'" Now, as matter of fact, the prefix *tè*—or *ta*, as the French missionaries write it—does not mean "great," as do the words *dai* in Dai Nippon or *ta* in Ta Tsing, but "all," "entire," "the whole"; so that Tè Chosŏn, or Ta Chō-sen, means all Corea. The Coreans do indeed often use the grandiloquent phrase in Chinese fashion, as do the Japanese; but in that case it is written *tai*. The latter word is Chinese, and the former, *tè*, is pure Corean, a different native spelling and ideograph being used in each instance.

Little or no reference is made by the author to any previous writers or authorities upon the subject which his book professes to treat. His information was gained from personal observation or from natives or foreigners on the soil. It is therefore fresh and unhackneyed, and presented in perspicuous style. His English is excellent, and his text readable and highly entertaining. In many places it is decidedly humorous, but in his effort to avoid dulness he becomes laborious in his lightness. One would willingly spare his funny paragraphs for the sake of more solid knowledge of his subject. Much of his matter received at first hand from his Corean mentors is vitiated by dilution. Into the legends and traditions of the country he mixes a mass of nonsense and funny comment that lowers not a little of his text to the level of country-newspaper humor. One is vexed at the flimsiness of the narrative. Anything like exact statements, dates, or statistics it would be hard to find in the volume, except in an appended note, in which the population of the kingdom and the capital is stated at 12,000,000 and 250,000 respectively. The map, which professes to be "complete," has less than twenty names in the peninsular portion, while in the Chinese province of Shing-king, the old "walls of stakes" remain, though they have been burned into firewood and erased long ago, and Chinese settlers cultivate farms clear up to the Yalu River.

If, however, our appetite for more knowledge of the recluse nation is whetted, instead of being satisfied, by Mr. Lowell, we have our compensation in reading his entertaining philosophy and his often original comments on what he has seen. He is best at analysis, and his chapters on "The Triad of Principles," "The Quality of Impersonality," "The Patriarchal System," "The Position of Woman," are of fascinating and permanent interest. Wholly charming is his opening chapter, "Where the Day Begins," which may rank as a classic. On native costume, diet, houses, scenery, court life, he is full and interesting. The foul and filthy things of heathenism are lightly touched upon, and everything is looked at with imperturbable good nature. There is but one "Chapter of Horrors," in which the native procedure of justice is glanced at. Thirty decapitated human bodies, with their thirty heads tumbled off at a distance, lay in the muddy highway outside the city on a winter's day, and told of Corean severity toward thieves. Of course, Mr. Lowell saw the king, and gives us his portrait. He enjoyed much pleasure in the society of the members of the Foreign Office, and is happy in his pen pictures of "Winter Revels in a Monastery," in "The Flower-Stream Temple," and in "The House of the Sleeping Waves." At these stag-parties the only members of Corean female society present were the dancing girls, who are often highly accomplished, though vastly less numerous than their sisters in Japan. Those were the glorious days of the Liberal reign of power. Mr. Lowell speaks with just praise of Hong Yŏng Sik, who, with Ming Yŏng Ik, visited our country. The former was liberal and radical, while Ming was in reality conservative and reactionary. In the bloody feuds of December, 1884, the former was killed and the latter frightfully wounded. The hospital presided over by the American Doctor Allen is now established in Hong Yŏng Sik's house, while at last accounts Ming had fled to China. Mr. Lowell's visit was made in the nick of time.

Fletcher of Madeley. By the Rev. Frederic W. Macdonald, Theological Tutor, Handsworth College, Birmingham. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1886.

JEAN GUILLAUME DE LA FLÉCHÈRE, known to the English-speaking world as Fletcher of Madeley, undoubtedly deserves a place in the series of popular biographies which is devoted to the "Heroes of Christian History." He was the Melanchthon of the Methodist reformation, the gentle advocate and scholar of a movement of which John Wesley was the autocratic head, Charles Wesley the eloquent hymnist, Whitefield the flaming evangelist. It was the year 1770, the year of Whitefield's death, that afforded Fletcher his most distinguished opportunity to be of service to the faith which he had so heartily embraced. It was a service that went far to neutralize the work of Whitefield, which was intensely Calvinistic, and to make of Methodism an Arminian sect, while the Calvinistic party was reabsorbed in the Established Church—the Low Church, so called, witnessing to its vitality. It was in 1770 that Wesley wrote the famous Conference minutes that were a declaration of war against the Lady Huntingdon and Whitefield party. It was Fletcher's 'Vindication' of these "Minutes" and his simultaneous 'Checks to Antinomianism' that secured his standing in the quadrilateral of Methodist fame. It is not a little strange that Switzerland, the cradle of Calvinism, should have furnished its most vigorous antagonist in the Methodist controversy. It is even stranger that a foreigner should have so soon become the master of an English style so free and bold that it gave his argument a currency that it never could have had on its intrinsic merits. Stevens and Tyerman, the most voluminous historians of Methodism, are of the opinion that Fletcher's 'Checks' is read to-day as much as ever. His new biographer does not believe it, and no more do we. But in general his tone is one of unqualified admiration. For the work of Fletcher at Madeley his praise could hardly be too strong. Paul's fighting with beasts at Ephesus was an antetype of his experience. This, and not the aptitude for controversy which made him Wesley's "designated successor," was his crown of honor.

A more critical mind would have brought to light some aspects of his character that Mr. Macdonald has left, perhaps unconsciously, in the

deepest shadow. His sense of blood-relationship was expressed by a remarkable indifference: the entreaties of his widowed mother to visit her he resisted, lest he should "lose precious time and incur expense." The abject humility of his letters to Charles Wesley and Whitefield has no doubt been much admired, as one proof among many of his "saintliness." Here is an example: "That such a sinful worm as I should have the privilege to converse" with Wesley, "the thought amazes, confounds me, and fills my eyes with tears of humble joy." "I am confounded," he writes Whitefield, "when I receive a letter from you. Present and eternal contempt from Christ and all his members is what I deserve." Wesley and Whitefield probably knew how much these phrases meant; and when he says, "My infancy was vicious and my youth still more so," proper allowance must be made for the religious habit of the time, so prone to wreak itself upon expression.

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OF THE

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Net Assets, January 1, 1885		$9,134,330 14
Receipts during the year:		
For Premiums	$1,830,246 30	
For Interest, etc	527,042 52	2,357,288 82
		$11,491,618 96
DISBURSEMENTS.		
Claims by Death	$691,449 88	
Matured Endowments	54,895 00	
Surrendered Policies	208,958 53	
Cash and Note Dividends	386,703 39	
Reinsurance	3,545 63	
Total paid Policy-holders	$1,345,552 43	
Taxes and Legal Expenses	54,528 68	
Salaries, Medical Fees, and Office Expenses	97,481 85	
Commissions to Agents, Rents, etc	147,760 19	
Agency and other expenses	87,587 80	
Advertising, Printing, Supplies	17,699 48	
Fire Insurance and Office Furniture	3,093 16	1,753,703 59
Net Assets, January 1, 1886		$9,737,915 37
ASSETS.		
City Loans, Railroad and Water Bonds, Bank and other Stocks		$5,118,517 25
Mortgage and Ground Rents		2,598,731 10
Premium Notes secured by Policies, etc		592,262 94
Loans on Collaterals, etc		524,663 79
Home Office and Real Estate bought to secure Loans		830,659 21
Cash in Trust Companies and on hand		73,081 08
Net Ledger Assets as above		$9,737,915 37
Net Deferred and Unreported Premiums		184,027 62
Interest due and accrued, etc		49,526 47
Market Value of Stocks, Bonds, etc., over cost		421,061 75
Gross Assets, January 1, 1886		$10,392,531 21
LIABILITIES.		
Losses reported, but not due	$69,710 07	
Reserve at 4 per cent	8,697,309 00	
Surplus on Life-Rate Endowments and Unreported Policies, etc	193,277 76	
Surplus, 4 per cent. basis	1,432,234 38	
		$10,392,531 21
Surplus at 4½ per cent., Pennsylvania Standard (estimated)		$1,969,283 38

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Twenty-First Annual Statement

OF THE

CONNECTICUT

General Life Insurance Company,

Hartford, Conn.

Receipts in the year 1885		$253,589 00
Disbursements " "		197,237 31
Assets, January 1, 1886		1,551,414 25
Liabilities (Conn. Standard)		1,191,849 53
Surplus to policy-holders:		
By Conn. Standard		359,564 72
By New York Standard		443,416 72

T. W. RUSSELL, Pres't.

F. V. HUDSON, Sec'y.

36th Annual Statement

OF THE

ÆTNA

Life Insurance Company,

OF HARTFORD, CONN.

JANUARY 1, 1886.

Premium receipts in 1885	$2,845,786 72
Interest receipts in 1885	1,739,845 45
Total receipts during the year	4,585,632 17
Disbursements to policy-holders and for expenses, taxes, etc	3,791,622 49
Assets January 1, 1886	30,562,261 83
Total liabilities	25,368,058 21
Surplus by Ct. and Mass. standard	5,194,203 62
Surplus by the standard of N. Y.	6,665,000 00
Policies in force January 1, 1886, 61,437, insuring	87,791,243 44
Policies issued in 1885, 5,711, insuring	11,018,298 00

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My Recollections of R. E. Lee. With Portrait. Alexander H. Stephens.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 4, 1886.

The Week.

THAT eminent expounder of the Constitution, Mr. Riddleberger, of Virginia, has come to the front in the Senate as the champion of the Republican doctrine that the upper branch of Congress has the right to demand of the President any papers bearing upon the cases of removed or suspended officials, and that it is the duty of the Executive to comply with such a demand. Mr. Pugh, of Alabama, has made answer for the Democrats with a series of resolutions, defining the respective prerogatives of President and Senate in matters of appointment and removal, and sustaining Mr. Cleveland in his refusal to furnish information as to his motives for exercising his power to remove or suspend an official. The issue thus joined will come up for discussion in open session, and the debate cannot fail to be a good thing for the country. It will be the first step toward that complete publicity regarding the disposition of the offices which the country is resolved to have. We observe that Mr. Edmunds on Tuesday repeated his familiar lecture to his colleagues about their wickedness in letting the newspapers know what is said and done about public business in executive session. The insistence of the Vermont Senator upon strict observance of this mummery is only another illustration of that pettiness of temperament which seems to be aggravated year by year, until it often counterbalances his great ability.

As we understand it, while the President stoutly maintains that the Senate has no right, in its capacity of enjoying certain executive prerogatives, to ask him for papers regarding a suspension which it proposes to consider in secret session, he would interpose no objection to furnishing any information desired for discussion and action in open legislative session. In other words, what Mr. Cleveland insists upon in this matter is publicity, and he is quite right. The consideration of nominations in secret sessions has been fruitful of abuses of every sort. There is not a single sound argument in favor of it. Senator Logan rightly declared the other day that the people have just as much right to know what is said and done in regard to nominations as in regard to legislation. He might have gone still further, and declared with perfect truth that the people are much more deeply interested just now in learning the principles upon which the Senate treats nominations than they are in the greater part of its ordinary legislation. We trust that General Logan will continue to demand the reform which he has championed, and we wish we had more faith than we have that he will carry it through. We trust also that the Republicans will take this issue about suspensions into open session, and get all the facts before the country. Publicity about the whole business of filling the offices would do more to secure the establishment of a thoroughgoing reform than any other thing. The Republicans in the Senate will do the country a great service if they will insist upon publicity. But their treatment of the suspension issue thus far has been so plainly an attempt to secure partisan advantage that we have not much confidence that they will do this.

Senator Sherman has introduced a bill to discontinue the coinage of silver dollars, and to substitute in place of such coinage the purchase by the Treasury of an equal amount of silver bars, upon which may be issued coin certificates having the same legal qualities as the present silver certificates. Such a measure would be preferable to the existing law only in two respects. It would save the cost of coining, and it would introduce a new Chinese puzzle into our monetary system, which would probably have the effect politically of mystifying so many people that the Sherman bill would itself be soon repealed. The result would be that both the Bland Act and the Sherman Act would be out of the way, and of course that would be a good thing. But Bland and Beck are too shrewd not to see all this as well as Mr. Sherman himself. We do not look for any votes for the measure which would not be given for the repeal of the Bland Act pure and simple.

The Boston *Herald* has been having a curious controversy with its filthy and mendacious contemporary the Boston *Journal* — the only morning paper in that city, by its own confession, which ventured to support Blaine in 1884 —touching Blaine's attitude toward silver. The *Herald* said he had in the Senate, in 1878, "favored a silver dollar containing 425 grains of silver in place of the standard coin of 412½ grains, to have unlimited coinage, and be an unlimited legal tender." This the *Journal* pronounced "a deliberate and wanton perversion of truth," a term which it often uses as synonymous with undoubted fact. The *Herald* now quotes from a bill which Blaine introduced in February, 1878, and which he said contained "three very simple provisions":

> "That the dollar shall contain 425 grains of standard silver, shall have unlimited coinage, and be an unlimited legal tender."

This was Blaine all over. Everything about him is "unlimited"—gold, silver, brass, stocks, and bonds. The *Herald* wonders what the *Journal* will say now.

A good many of the religious journals have hastily endorsed the extraordinary anti-Mormon measure which was recently rushed through the Senate, which proposes practically to confiscate the property of the church, by authorizing the President to appoint trustees who shall control it. The *Christian Union*, however, has taken time to examine into the matter, and finds an objection to the measure, from the religious point of view, which is even more serious than the purely secular objections. It thus states its reasons for opposing the measure:

> "If Congress has a right to appoint trustees of a religious corporation in the Territories, by a parity of reasoning the State Legislatures would have a right to appoint similar trustees in the States, and there would be nothing to prevent a legislative body governed by infidels from putting all church property into secular hands, or, for that matter, a Protestant or a Roman Catholic legislative body from dealing in a similar manner with the trustees of churches of an opposite faith."

The *Christian Union* hopes to see a "braver and fuller discussion" of this bill in the House than it received in the Senate. The hasty passage of such a measure is one of the most discreditable things of which the upper branch has been guilty for a long time.

The opponents of the Bell Telephone suit are making a great clamor over the pecuniary interest which Attorney-General Garland has in the setting aside of the Bell patent, and are charging that this is really the main motive of the Government's action; that Secretary Lamar, while having no pecuniary interest in the matter, has yielded to the personal influence of his associate, Mr. Garland, in bringing the suit. Clamor of this kind would have no weight with the public were it not based upon a certain amount of truth. Unfortunately there is only too much truth in this instance. The relations of the Attorney-General to a telephone company seriously interfere with his usefulness as a public officer in all matters relating to tele phone litigation. He is the self-confessed owner of a very large block of stock in a rival company. Documents have been published which show that he acquired this stock while he was in the Senate, and that he was given it because the promoters of the enterprise believed he would be useful to them. His own letters show that he not only "saw various channels in which he could be useful," but that he was useful in many of them. When he became Attorney-General, he was asked to bring a suit in the name of the Government to test the validity of the Bell patent. He declined to do this, as he subsequently explained in a letter to President Cleveland, because he was "disabled by being a stockholder and the attorney for the company in whose name it was intended to make the application." This refusal was given some time last summer. A few weeks later, Mr. Garland left Washington for a vacation in Arkansas, and soon after his departure it was announced that the suit which he had declined to bring had been granted to the applicants by the Solicitor-General. The popular outcry against the proceeding was very great, and the Attorney-General's relations to the company bringing the suit were fully exposed. The President called upon him for an explanation, and it was given in a long communication dated October 8. In it Mr. Garland admitted the truth about his stock in the rival company, explained, as cited above, his reasons for declining to grant the suit, and declared that the Solicitor-General's permission had been obtained without his knowledge or consent. The President then intimated very plainly to the Solicitor-General that he had better revoke his permission for the suit and refer the question to the Interior Department, and this was done. Secretary Lamar's decision to allow the suit to be brought has caused great surprise, and has revived the whole subject of the Attorney-General's relations to the question.

Defence of Mr. Lamar's action may be possible, and if it is it should not be delayed. There is no light to be found in his official announcement of his decision, for he gives no opinion upon the merits of the case. It was very evident that he had not carefully examined the subject, for he states, as a reason for bringing the suit in the name of the United States, that no private suit could avail to set aside a patent which had been fraudulently obtained, whereas the Revised Statutes (section 4920) expressly provide that this issue can be raised in a suit brought for infringement. If he was not influenced by his personal regard for the Attorney-General and the other eminent Southern gentlemen who are also stockholders in the Pan-Electric Company, he should make that fact as plain as possible. The great pity of it all is that no explanation can free the Administration from more or less scandal in the matter. Mr. Garland is the head of the Department of Justice, and if the suit is to be tried in the Government's name, his Department will have charge of the prosecution. That he will not take charge of it personally does not materially lessen the objection. He owns a half million dollars' worth of stock in the Pan-Electric Company, or one-tenth of its whole capital. The company has eight licensed branch companies, with an ostensible capital of $40,000,000, of which 40 per cent. belongs to the Pan-Electric Company, and one-tenth of this 40 per cent. belongs to Mr. Garland. If the Bell patent were to be set aside, Mr. Garland's interest, which is now little more than paper capital, would become enormously valuable, and this contingency will be certain to affect the conduct of every man associated with him. Under these circumstances neither he nor a department controlled by him ought to have any connection with a suit of such great importance and brought under such suspicious circumstances. It would not be sufficient for him to dispose of his stock altogether, for his former relations would be certain to affect his conduct. We are frank to say that there is only one of two courses for the Government to follow, and that is either to order the abandonment of the suit or to call for the resignation of Mr. Garland. His continuance in office under the present conditions is doing the Administration irreparable injury.

While it is doubtful if much will be accomplished by the inquiry which the House has authorized concerning the Government expenditures in the proposed telephone suit, the mere fact that a Democratic House has felt obliged to take notice of the subject is a striking illustration of the impression which the telephone scandal is creating. The Committee on Expenditures in the Department of Justice, which is to make the inquiry, is not a remarkably impressive body of men. It is composed of Gibson, of West Virginia; Hammond, of Georgia; Seymour, of Connecticut; Ward, of Illinois; Milliken, of Maine; Hanback, of Kansas; and Sawyer, of New York. Of these Mr. Hanback is the author of the resolution under which the inquiry is to be made. He says he is determined to have the whole matter thoroughly investigated, but the terms of the resolution limit the inquiry to the expenses incurred by the Department relative to the suit. They do not give the Committee authority to inquire into the Attorney-General's relations to the Pan-Electric Company, which constitute the real ground for the present scandal. The question is not how much money the Government has spent in allowing the suit to be brought, but upon the impropriety of allowing it to be brought at all under an Attorney-General who has personal and pecuniary interests in the result.

The House on Monday, by a vote of exactly three to one, passed the bill increasing the pensions of widows and dependent relatives of soldiers from $8 to $12 a month. This was to have been expected, and as it is estimated that the change will add only about $6,000,000 to the annual pension roll, the country will probably not grumble. The amendment removing the limitation of the Arrears Act, which the Pension Commissioner says would cost the Treasury more than $300,000,000, was ruled out of order, but its advocates mean to push it as a separate proposition later, and will carry it through unless public sentiment pronounces strongly against it.

The decision of the Supreme Court in the Virginia coupon cases, announced on Monday, is another great triumph of honesty over fraud. The State of Virginia, to cut the matter short, made the coupons on its bonds receivable for taxes, and then, under the guidance of the "readjusters," repudiated them, first by requiring that every holder of a coupon who offered it for taxes should prove its genuineness, so as to make their use intolerably troublesome and expensive; and at last by open and brazen declaration of their worthlessness. The Court of Appeals of the State sustained this swindle, but the Supreme Court of the United States has put an extinguisher on it. The whole affair shows that Mahone did not spring up on stony ground. He was produced by a rotten public sentiment.

The legislative row at Columbus during the past week was a disgrace to the State of Ohio. At the October election the Cincinnati Democrats managed to count in their candidates for Senators and Representatives in Hamilton County by tampering with the true returns of the votes. The forgery by which the narrow Democratic majority was secured has been clearly exposed, and at least one honest man among the company who thus secured certificates has openly confessed that he and his fellows had no right to the seats which they claimed. The job was put through by the corrupt McLean gang in a desperate attempt to manufacture a Democratic majority in the Legislature and elect the *Enquirer* editor to the United States Senate. It failed, but it rendered the Legislature uncomfortably close, the Democrats having three majority in the Senate and the Republicans six in the House. The natural course would have been for the Republican candidates from Cincinnati to claim the seats of the Democratic incumbents in each branch, and for the Senate and House to institute a thorough investigation in a deliberate way. This course would doubtless have been pursued but for the complication of the Senatorship. The Republicans had three majority in the whole Legislature, but Mr. Sherman's friends had good reason to fear that two or three members of the party were so much opposed to his reëlection that they would vote for some other Republican and elect him with Democratic help, if indeed they might not go so far as to support a Democrat outright. The Republican majority in the House therefore concluded to turn out the ten Democratic representatives from Cincinnati in short order, and the Republican contestants were admitted after a hasty and brief investigation. It was theoretically an abuse of power by the Republicans; but as, practically, the Democrats had no valid claim to the seats, the public was disposed to excuse the performance.

Senator Sherman was reëlected, and no excuse was left for any haste or heat in settling the contested seats in the upper branch. But the Republicans had come to regard brute force as a good weapon, while the rather harsh treatment of the Cincinnati Democrats in the House had put the Senators from that city in an ugly frame of mind. The Senate consisted of twenty Democrats and seventeen Republicans, and was presided over by the Republican Lieutenant-Governor, whose duties as presiding officer are not clearly defined by the State Constitution. The Democrats took it for granted that he would claim great powers, and attempted to restrain him by establishing a set of rules which made him only a figurehead. The question of the right of the four Cincinnati Senators to their seats came up; the Lieutenant-Governor held that the sitting Democratic members had no right to vote upon it; the seventeen Republicans sustained the Lieutenant-Governor; the sixteen Democrats whose seats are not contested, with the four from Cincinnati, denied his power to make such a ruling; and confusion worse confounded ensued. After some days of rival Senates and narrow escape from bloodshed, the sensible members of both parties got together, and agreed upon a compromise, providing for a fair investigation by a properly constituted committee, whose report is to be accepted as final. If this proves to be the issue of the controversy, the Senators will only have adopted, after a disgraceful squabble, the course which they ought to have pursued in the beginning. It is impossible to feel much sympathy for either party to the quarrel. The Democrats indisputably have no moral claim to the seats, but the Republicans would have made their case infinitely stronger if they had been content to go more slowly.

A man who fought to preserve the Union should have a right to share in governing the country which he helped to save; yet there is one State where a large number of veterans are to this day under some circumstances by law debarred from voting. A bill was introduced in the Rhode Island Legislature last week which proposes the submission to the electors of the State, at the April election this year, of a Constitutional amendment extending the right of suffrage to all Union soldiers and sailors of foreign birth resident in the State who served during the war of the Rebellion. Rhode Island still maintains the property qualification so far as foreigners are concerned, and no citizen of this

class, however meritorious his services, can vote unless he has a freehold. Something over one-fifth of the State's population in 1860 was of foreign birth, and among the 23,699 men furnished to the Union army during the war there must have been some thousands of foreigners, the survivors of whom have never acquired the right to vote, although no freehold qualification is required of a native who had not courage enough to join the army. Rhode Island sticks obstinately to old ways, but it hardly seems possible that a majority of those who now enjoy the right to vote will longer deny it to men whose assistance to the State was needed and welcomed in the greatest crisis of her history.

Senator Edmunds has persuaded the Judiciary Committee to report adversely upon the nomination of Mr. Merrick as Judge of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, on the ground that he is too old, having reached his sixty-sixth year when he was named for the position last spring. It will be interesting to see what stand will be taken upon this question by sundry of Mr. Edmunds's associates—like his colleague, Mr. Morrill, for instance, who has recently entered upon a new term of six years at the age of seventy-five; Mr. Evarts, who expects to deliver his inaugural address as President in 1889, just after completing his seventy-first year; Mr. Sawyer, who has the pipes all laid for his reëlection by the Wisconsin Legislature next winter in his seventy-first year; Mr. Dawes, who is running for reelection in Massachusetts next year, when he will be well along in his seventy-first year, as "the Indian's friend," and vindicating his claim by dashing about over the Western country every summer; and many other Senators on each side of the chamber, who are Judge Merrick's seniors, but are busily scheming for another term of office. Mr. Edmunds is sound enough in holding that, as a rule, it is better not to appoint a man to a judgeship after he has passed sixty, because he is unlikely to serve long; but with so many examples as we have, from the Supreme Court down, of men able to do good service on the bench after they have reached seventy, it would be unjust not to make an exception in the case of a man like Mr. Merrick, who is vigorous in body and mind. Old age is not an absolute term, but a matter of individual constitution. Mr. Edmunds himself is only fifty-eight, but he manifests more of the querulousness usually associated with advancing years than many Senators who are a decade older.

The correspondence touching the authenticity of the remark attributed by General James B. Fry to General Sherman, that, "had C.F. Smith lived, Grant would have disappeared to history after Donelson," proves that General Sherman did use that language in the identical words quoted. The context shows, also, that the words were used in connection with the misunderstanding that then existed between Grant and Halleck, concerning which General Sherman says, "I had the highest possible opinion of Halleck's knowledge and power, and never blamed him for mistrusting Grant's ability." The statement that "had C. F. Smith lived Grant would have disappeared to history after Donelson," contains nothing derogatory to General Grant, and nothing out of the range of probability, and nothing inconsistent with the spirit of true friendship between Grant and Sherman. If Grant had been definitely superseded after Donelson and had retired to Galena, as he was on the point of doing after Shiloh, and would have done but for Sherman's entreaty, he would have "disappeared to history." Evidently this thought was in General Sherman's mind when he wrote his hasty note to Colonel Scott, from which General Fry quoted. The contingency which, together with Sherman's personal intervention, kept Grant in the army at that critical juncture, was the death of General C. F. Smith, who would unquestionably have been put in command of the Army of the Tennessee if he had lived—not through any act of Sherman's, but in consequence of the then prevailing distrust of Grant's ability. General Sherman says that he never blamed Halleck for sharing in this distrust. Nor is Halleck to be fairly blamed.

Of course, General Sherman had forgotten that he used those words in his letter to Col. Scott. The question arises, Why did not General Fry tell him at once what his authority was for the quotation? The answer is not far to seek. General Sherman never asked General Fry that question, but asked a third party to find out for him. Military men are apt to be punctilious, and when an officer finds himself treated cavalierly by a brother officer, he is excusable for standing on his dignity. This is what General Fry did and had a right to do. If General Sherman had addressed him a respectful inquiry asking what his authority was, he would probably have received a respectful and categorical answer. If he had not received such a response, General Fry would have put himself as much in the wrong as General Sherman now is.

One of the singular things about boycotting in this country is the equanimity with which its victims submit to attempts to extort money from them by the boycotters. The New Haven *Morning News* is at this writing undergoing persecution of this sort from the "Trades Council," of New Haven, because it will not discharge all its present compositors, and employ others furnished to it by the Typographical Union and pay $500 as the cost of its own humiliation. It refused this and proposed arbitration, which the Council refused, and the "Joint Boycott Committee" then announced in a letter to the *Morning News* Company that, in addition to the "indemnity" previously demanded, "it was decided at a meeting of the Committee held yesterday that they should be charged $50 per week after the present week as a just share of the expense incidental to the boycott." Now the Typographical Union has a perfect right to strike, or order a strike, or make any demands it pleases as regards the dismissal or employment of compositors; but unless the law of Connecticut differs from that of most other civilized communities, demanding money as the price of desisting from attempts to injure or interfere with a man's business is there a criminal offence. In this State it is "blackmail," under the Penal Code, to threaten "to do any injury to any person or any property in order to extort or gain any money or other property." Surely this or something like it must be the law in Connecticut too. If it be, why does not the *Morning News* Company have this "Joint Committee" arrested and brought to justice?

Parnell could not have taken the Irish Secretaryship, as it was rumored he would consent to do, without losing all influence in Ireland, so familiar have the people there been in times past with the practice of stopping the mouths of Irish Parliamentary patriots by giving them office. Moreover, he is, as he himself says, pledged to opposition to all legislation dictated by "alien feelings," which legislation for Ireland in London is and must continue to be. In fact, this phrase contains the real strength of the home-rule position. Legislation in our day to produce content has to be the work of men who both understand and sympathize with the people for whom they legislate. In fact, this may be called one of the essentials of modern government This sort of legislation, Englishmen, it has been fully proved, no matter how much pity they may feel for the Irish or how earnestly they may desire to serve them, cannot furnish. In fact, an Englishman filled to the chin with justice and pity for people whom he looks down upon, is probably one of the most exasperating rulers in the world. His subjects, no matter how much he does for them, never get over the desire to hit him with something. This really gives a touch of pathos to the position of the Liberal party toward Ireland at this moment.

Since the adjournment of Congress, Mexican politics have worn a calmer exterior, but it is evident that a great deal of intriguing is going on. Governors and generals are unexpectedly found in the capital conferring with the President; Gonzales himself comes to look after his interests on the spot; and the rumor is renewed that Lerdo, whose name is still one to conjure with in Mexico, is about to return from his exile in New York to dictate terms for himself and his faction. The best opinion seems to be that the quarrel between Diaz and Gonzalez has been adjusted, on the basis of an agreement by the latter to abandon all pretensions to another term as President, leaving the Administration to arrange the succession, on condition that all the proceedings against him for misuse of public funds be at once dropped. It is said to be in pursuance of this compact that Gonzalez has so passively allowed the work of displacing his followers in Nuevo Leon, Tamaulipas, and Coahuila to go on. The Government is far from having extricated itself from the financial difficulties bequeathed to it by the former Administration. It is vigorously insisting upon the rigid execution of the funding laws of June 22, as affording the only hope of permanent relief. Protests against that legislation, petitions for its amendment, and requests for exemption from its operation are pouring in upon the President, but he remains firm. He is reported recently to have said that the Mexicans had hitherto only known what it was to make laws, but that he was now about to teach them what it was to obey the laws.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 26, to TUESDAY, February 2, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President, through the Attorney-General, on Friday refused to transmit to the Senate in executive session the papers with reference to the suspension from office of the District Attorney for the Southern District of Alabama, because "it is not considered that the public interests will be promoted."

The Democratic Senators in a caucus on Saturday unanimously resolved "that we approve the action of the President communicated to the Senate through Attorney-General Garland, in his letter of January 29, 1886, and that we cordially support the Executive therein." A Democratic Senator, speaking of the caucus, said that it was harmonious; that no suggestion of opposition was made in any quarter; that the Democratic Senators intend by this resolution to endorse the general policy of the President, and do not limit their approval to the answer from the Attorney-General; and that their decision is to apply to the issue which is now made between the Executive and the Senate.

Attorney-General Garland's letter was laid before the Senate in executive session on Monday. Mr. Edmunds moved that the letter be referred to the Committee on the Judiciary, of which he is Chairman, and that that Committee be given authority to report its opinion of the matter in open session. Mr. Hoar suggested that the letter should be sent to the Committee on Privileges and Elections, of which he is Chairman. The matter went over on an objection by Senator Butler (Dem., S. C.).

The controversy between the Senate and the President was brought up in the open Senate on Tuesday morning by a resolution introduced by Mr. Riddleberger (Readj., Va.) in these words: "Resolved, That it is the sense of the Senate that the Executive of the United States is not restricted by the Constitution or law in removing or suspending appointees; that the Senate has no constitutional right to require that reasons shall be given for said removals or suspensions. But it is the right of the Senate to call for any papers relating to the conduct of suspended appointees, or the qualifications and fitness of all persons whose names are presented to the Senate for confirmation or rejection; and that it is the duty of the Executive to comply with all demands for the same." Mr. Riddleberger said his object was to secure a discussion in open session. The resolution, which represents the Republican position, went over for one day. Mr. Pugh (Dem., Ala.) also introduced a resolution designed to state the Democratic position as to the relative powers of the President and Senate. The purport of it was that it would be an encroachment upon the constitutional rights of the Executive to furnish any information that could be used directly or indirectly in the matter of suspensions or removals.

The Senate Committee on Indian Affairs will report adversely on the nomination of Morris R. Thomas, of Maryland, to be Indian Inspector.

Senator Sherman on Thursday introduced a bill to amend the Coinage Act of February 28, 1878. It provides for the immediate suspension of the coining of the Bland dollar, and authorizes the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase "silver bullion in bars, not less than nine-tenths fine, at the market price thereof, not less than 2,000,000 ounces Troy per month, nor more than 4,000,000 ounces Troy per month, and he shall issue in payment therefor coin certificates of the United States in denominations of not less than ten dollars each, corresponding with the denominations of the United States notes; and the bullion so purchased shall be retained in the Treasury for the security and for the payment of the same; and the amount of such certificates at any time outstanding shall not exceed the cost of the bullion purchased by such certificates, and the certificates thus issued shall be receivable for customs, taxes, and all public dues, and when so received may be reissued; and the Secretary of the Treasury shall redeem in coin the same certificates on their presentation for redemption at the office of the Assistant Treasurer of the United States in the city of New York, in sums not less than $50. Any holder of standard silver dollars or gold coin of the United States, or gold bullion at its mint value, may deposit the same with the Treasurer or any Assistant Treasurer of the United States in sums of not less than $10, and receive coin certificates therefor similar in denomination and legal effect to the certificates provided for in the preceding section. The coin deposited for or representing the certificates shall be retained in the Treasury for the payment of the same on demand." This bill is understood to be an attempt to give effect to some of the main provisions of the Warner bill.

The argument upon the bill for an international copyright was begun before the Senate Committee on Patents on Thursday morning. The American Copyright League was represented by Mr. A. G. Sedgwick, Dr. Howard Crosby, J. B. Gilder, George Walton Greene, and Mark Twain. On Friday Mr. James Russell Lowell spoke strongly in support of the law.

The House of Representatives on Wednesday passed the bill declaring forfeited certain land grants to the States of Mississippi, Alabama, and Louisiana to aid in the construction of rail roads, amended by providing that the lands restored to the public domain shall be subject to entry and settlement under the provisions of the Homestead Law only; if, however, sales of any such lands have heretofore been made by the United States, such sales are confirmed.

The House of Representatives on Monday passed the following resolution: "That the Committee on Expenditures in the Department of Justice be empowered to make full inquiry into any expenditure on the part of the Government relative to the rights of the Bell and Pan-Electric Telephone Companies; and for the purpose of this investigation, and to the end that the people may be fully advised, the Committee is granted the right to send for persons and papers—all expenses to be audited and accounted from approved vouchers, and when so approved to be paid out of any moneys in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated." Some of the Arkansas members were indiscreet enough to seem to put themselves in opposition to the inquiry; but Mr. Morrison asserted his leadership, shrewdly asked for unanimous consent to have the resolution considered, and it was passed.

By a vote of 198 to 66 the House on Monday passed the bill increasing the pensions of widows and dependent survivors of Union soldiers from $8 to $12 a month.

The Pensions Committee of the House instructed its Chairman on Monday to report the Mexican Pension Bill at the earliest opportunity. The bill gives $8 monthly to all Mexican soldiers and their widows.

The Secretary of the Navy has received information from the Pacific Mail Steamship Company that another revolution is threatened on the Isthmus of Panama. Rear-Admiral Jouett, commanding the North Atlantic Station, was on Friday directed by telegraph to remain at Aspinwall with the *Tennessee* for the present.

Mr. Maynard, Second Comptroller of the Treasury, has made a report upon the adjustment and settlement of the accounts of the disbursing officers of the Signal Service, in which he asserts that many apparently irregular and unauthorized disbursements have been made.

The public-debt statement for January shows a reduction of $8,672,553 81.

The Supreme Court of the United States has reversed the decision of the Court of Appeals of Virginia, and decided that the tender of coupons in payment of taxes is legal.

Despatches were received on Thursday, dated Nacori, Sonora, Mexico, January 21, from Lieutenant Maus, United States Army. They say that the troops under Captain Crawford, on January 11, surrounded and attacked an Indian camp fifty miles southeast of Nacori. A two-hours' running fight took place, and a number of Indians were wounded, but all escaped. The hostiles sent word that they wished to hold a conference. While the troops were in camp awaiting the time fixed for the conference, they were attacked by 154 Mexican soldiers. Efforts were made to let them know that the troops were Americans and friends. Captain Crawford and Lieutenant P. Maus advanced to talk with them, when a volley was fired. Captain Crawford was shot in the head, and died on the 18th. The Mexican fire was returned by the scouts of Captain Crawford's command, but only sufficiently to keep the Mexicans at a distance. The firing lasted half an hour, when Lieutenant Maus succeeded in having a talk with the officer in command of the Mexicans, their captain having been killed. He was told the Americans were taken for hostiles owing to the darkness. Other reports say that the attack was intentional. The Mexicans lost four killed and five wounded.

The following day two squaws from the hostiles, who had escaped, came to Lieutenant Maus to treat for terms. He refused to talk with them and also refused to talk with two bucks, who followed soon after. Geronimo, the head chief, and Natchez, another chief, then appeared to make terms. They said they were utterly discouraged, and were tired of being hunted from rock to rock. Lieutenant Maus would consent to nothing but an unconditional surrender. The chiefs then agreed to meet General Crook at a point on the line between Mexico and the United States. They sent hostages to the American camp. The hostiles are now on their way to the place of meeting with General Crook, and expect to reach there by February 4th. The party numbers twenty-two bucks, and is supposed to comprise all the renegades.

The third annual report of the New York Civil-Service Commission to the Governor was presented to the Assembly on Wednesday morning. It gives the following statistics: Number of persons in the service of the State subject to civil-service regulations 15,179, including 7,355 in New York, and 1,931 in Brooklyn. During the year, 4,822 persons were examined and 2,725 appointed. The Commissioners say the importance of securing the best qualified physicians for health officers is apparent, but regret that the provisions made to prevent the appointment of incompetent and inexperienced men for reasons of political or personal favoritism have not been as effective as they should have been. The whole number of hea th officers in the State is 1,282. Only 241 have been appointed in conformity with the rules.

The New York Senate on Wednesday passed a resolution for an investigation by the Railroad Committee of the granting of the Broadway franchise in this city. The vote was twenty-five to five (four Republicans and one Democrat.)

The trial of General Shaler, President of the Board of Health of this city, for accepting a bribe was concluded on Thursday by the jury disagreeing.

The aggregate resources of the savings banks of this city at the commencement of the present year were $301,000,000. The amount due depositors was $256,000,000, an increase in deposits of $11,000,000 during the year. Total surplus on market values at the same date was $45,000,000. The number of depositors or open accounts was 640,000. During the year the sum of $8,300,000 of interest has been credited to depositors. The amount deposited

during the year was $75,000,000 and the amount withdrawn $71,000,000.

The Massachusetts Senate on Friday rejected the order to investigate the sale by the Governor and Council of the bonds of the New York and New England Railroad held by the State. The vote was 19 to 7, four of the eleven Democrats voting with the Republicans.

Professor Thompson, of the University of Pennsylvania, has been engaged by Yale College to deliver a course of lectures on political economy from the protectionist point of view. It is said that his salary is paid by a few Connecticut gentlemen who do not believe in Professor Sumner's free-trade views.

David R. Atchison died at his home in Missouri on January 26, aged seventy-nine. He was United States Senator from that State from 1843–1855, and was twice President *pro tem.* of that body. While holding that position in 1849 it was said that he was practically President for one day, Sunday, March 4th; President Taylor not being inaugurated until March 5th. At the outbreak of the war he was active in organizing the Confederate forces in Missouri, and took part in several battles.

Henry P. Kidder, senior partner of the banking firm of Kidder, Peabody & Co., of Boston and New York, died in this city on Thursday afternoon, aged sixty-three years. He was one of the Overseers of Harvard College.

Mrs. Bayard, the wife of the Secretary of State, died in Washington on Sunday morning. Her health had greatly improved since last summer, but the death of her daughter caused a shock which resulted in brain trouble. She became unconscious on Saturday and did not rally.

Gen. David Hunter (retired) died in Washington on Tuesday, aged eighty-four. He commanded the Departments of Kansas and the South during the civil war, and held other important positions. On May 9, 1862, he issued his famous proclamation declaring the slaves of Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina free, by virtue of martial law. This proclamation the President annulled on May 19. He was brevetted Major-General in 1865, and retired the following year

John D. Philbrick, Superintendent of the Boston public schools from 1856 to 1874, and before that State Superintendent of Public Schools for Connecticut, died at his home in Danvers, Mass., on Tuesday morning, after a lingering illness. He had been engaged in educational work from the time of his graduation from Dartmouth College, in the class of '42, and was among the most prominent teachers in the country.

FOREIGN.

The British Cabinet crisis remained unsettled for several days after the Tory defeat. It was thought at one time that the Queen would summon Lord Hartington to form a Cabinet, but on Friday morning the London *Standard*, Conservative, announced that the Queen would unquestionably summon Mr. Gladstone.

The Queen on Friday summoned Mr. Gladstone to a conference at Osborne in regard to forming a Cabinet. Mr. Gladstone left London on Monday, and was greeted with enthusiasm on his journey. He received the personal command of the Queen to form a Cabinet.

A trustworthy forecast of Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet, published on Tuesday, asserts that Lord Northbrook will be Viceroy for Ireland, Mr. John Morley Chief Secretary for Ireland, and Sir William Vernon Harcourt Home Secretary. Lord Northbrook will not have a seat in the Cabinet. Mr. Gladstone will be Chancellor of the Exchequer, combining this office with the Premiership. Mr. H. C. E. Childers will be Minister of War, Sir Farrer Herschell probably Lord Chancellor, Lord Viscount Hampden, Lord of the Privy Seal, and Earl Spencer very likely Viceroy of India. Mr. Chamberlain was designated First Lord of the Admiralty, but has declined the post. Lord Richard Grosvenor will have an office, possibly that of Postmaster-General. Mr. G. O. Trevelyan will be President of the Local Government Board, and Mr. Mundella President of the Board of Trade. The reason of the Queen's delay in summoning Mr. Gladstone has generally been stated to be her dread of home rule This is contradicted. Her Majesty's hesitation was caused by fear of Granville again being Foreign Secretary at this critical moment of European politics. He will not be, but the Foreign Secretary will most probably be Earl Rosebery, who is personally on the best terms with Bismarck.

It is authoritatively announced in London that Lord Hartington will not join the new Cabinet. The *News* believes that he will remain neutral and will not seek to trammel Mr. Gladstone.

The Dublin *Freeman's Journal* on Monday said it had reason to believe that Mr. Gladstone has agreed with Mr. Parnell to join forces in Parliament for the passage of a bill which shall establish a native Parliament in Dublin to deal with Irish affairs; the new Legislature to be so constituted as to add to the present safeguards of the integrity of the Empire and the rights of the Crown.

Mr. Parnell, it is asserted, will firmly demand that the local government question be settled by Parliament before the land question, or that both subjects be discussed together.

Mr. Parnell was recently asked whether under any circumstances he would accept the Chief Secretaryship for Ireland. His reply was "Certainly not. To administer any law an honest man must be in sympathy with it and believe it to be a just and righteous law. Now, I am not in sympathy with the English rule of Ireland, but believe it to be both unjust in itself and prompted by alien feelings. Believing this, under no possible circumstances would I have part or lot in administering it."

The Duke of Westminster has retracted his recent charge against Parnellites of squandering Irish donations in debauchery. He says he is unable positively to prove the charge.

Lord Carnarvon, ex-Viceroy of Ireland, left Dublin on Thursday. He was followed to the railway station by enormous crowds and was enthusiastically cheered.

Miss Mary Gladstone, daughter of Mr. Gladstone, was married on Tuesday morning to the Rev. Harry Drew, of Hawarden. The ceremony was performed in St. Margaret's Church, Westminster. The Prince and Princess of Wales were present.

Prince Bismarck on Thursday, in the debate in the Prussian Landtag on the expulsion of the Poles from Germany, made a remarkable speech, occupying two hours in its delivery. He said the primary cause of the Government's action was the disloyalty of the Poles to the German Crown. They were constantly engaged in intrigues against the Government, and had made themselves a steady annoyance to Prussia. By acting as accomplices of the Opposition in the German Parliament, they effected a majority against the Government, and the Crown could do nothing less than either deny the demands of such a majority, or else destroy the evil element which made the majority possible. The Polish agitation in Germany, Prince Bismarck said, had always appeared to him an element of danger, and had compelled him to keep a watch upon Russia. The Poles had been constantly, and not always unsuccessfully, endeavoring to set foreign States against Prussia. "Hence," continued the Chancellor, "we have determined to buy out all the real estate owned by Polish nobles in Prussian Poland, and place German colonists on the lands hitherto occupied by the expelled people. In order to make the colonization inure permanently to the benefit of the empire, the colonists will be prohibited from marrying Poles. The cost of the undertaking will be about 300,000,000 marks (about $75,000,000), but the State will lose no more than 10 per cent. of this—a loss made necessary by the exigencies of the case, buying out an alien class and reselling to Germans—while the gain to the empire will be immeasurable. The Government will never concede the restoration of Poland, nor a hair's breadth in that direction. Religion is in nowise connected with the expulsions."

The discussion of the Polish expulsions was continued in the Lower House of the Prussian Landtag on Friday evening. The Polish members denied that the Poles were trying to eliminate the German element from eastern Prussia, although they confessed that a hope was entertained of the restoration of the Polish kingdom. Herr von Puttkamer, the Minister of the Interior, replied that any efforts to obtain the re-establishment of the Polish kingdom would constitute an act of high treason.

The Polish policy of Prince Bismarck has produced a general excitement throughout Germany and Austria. The immense Lubrienski estate, containing about 200,000 acres, one of the largest estates in Prussia, is offered for sale next April, as a result of the expulsions of the Poles. The inhabitants of the estate have for years been mainly Poles, and the edict of expulsion, by forcibly removing the tenantry and depriving the estate of its revenue, has thrown it upon the market. Addresses of sympathy have been sent to Bismarck by Germans in every part of the empire, and many have already reached him from people in Austria, especially from Bohemia.

In the latest collective note the Powers agree to prevent any warlike steps in the Balkans or territorial modifications.

It was reported on Wednesday that the warlike views of the Greek Cabinet had suddenly changed, and that they had issued a declaration that "Greece would comply with the wishes of Europe."

It was reported on Saturday from Athens that the King of Greece had become tired of the politics of the Athenians and especially their present warlike attitude, and would probably soon abdicate and retire to Copenhagen.

Turkey and Bulgaria have reached an understanding by which Prince Alexander will receive the title of Mushir and Governor-General of Eastern Rumelia. In case they are needed, Bulgaria will contribute 80,000 troops to the Turkish army.

The text of the treaty between France and Madagascar has been submitted to the French Chamber of Deputies. French property in Madagascar is to be inviolable without the sanction of the French Consul. Complete amnesty is to be granted to the prisoners taken on both sides during the recent war.

The French Cabinet has approved M. de Freycinet's scheme for a protectorate over Tonquin and Anam. A council of protection will be established at Hué. M. Paul Bert will be Resident-General, and there will be two Assistant Residents, one at Hué and the other at Hanoi. The protectorate will be a special independent department, having its own laws, budget, and general autonomy. Subsidies will be granted it as long as needed.

The French Government has appointed a permanent commission to examine into questions in relation to the monetary standard at home and abroad.

M. Armand Baschet, the French author, is dead at the age of fifty-seven. His reputation rests principally on many interesting publications resulting from his researches among the archives of Venice.

The St. Petersburg police authorities, having ascertained that a Nihilist plot was being formed, arrested twenty-three persons on Friday. On the discovery of the conspiracy the police, fearing that injury to the Czar was intended, advised him to return to his palace at Gatchina. He, however, declined to do so.

The Spanish budget shows a deficit of about $4,000,000. The Minister of Finance proposes certain reforms to restore the equilibrium.

THE PRESIDENT'S POSITION.

SOME day, and probably before many years, people will look back at the controversy now pending between the President and the Senate with wonder. The President is the Chief Magistrate of a nation of 60,000,000, and probably enjoys more real power than any constitutional monarch in the world. The Senate is universally admitted to be now the most powerful upper house in existence. The interests over which both President and Senate watch are vast almost beyond comparison, and the future for which they have in some degree to provide is so great that it overpowers the national imagination. The turning of the Republican party out of office, too, after having carried the nation through a great revolutionary crisis, was an almost unprecedented feat of peaceful politics. We do not believe any party so thoroughly entrenched in power was ever before dislodged by a popular vote with so little disturbance either to the orderly march of the Government or to the commercial interests of the country.

When one thinks upon these things, however, and then turns to the business which has been engaging a large part of the attention of both the Senate and the Executive during the past year, and especially during the past three months, one is filled with amazement. The President has had to fill 1,282 offices in his immediate gift since he came into power. Of these vacancies only 645 were due to removals. The rest were caused by resignation and death and the expiration of terms. It is melancholy that he should have had so many appointments to make. His time was meant for, and ought, to be devoted to better things. But considering the condition in which he found the civil service of the Government—that is, officered entirely by political partisans for political reasons, and officered, too, almost entirely with creatures or nominees of the Senators of one party—his moderation in making changes is wonderful. We doubt whether any ruler called on to deal with a great evil, and acting under powerful pressure from his own followers, ever applied the knife with so sparing a hand. While we yield to no one in the earnestness of our advocacy of tenure during good behavior, and the complete divorce of the subordinate branches of the public service from politics, we confess our astonishment that a man has been found, who, bred in the ordinary traditions of the Democratic party since Jackson's day, has had the courage and self-restraint to proceed as slowly as President Cleveland has done in the abatement of a monster evil, and make as manful a resistance as he has made to demands for party revenge which it requires almost superhuman virtue not to call legitimate.

That he has made many mistakes we admit and have often admitted, but this is simply confessing that the Democratic party did not nominate an angel unawares. But he has, all things considered—the composition and history of his own party, the condition of the civil service, the state of public opinion, and the demands of his place on his time and strength—made so few mistakes, has displayed so few weaknesses, and given so many evidences of preferring the public interests to those of party, that one cannot help regarding his appearance at this crisis in our history as something providential. If he were more of a reformer than he has proved himself to be, he would probably have made reform odious; if he were less, he would probably, like his predecessor, Mr. Hayes, have made it contemptible.

All that he claims for himself now, in this controversy with the Senate, is that, in considering the comparatively few changes he has made, the presumption shall be in his favor—that is, that it shall be taken for granted, until the contrary is proved, that in making any particular removal he has acted from good motives, and with an eye to the public good. To this presumption, it seems to us, he has shown himself fully entitled. Both what he has done and what he has refrained from doing give him a fair claim to have a favorable construction put on his acts. This is what he now asks of the Senate. That is, he expects as a matter of courtesy and justice that he shall not, at the demand of each of the very few petty officials whom he has removed, be called upon to show publicly that his action was not due to base or unworthy motives. We do not say, we repeat, that he has proved a perfect President. But we do say that he has, in all that relates to his management of the patronage, shown himself so much superior to any of his predecessors within the last fifty years that he at least ought not to be exposed to any indignity or impertinence from which his predecessors were exempt. To call him to the bar of the Senate and ask him to tell why he turned Smith out of this post-office and Brown out of that gaugership, is an indignity and an impertinence. Moreover, the Senate should be the last body in the community to offer it, for probably 90 per cent. of all the removals and appointments which have during the last twenty-five years, brought loss or discredit on the Government, or helped to corrupt and debase the politics of the country, have had their origin in the Senate Chamber. It is certainly not the Senate which can furnish judges to sit on President Cleveland's Administration in aught that relates to the purity of the public service.

Whether the President should himself be freer in letting the public know the reasons which have actuated him in making removals is another matter. We think it wise for him to take the people into his confidence with regard to such changes to any extent which his time and strength will permit. We believe nothing but good to him and the things he has most at heart could come from his letting all the world know both why he has removed so many, and yet so few. For nothing to us seems clearer than that in any attempt to put the Government on a business footing he will have to rely for success on the support he gets from public opinion. From men in public life he will in nine cases out of ten meet with either secret or open obstruction. The plain people who live by honest industry will be his best friends in trying to administer public affairs honestly, as they were the best friends of Lincoln in prosecuting the war for the Union. President Cleveland, unless we are greatly mistaken, is, in fact, doing what President Lincoln would have tried to do had he lived, and doing it in much the same way in which President Lincoln would have done it—slowly, cautiously, and with constant remembrance of the fact that there is a great deal of human nature in man.

THE COPYRIGHT QUESTION AGAIN.

THE copyright question is again before Congress, and various authors and literary men have received a hearing from the Committee of the Senate, on a bill which has been introduced by General Hawley at the instance of the American Copyright League. Another bill has, however, been introduced by Senator Chace, which is supported in a pamphlet by Mr. Henry C. Lea, the well-known author and publisher of Philadelphia. Senator Hawley's bill simply offers reciprocity to the foreign author, so that he could come here and secure copyright for his books, on complying with the requisite legal formalities, if his own country did the same thing for the American author. It is, in fact, an author's bill pure and simple.

Mr. Lea objects to this on behalf of the American reader, inasmuch as it would probably in its practical operation make books dearer; next on behalf of the paper-makers, printers, and binders, who would lose the work they now get in reprinting foreign or rather English books, inasmuch as the English author on obtaining copyright here would almost invariably have his book produced at home. On this point Mr. Lea makes the usual protectionist argument on behalf of native industry. Senator Chace's bill, on the other hand, provides for the manufacture in this country of all foreign books obtaining an American copyright, and absolutely prohibits the importation of foreign editions of the works so copyrighted. This prohibition, Mr. Lea says, is essential, and that it is "an invariable rule in all countries where copyright exists," but he fails to mention that it is a rule for the benefit of the author, not of the manufacturer. An English author can grant a permit to import foreign editions of his books, if he owns the copyright at home. Under Mr. Chace's bill no author could do anything of the kind.

Now, we understand the position of the protectionist opponents of the Hawley bill, or any author's bill, perfectly. We see why they desire to save the home paper-maker, printer, and bookbinder from foreign competition. What we do not understand is the exceptional way in which they seek to secure this protection. Against all other products of foreign industry all they ask by way of protection is either high import duties or total prohibition. But as regards foreign books, they claim the right of seizing the commodity and selling it for their own benefit. That is, they allow of its introduction and then convert it to their own use, unless the foreign producer chooses to accept their terms. When pushed to the wall for a moral defence of this system, they fall back on what we have always considered a most dreary bit of metaphysical slipslop. The air of profundity with which the ordinary champion of protectionist copyright produces it has always seemed to us very comic. We are far from putting Mr. Lea in this category, however, and yet we could hardly read in

his pamphlet without a smile that old story that "society recognizes no absolute and unlimited ownership in any species of property. All that the individual earns or inherits is held under such limitations as society sees fit to impose, in return for the protection which is afforded by the social compact, and the value which is imparted to ownership by the aggregation of individuals in communities."

This is all true as Gospel, but it is no more true of literary property than of property in houses and lands and railroad shares. Property in these things is also limited by the "social compact" and divers other more tangible agencies. But one of the great differences between civilized and uncivilized communities, between Dahomey and the United States for instance, is that in the latter the limitation on property is not enforced by "Society," except for the benefit of the whole community and on making due compensation to the owner. Society among civilized men in practice does not take any man's property away from him, or allow it to be taken, except for public use, and after giving the owner its value out of the Treasury. The one solitary exception to this rule is made in the case of literary property, and it is now only made by the United States. It is only here that civilized men get up and defend, on "high priori" grounds, the practice of taking away from a man, as not property, a thing which they themselves sell on the market as property.

The truth is, that whatever any man can sell and make a profit on is, or ought to be, in the eye of the law property. The dress, called a book, in which a man clothes his ideas is property, because, like cows or horses, it can be traced, identified, and sold on the market, and is therefore entitled to such protection as its peculiar nature calls for, like all other possessions. The ownership in land is not proved or protected in the same way as the ownership in railroad stocks; nor the ownership in railroad stocks in the same way as that in a bill of exchange. The difficulty of protecting property in books is greater than the difficulty in protecting any other property, because the thief can multiply the stolen article indefinitely; but the law is not called on to make all kinds of possessions equally secure. The law is called on to provide, for everything a man produces, and which anybody else would buy if he could not steal it, that simple, primary form of protection which consists in the prevention of open robbery or a robbery pure and simple in broad daylight. To this foreign authors are entitled from us, whatever may be our views about the tariff, or the need of protecting our native printers and bookbinders. We may protect these as we protect other producers, by any duty, however high, but we have no right to say to the foreign author that he must pay his duty or have the fruits of his industry appropriated by the first comer without any compensation whatever. It is the offer of this alternative, and this only, which brings discredit on the American name in this copyright matter, and it is made worse by being defended on metaphysical grounds. The a priori argument in its favor irresistibly reminds one of the way Dr. Johnson disposed of Boswell's attempts to prove that a certain lady was, in spite of appearances, a virtuous woman. It was short and incisive, but will not bear repetition.

NEW YORK IN THE SENATE.

New York, although the greatest commercial State in the Union, has now for many years been represented in the Senate by gentlemen who, to all outward appearance, took no interest in economical or financial questions. Its foremost Senator from 1867 to 1881 was Mr. Roscoe Conkling, who, we believe, contributed nothing that any one can remember to the debates which preceded the remonetization of silver and the resumption of specie payments, important as these were. New York owes her rapid growth and present supremacy almost entirely to foreign trade. It is her port which has made her what she is, yet in all the debates on the tariff and on custom-house management Mr. Conkling generally advocated whatever was likely to make the port of New York less attractive to foreigners, and to diminish the volume of trade passing through it. Mr. Edwin D. Morgan has in fact, extraordinary as it may seem, been the only person connected even remotely with foreign trade who has appeared for New York in the Senate since the close of the Rebellion. Ira Harris was a lawyer from the interior, Reuben E. Fenton was engaged in what are called "mercantile pursuits," but they were strictly domestic. Francis Kernan was a lawyer also. What Thomas C. Platt was or is, we think it would puzzle his warmest admirers to say. Warner Miller, as everybody now knows, is a paper manufacturer, and very hostile to "abroad," and Elbridge G. Lapham was a lawyer. Not one of these gentlemen, except Mr. Morgan, in any way represented or spoke for, or we might almost add understood, the basis on which the greatness of this city rests.

A great many people supposed, when Mr. Evarts went to the Senate, that this bad tradition would be broken. He speaks with fluency on so many subjects, that they supposed he would of course speak on the things which must make for the prosperity of this city and State, and foremost among these is a fixed and steady standard of value. All the great commercial cities of the world, Venice, Amsterdam, and London, have found this absolutely necessary to the maintenance of their commercial supremacy. Both Venice and Amsterdam during their prime found that the best help to their commerce was the maintenance through their respective banks of an unchangeable standard of value. For two hundred years the "bank money" of Amsterdam occupied in Europe the proud position which the "pound sterling" of London has occupied for the last century, as something in which any man might make promises without fearing that he would have to pay more than he agreed, or might accept promises without fearing that he would have to receive less than he expected. The American dollar, as the money of the great emporium of the western world, ought as a measure of value to have a place just as high as the pound sterling. Men in the remotest ends of the earth ought to know just what it is worth to-day, and just what it will be worth ten years hence.

When Mr. Evarts entered the Senate, a good many people expected that he would battle for this great consummation; that he would stand up for the only true "poor man's money"—that is, money on the ups and downs of which rich men cannot speculate. But these simple-minded persons have thus far been sadly disappointed. Not one word about currency or standards has been got out of him in the Senate. As far as the currency question is concerned, he might as well be on a journey or asleep, like the god Baal, who treated his worshippers so badly. They called, as Mr. Evarts's admirers are now doing, "on the name of Baal from morning until noon, saying, Oh, Baal, hear us! but there was no voice nor any that answered."

All that we have heard from Mr. Evarts as yet about the silver question consists in a somewhat mysterious appeal to the American people, uttered in Boston, to exert "pressure" about silver, more on one side than on the other; but as to the side of himself on which he would like the greatest pressure he has failed to give the slightest hint. That he has opinions about silver his friends, however, still stoutly maintain, in spite of his address before the Monetary Conference, which greatly puzzled the foreign members, for they expected to be addressed in terms of money, and were surprised to hear the American delegate discuss the question in terms of transcendental philosophy. He cannot, however, much longer remain silent. He cannot, without being unfaithful to his great trust, refuse to say on which side he would like "pressure." He must know that at such a crisis the State in which a large part of the national revenue is collected must have something to say about the standard of value. He must know, also, that if it had been supposed that his mind was a blank on the subject of currency, or that his researches had carried him no further than the conclusion that there ought to be a currency of some kind, but that, as the Irishman said, "the divil only knew" what kind of currency it ought to be, he never could have been elected. In fact, everybody who examines or observes him feels now every day more confident that a speech on silver is coming, and that it will be clear and concise, and that he will take his stand on the great principle known to the logicians as the Excluded Middle.

ENGLAND: ON THE EVE OF THE SESSION.

London, January 19, 1886.

Never since the meeting of the first reformed Parliament, more than half a century ago, has the opening of a Parliamentary session been watched with so much curiosity and anxiety as now fills the minds of the British people. It is not the mere eagerness of London quidnuncs or professional politicians to know into whose hands power and patronage will fall; it is more than the earnestness of the advocates of some scheme of reform to discover what the mind of Parliament will prove to be towards their projects. It is the perplexity of people who find themselves in a position wholly unprecedented, with questions calling for solution which touch the whole system of English government, and before which the most practised statesmanship halts and hesi-

tates. The circumstances are as peculiar as their course is menacing. The House of Commons is divided into three parties, each bitterly hostile to the other two. One of them is all but equal in strength to the other two. None is strong enough to assume and carry on the government of the country uuless it receives a large and steady support from one of the others, or from some considerable section thereof ; and no such support can be looked for except upon terms which would oblige the party receiving it to forego much of its own policy. As the Liberal party is very much stronger than the Tory (by about eighty members), the natural thing would seem to be for the Tory party, now in power, to resign or be turned out, and for its more moderate men to help the Liberals face the crisis. This comes nearer to the usage of government by a majority than a continued tenure of power by a Ministry which is in a minority of 160 or more of the whole House. But the Liberal party is itself so divided that it might prove unable to hold together, and keep its leaders in power as a Ministry. In previous letters I have called your attention to the serious differences of view that separate the moderate or Whiggish from the advanced or Radical section of the Liberals. These differences of opinion, expressed and aggravated in and by personal antagonisms between some of the leading men, would make the formation of a strong Liberal Cabinet no easy matter, even apart from the Irish question. But the Irish question seems to be producing a still deeper rift. The disposition to favor some scheme of home rule for Ireland (*i. e.*, a separate Parliament for that island, with control of Irish affairs), which has been attributed to Mr. Gladstone since the middle of last December, has, as your readers know, produced a copious and vehement discussion of the Irish problem. So far this discussion has been almost wholly on one side. The opponents of home rule have argued and declaimed with great force and fertility of illustration. Its advocates have scarcely replied, so that one cannot well tell what numbers or influence to assign to them. But, so far as can be judged, they are in a minority, perhaps a small minority, even in the ranks of the Liberal party itself. Nearly all the territorial magnates who head the Whig section of the party, including such men as the Dukes of Argyll, Bedford, and Westminster, are strongly opposed to the plan attributed to Mr. Gladstone. All the moderate men, and that solid centre of the party which includes the wealth and respectability of the upper middle class (so far as it belongs to the Liberal party), are equally averse. Many of the Radical chiefs, including, it is believed, Mr. Chamberlain himself, who used to be represented as too indulgent to Irish schemes, regard with distrust equal to that of the Dukes the idea of giving to such men as the Nationalist members the unchecked control of Irish destinies through an Irish Parliament.

It is not hard to explain this sentiment and see why it should unite men so far asunder as the Duke of Argyll and Mr. Chamberlain. The Nationalist party has done its utmost at Westminster to paralyze, to discredit, to insult the House of Commons of the United Kingdom. Some of its members have been reasonably suspected of connivance with agrarian as well as political crime. They have shown little aptitude for constructive legislation, little disposition to respect the security of property and person in Ireland. The Nationalist newspapers have been furious and brutal to a degree which even our respect for the liberty of the press finds it hard to tolerate. Every calumny is heaped upon English statesmen, every means taken of kindling Irish hatred against the whole people of Great Britain. At the last general election, the Irish vote was everywhere cast solid, under Mr. Parnell's orders, against Liberal candidates, even where the individual candidate had shown sympathy with Irish claims; and it is owing to this policy of the Nationalist chiefs that Mr. Gladstone does not now command a majority of the House of Commons. While the campaign was at its height, he appealed in passionate terms to the electors to place the Liberals in a majority sufficient to enable them to resist Mr. Parnell and to save the House of Commons from being left at the mercy of a faction which desired to injure it for their own purposes. No wonder, then, that the bulk of the English Liberals, who have for the last six years looked on the Parnellites as their bitterest foes, are bewildered when they are told that the main claim of the Parnellites is substantially a just claim, and may have to be conceded. This seems to them a sudden change of front, which they are not prepared to execute without much more thought than they have yet bestowed on the grave issues involved.

Among those Liberals who are disposed to give home rule a fair or even favorable consideration, two types of view may be distinguished. There are some who, wearied and disgusted by the long series of failures on the part of England to pacify Ireland, to establish good government and evoke good feeling, think that the time has come for a new departure. They admit that home rule is a dangerous experiment, but they add that, however bad, it can hardly be worse than a continuance of the policy of the past eighty years. When the old remedies have failed with a lamentably unbroken uniformity, the time has come for a new prescription. There are others who scarcely venture to argue the matter, but are moved by the instinct of loyalty to Mr. Gladstone and confidence in his superior insight. If he, they say, after all his experience of Irish troubles, has come to the conclusion that an Irish Parliament gives some sort of chance of making things better, there must be grounds for his hopes, and we are willing to follow and support him. The number of these men would probably be larger but for the alarm produced among them by the explosion of hostility to Mr. Gladstone and his supposed scheme from the other section of the Liberal party. People will tell you under their breath that they would be willing to give home rule a fair hearing and probably a trial, only the country is so evidently opposed to it that there is really no use at present in treating it as a possible course. Perhaps we may have to come to it after all, but not now. Such reticence makes it hard to say what support Mr. Gladstone would get were he to announce a policy such as that which has been ascribed to him; but so far as can be conjectured at present, that support would not much exceed, if it reached, one-half of the Liberal members of the House of Commons. Under these circumstances, with so serious a question standing in the near foreground, the prospects of Liberal union are not bright. Should Mr. Gladstone waive the home-rule question for the present, he may keep his party together. Should he declare himself in favor of an Irish Legislature, it seems impossible for him to do so. It is useless to speculate as to his intentions, because they may probably have been declared before this letter reaches you.

The attitude of the Tory party can be more easily and briefly described. Traditionally they are opposed to all concessions to Ireland, and, having resisted the Church Bill of 1869 and the Land bills of 1870 and 1881, they are *a fortiori* inclined to resist the grant of a separate legislature. They are moved not only by general Conservative sentiment, but also by alarm for the security of property and horror at the precedent that would be set by the dispossession of Irish landlords, which an Irish Parliament would soon effect were the reins thrown on its neck. The English landed aristocracy is, moreover, attached by family ties as well as by class sympathy to the Irish landlords, and all the Loyalist members who come from Ireland belong to the Tory party, and would revolt against it were it to yield to Mr. Parnell. Notwithstanding all this, it is credibly reported that the present Tory Government was at one time disposed to entertain a plan for the creation of what would have been in reality, whether or no in name also, a separate Parliament for Ireland. The dropping of the Crimes Act last summer, the sending over as Viceroy of Lord Carnarvon, who has just retired from that office; the intimate relations which subsisted (according to common belief) between a prominent Tory minister and the Nationalist leaders, all confirm this suspicion (some minor grounds for which I forbear to give). There would have been nothing wrong in their taking such a course, for they might have said that experience had shown the failure of previous attempts to govern Ireland from Westminster and through a centralized bureaucracy in Dublin, and that it was better to admit that they, as well as other English statesmen, had previously erred than to persist in a policy condemned by experience. Lord Salisbury's references to the home-rule question during the election campaign were so carefully worded as to leave it quite open to him to propose a scheme of home rule, and he scrupulously avoided anything that could give offence to the Nationalists so long as it seemed possible that by the aid of the Irish vote in England he could obtain a majority in the House of Commons. However, he did not obtain that majority, and very shortly afterward came the statements of Mr. Gladstone's alleged intentions. The storm of opposition which these statements evoked dispelled such doubts as may have lingered in the mind of the Tory Cabinet regarding the line they ought to take. They were not strong enough to carry a home-rule measure, even with the help of the Parnellites, if the Liberal party opposed it, especially as their contingent of Irish Tories, seventeen strong, would have revolted. They saw, moreover, that the general sentiment of the upper and middle class in England disliked the notion of home rule. This sentiment was as strong and more general in the Tory party than in the Liberal. Hence, it was clearly the wisest course to drop all ideas of home rule and Parnellite help, to put the ship promptly about, and fall off on the other tack, trusting that the breath of popular dislike to anything like surrender to the Irish would fill their sails. I do not say that this was the way they reasoned, for the Tory Cabinet as a whole may never have contemplated the policy which some of its members were meditating. But, anyhow, such reasonings were natural, and seem to offer the best prospect of party success.

Every one now expects the Cabinet to deliver itself in an energetic and patriotic sense in favor of the complete maintenance of legislative union with Ireland. Whether they will also propose a new coercion bill is more doubtful. The *Times* and the bulk of their own party in the country urge them to do so, while many Liberals would support them in Parliament in carrying such a measure. But it is understood that what they would like best is to escape that and every other responsibility by retiring from office. The position is so difficult and dangerous that they discover no hope of facing it through a whole session, except in the unlikely event of a section of the Liberal party coming over to them. It is probable enough that Liberal votes might float their ship over a coercion bill. But with a majority of 160 opposed to them on general questions, what prospects have they of carrying their Budget two months

hence,and weathering the other storms which the session is sure to have in store? If they must go, better go at once than after they have committed and entangled themselves by producing a programme. However, they cannot well resign without an adverse vote of the House of Commons, and it is supposed that they will go as far as usage permits in courting such a vote, and shifting the burden of the present position on to the Liberals. As this might open a schism in the ranks of the latter, these desire to prevent it, and if possible to keep the Tories in power for some while longer. It is like a duel in which both combatants seek to avoid delivering the first blow, or a game of chess where the side that moves first expects to lose the game. Much skill is needed. Mr. Gladstone is the most skilful player, but he has also the most difficult game, and his advanced age makes it harder for him to play that waiting game which may turn out to be the safest. Y.

THE PERMANENT DIFFICULTIES OF ENGLISH FOREIGN POLICY.

OXFORD, January 3, 1886.

JINGOISM has failed; anti-Jingoism has failed. Lord Beaconsfield's love of adventure, Mr. Gladstone's fear of responsibility, have ended in failure. No honest Conservative can pretend that Lord Beaconsfield solved the Egyptian problem; no honest Liberal can now deny that the Egyptian policy of Mr. Gladstone has been from beginning to end a series of blunders. What makes the failure of English statesmanship in the management of foreign affairs the more noteworthy is that both Lord Beaconsfield and Mr. Gladstone brought to the service of their country very extraordinary talents and enjoyed very remarkable opportunities for success. During the Conservative rule England might assuredly, had she chosen, have annexed Egypt. When Mr. Gladstone had bombarded Alexandria, the success of our fleet, combined with the voluntary withdrawal of France, left the game in our own hands. Neither want of talent nor want of opportunity prevented the Tory or the Liberal Prime Minister from achieving a triumph. The failure of England has flowed from general causes, and it is well worth while to examine into the nature of the difficulties which at the present moment hamper the foreign policy of the country. These sources of failure are various.

England, in the first place, is not, relatively to other countries, the Power which she was seventy years ago. England, it is true, possesses a reserve of strength which it is easy for pessimists to underestimate. The Great Britain of 1886 is a more contented, a more flourishing, a more united country than was the Great Britain of 1815. In Wraxall's 'Memoirs'—that curious repertory of inaccurate gossip which nevertheless contains a striking picture of the times—it is said that one reason against retaining Napoleon as a prisoner in England was the dread lest he should place himself at the head of the discontented classes. The fact that any man of judgment should have thought it possible for a French exile to revolutionize England, is as singular a proof as can be found of the feeling which, during the Regency, pervaded even the Tory party, that the people were not loyal to the national institutions. No Tory of 1884 would dread the presence in England of a modern Napoleon. But strength in matters of policy is a comparative term, and if the England of to-day is absolutely a more powerful country than the England of our grandfathers, it is equally certain that the England of 1884 is, in comparison with the leading states of Europe, a weaker nation than the England of 1814. To say this is nothing more than to assert what nobody in his senses would deny, namely, that the nations of the Continent have made immense progress during the last seventy years. United Germany, United Italy, Republican France, have each in their way established that supremacy of fixed law which was at one time the peculiar characteristic of English society, and which was to England a source of marvellous and almost unlimited strength. We must, too, remember that foreign states which until lately were solely occupied in the rivalries and the intrigues of the Continent, have now followed the example of England, and have begun to covet and acquire colonial empire.

The foreign policy of England, in the next place, betrays a greatly increased tendency to vary with fluctuations of public opinion. This influence of opinion is in itself no new phenomenon. The Peace of Utrecht and the Peace of Versailles are each monuments of a reversal in national policy as sudden as the change from the imperialism of Lord Beaconsfield to the humanitarianism of Mr. Gladstone. But a phenomenon which is not new in kind may become so much more developed in degree as to have the importance of a new fact; and few observers would dispute that the violence and the rapidity of the fluctuations in English public opinion have greatly increased. Nor is it certain that this is a transitory feature of modern England. Every change which for seventy years past has taken place in our institutions and habits has added weight to that most uncertain of all influences which is called public opinion. Nor is the changeableness of public sentiment the only, or perhaps the most, serious feature of the case. A matter of at least equal importance is that free discussion produces something like an equal balance of opposed convictions. Politicians talk boldly of the people wishing or demanding this and that, whereas in fact the millions who are supposed to have one distinct will, consist of a mass of individuals entertaining different and often opposed principles or prejudices. But when public opinion means nothing but a balance of opposite wishes, the result comes near to the non-existence of any real public opinion whatever.

The opinion, again, of the English electors is not only fluctuating, as popular sentiment always is, but also (what it very often is not) unknown, and for the moment, as regards foreign affairs, unknowable. The constituencies have till recently left diplomacy wholly in the hands of statesmen. In this they have shown English good sense. Mr. Gladstone's appeal in 1880 to the public on Eastern policy broke in disastrously upon the tradition of English politics, and it is quite uncertain whether a habit of self-restraint, once broken down, can or cannot be restored. Add to this that the newly enfranchised electors are, on all subjects affecting foreign lands, profoundly ignorant. Of the rustics who three or four weeks ago gave the Liberals a majority, and whose vote therefore went a good way toward determining the relation of this country to Egypt, probably not more than one in a hundred knew more of the valley of the Nile than can be gathered from the Book of Genesis. Dean Stanley used to say that the general interest exhibited by the crowd in the Shah arose from the knowledge of Persia gained from the Bible, and it is not rash to suppose that to many intelligent electors Egypt may still be the land of the Pharaohs. Popular stupidity need not of itself be inconsistent with popular resolution or obstinacy, and it is possible that the influence of a great statesman, or some dim perception of the importance to England of maintaining her influence at Cairo, or even the instinctive tenacity with which the nation has for centuries held fast to imperial power, may at last lead the English democracy to approve a policy in the East as consistent and as thorough-going as the policy ultimately sanctioned by the democracy of the Northern States during the war of secession; but at the present time, on all great political issues, and especially issues on questions of foreign diplomacy, the leaders of public opinion are uncertain in what direction and to what extent they would be followed by the people whom they profess to guide. English statesmen are as uncertain whether the democracy does or does not value imperial greatness, as up to 1860 were the politicians of America whether the Northern democracy was prepared to resist the break-up of the Union. The embarrassment caused by this state of things, though a real and a great impediment to consistent action, will pass away. The statesmen of England will, after no long time, understand the will and the wishes of the electors of England.

The real secret, however, of the paralysis which affects the action of England in regard to foreign states lies (I am convinced) a good deal deeper than any of the external difficulties already enumerated, though these difficulties are in their own way real enough. The source of national weakness and hesitation may be best found, not by examining the public acts of the Government, but by reflecting upon the sentiments which, as each man really knows or surmises, affect his own political conduct and the conduct of his friends. Self-knowledge is as indispensable in politics as it is in morals or religion. The examination into what, if I remember rightly, metaphysicians call the contents of consciousness, shows that the mind of each individual and therefore the general mind of the nation is divided between different, though not (perhaps) radically inconsistent, principles, and is attracted by diverse if not inconsistent ideals. We all know that government depends at bottom upon force. We all, on the other hand, feel with Mr. Bright that for many evils force is no remedy. We most of us perceive that liberty itself depends upon obedience to law, but we also feel, in a way in which no other generation has felt, that there are crises at which the individual conscience asserts the right to obey a "higher law" which may easily conflict with the provisions of acts of Parliament. There is not the remotest reason to suppose that the courage of Englishmen has declined. We are as bold as our forefathers: we know the extent of a risk; we, like them, are prepared to run it; but we venture less because we know more. George III. and his ministers would not have gone with a light heart into the contest with the American colonies could they have foreseen all that the conflict involved. Ignorance with them was not only bliss but courage. When a modern statesman is called upon to determine how he shall deal, say with Egypt or with some demand made by France or Germany, he, unfortunately for his calmness of mind, sees a little though not much beyond the matters actually before him; and what is true of statesmen is true also in a measure even of the humblest of their followers. Hence hesitation in beginning schemes of action and fluctuation in carrying them out. Hence, to give one example of my meaning, the bombardment of Alexandria to put down a rebellion against the Khedive, and the refusal to allow the nominal ruler of Egypt to execute conquered rebels for rebellion. Here, again, time will by degrees, it may be hoped, bring a remedy. Increase of knowledge will bring the next generation out of the twilight caused by that half-knowledge which is only another form of ignorance. On one or two leading points of policy men's minds will at last become settled. We shall have again that most useful though much abused guide, a diplomatic tradition; and it will be a tradition founded on facts, and not, like many forms of traditional policy, on fictions, or rather on reminiscences of facts which were once important, but which have ceased to be of moment.

This unstableness of conviction no doubt affects every part of public life. It is, however, more visibly operative than elsewhere in the department of foreign policy. The first need for Englishmen is to recognize in this uncertainty of aim a true reason for modesty, for caution, for reserve in action. We must follow Sydney Smith's advice to individuals, and as a nation take "short views" of life. The next need for the country is that educated Englishmen, who will for long be the guides of the uneducated masses, should make up their own minds on the answer to be given to the leading questions of policy. To know one's own mind is the basis of sound resolutions. When these are arrived at, England will show little hesitation in carrying them into effect. A. V. DICEY.

Correspondence.

THE IRREPRESSIBLE CONFLICT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Events at Washington seem to arrange themselves, like the experiments of a lecturer on physics, for the illustration of a great principle. The Senate is aching—Democrats as well as Republicans—to get the upper hand of the President, but it is a game which requires great caution in the playing. The next move turns upon the furnishing of information ostensibly for the guidance of the Senate in the matter of confirming appointments or rather removals. There are several courses open to the President and his advisers. They may send in the information to the secret session of the Senate, which is very much as if the garrison of a town were to send out all the weapons and munitions from their arsenal for the besiegers to help themselves, while the besieged were under bonds to remain shut up in the casemates. Information given in open session would be in practice just as bad, as the Republicans would, of course, color it to suit their own purposes, and we have already seen what support the President can expect from his nominal party allies, who are Senators much more than Democrats. If the President refuses the information altogether, he will put himself in the wrong, because concealment always excites snspicion—a tendency which his amiable opponents will not be slow to nourish.

The next step on the part of the Senate seems likely to be the summoning of the Secretaries before the executive session, or more probably, as it would carry a more distinct assertion of superiority, before the Judiciary Committee. I read in the despatches from Washington that "already Senators are wishing they could be in the sombre precincts of the Judiciary Committee room when Chairman Edmunds proceeds to interrogate Cabinet Minister Garland for contempt." Is there not something exceedingly pleasant in the idea of a Senator from the little State of Vermont putting the confidential adviser of the President, the representative of ten millions of voters, to torture in an inquisitorial dungeon for "contempt"? If the President values his independence, he will politely but distinctly refuse to allow his Cabinet officers to appear before any secret body whatever.

There remains one course open, and it is the only one which is at once manly and consistent with the dignity and independence of the Executive. He can say to the Senate: "You can have all the information you want, provided that my representatives, in furnishing it, are placed upon an equal footing before the country with members of the Legislature. If you desire the attendance of the members of the Cabinet in open session of the Senate, they are ready to appear, and to answer, upon due notice given, any questions which you think fit to put."

There would be very little risk in such a course, as Senators with the eye of the country upon them would be extremely cautious in making their attack. They live quite too much in glass houses to be very reckless about throwing stones. Indeed, the proposition would no doubt be highly distasteful to them, while yet a failure to accept it would completely shut their mouths. Even if some of the President's appointments have been political, it would be a perfectly good defence to show that the precedents of the last twenty years have made complete resistance to political influence upon a change of party almost impossible, while in fact much more has been done in the direction of resistance than of concession.

The effect of such a course upon the future of civil-service reform would be inestimable, as the certainty that the appointing power would be held to personal and public responsibility in the open Senate would be the most powerful of all restraints on the abuse of appointments. The President has before him an opportunity of making his administration an era in history.

G. B.

BOSTON, January 30, 1886.

SILVER PARTISANSHIP IN THE SENATE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the leading editorial in your last issue you state that Senator Morrill's speech on the silver question is the only defence that has been made in the Senate of the President's position on silver coinage. Is not this doing injustice to Senators Gray and McPherson, who have both made sound and able speeches in support of the Administration? They are entitled to all the more credit because they have proved the courage of their convictions in the face of bitter opposition on the part of most of their brethren.

If, as is often supposed, the Republican party is possessed of greater sanity or less insanity in financial matters than their opponents, the supposition has scarcely been verified by the current debate on Senator Beck's resolution. The majority of the present Republican members of the Senate may be satisfied of the unwisdom and danger of the Bland Act; but if so, they are wrongfully suppressing their opinions—probably, as you have recently suggested, by way of scoring a point against the Democrats in the campaign of 1888. It is only a very low standard of political ethics that can sanction such a course on the part of the majority, on the ground that to maintain their real views in vigorous debate might seem to be giving aid and comfort to the Executive, their political enemy.

With a good working majority, it will scarcely be possible for the Republican Senate to avoid sharing responsibility with the Democratic House for any troubles following the action or inaction of the latter on this chief issue of the hour, unless they themselves vote to repeal the Bland Act, and do not replace it with any other mischievous measure. Whether the Republicans can do this is extremely doubtful, unless they receive some conservative Democratic votes. They are only less divided on the question than the Democrats. Among the most intemperate of all the silver advocates are the "Argentine" Republicans from Colorado, Kansas, and Nebraska. Even Senator Sherman, the great apostle of resumption, risks his reputation as a financier on a bullion bill almost as objectionable as the latest heresy of Warner; and Senator Morrill alone of all the forty-one Republicans is outspoken in support of the President. There is a small number of Democratic Senators—at least two—who are sound, as the *Nation* and most of its readers count soundness, on both the coinage and tariff questions. Can as much be said of a single Republican in that body? In the House there may be as many Republicans as Democrats who are prepared to repeal the Bland Act on its merits (not to substitute something as bad or worse)—possibly more; but there are not nearly as many of the former, we venture to assert, as of the latter who favor both that repeal and a tariff for revenue only. The balance of wisdom does not incline strongly to either side. Each contains a vast deal of ignorance and demagogy. But as to silver, so long as the President and Secretary Manning hold such an impregnable position as defenders of the nation's credit, we do not think the Republicans are liable to gain much partisan advantage, no matter what the House may do; certainly they cannot unless they make a clear positive record for the right in the body which they control. Honesty is the best policy, and if all members in both branches of Congress would realize it, and act according to their best judgment, the prevalent silver mania might be checked.—Very respectfully, F. C. EATON.

COLUMBUS, O., January 30, 1886.

SOUTHERN OPPOSITION TO THE BLAIR BILL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your editorial of the 21st inst. on "Federal Aid to Education" presents, I think, an objection to the plan so strong and sound as to convince the great majority of reflecting men, whatever their political opinions or preconceived views of the subject. Your proposition that "the vital element of any success that is worth achieving in this world is self-reliance," is beyond successful controversy; and your reference to the development of our infant colonies into American commonwealths is as apposite as it is indisputable.

I have been a school commissioner in the county in which I live for six years, under circumstances which require me to give to the school board the regular public day of the week, notwithstanding it is the busiest day in my profession of law, and I have accepted the place because I feel that I can render no better service to the State to which I owe allegiance than to aid in the maintenance of a system of education, just alike to the taxpayer and the pupil; but I think that there can be seen already in this State a tendency unduly to extend the scope of the public schools and to leave nothing to individual effort.

To those who, like myself, hold that the war between the States has left their rights and obligations unchanged, except as affected by the constitutional amendments, it is impossible consistently to accept the Blair bill. If we fall short of our duty, ours will be the blame, and if we meet it, ours will be the credit. We hold today, as we did at the time, that the wholesale enfranchisement of the colored race was not less a political crime than a blunder; and we believe now, as we did then, that it could not have been effected except with a view to the perpetuation of political power by the Republican party. But we know that this error has passed beyond the power of correction, and that we can do nothing better than to deal with the problem of education which confronts us, as generously toward the illiterate as is consistent with just and wise taxation.

I am not unmindful that the South would receive far the larger share of the $100,000,000 proposed to be thus expended, and I remember that the whole sum, even, would not compare with that by which the North has been enriched at the expense of the South, through the operation of the tariff, the fishing bounties, and other measures, and I regret that I cannot give my sup-

port to the measure; but two wrongs do not make a right in politics, any more than in morals, and retaliation is not good government.

I have no hesitation whatever in opposing in every way in my power the Blair bill or any other measure which teaches our people to shift the burden of any just responsibility upon the Federal Government, and I hope our representatives in Congress will not give this measure their support for the sake of the pecuniary aid it offers, nor without thorough consideration of the matter in all its bearings.

I have read with great interest the adverse views of Judge Tourgée in his 'Appeal to Cæsar,' and I cannot but admire the candor and force of his presentation, but my conviction is unshaken, first, that there is no constitutional warrant for the assumption by the general Government of the education of the people in the States; and second, that even if such warrant should be thought to exist, sound political judgment forbids the exercise of the power. No amount of education and consequent accumulation of wealth can compensate for the decay of manhood which must attend this scheme if adopted, and I trust you will continue to exert the influence of your paper against its adoption.—Yours respectfully,

JAMES A. PEARCE.

CHESTERTOWN, MD., January 25, 1886.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am a Southern man, and very naturally solicitous of the welfare of my section, both morally and physically, and for the latter reason I could not object to the Government sending a few millions down this way for educational or other purposes. But of its being a moral benefit to the negro I have very grave doubts, and that is the class which it principally concerns. My observation of this portion of our citizens has led me and many others to the conclusion that more education or "book-learning" is a positive injury to the welfare of these people. We hope it may bear fruit in the future; it bears no good fruit now. The young colored man or woman (especially the former) fresh from the graduating class is generally a worthless citizen. He thinks labor is not for such as he, and yet what vocation does he fit? Their best friends cannot satisfactorily answer this question. Something should have preceded education or should now do so; but what and how is as difficult of solution as the tariff question. Millions for education will not, in my opinion, improve the moral status of the negro race in the South, and will be of little benefit to them physically.

I think it would be much wiser to give them the "mule and forty acres" long ago promised them by somebody. If Congress would pass a bill giving every negro man in the South fifty acres of land—either that now owned by the Government, or by purchase for them—and make deed in entail, so that they could not sell out to the first cross-roads store, a real and lasting benefit would accrue to them and the whole South; education and better moral training would naturally follow. The negro who owns real property in the South is always a good citizen. Let us, then, make them good citizens first, and education will and must follow. The LeMoyne Institute, a colored school located here, is now having built a large workshop, that the pupils may have the advantage of a mechanical education, practically illustrated by actual labor, and I predict more good from this than from all the other schools combined. J. P. J.

MEMPHIS, TENN., January 24, 1886.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your article of January 21, on Federal Aid to Education, I noticed certain facts which would sustain the position taken against such aid, although no point was made by them. The article shows that nearly as many children in proportion to the population are attending school in the South as in the North. Why, then, has the South more need of school facilities than the North? Is it possible to educate adult ignorance? If a school-house were planted at the door of each negro cabin and every cracker's log hut, no practical man would expect the adult negroes and the adult crackers to enter the school, or, if they did enter, to derive any advantage from it. They must earn their livelihoods in the first place, and their poor ignorance is too set to hope for change. Education offered to any but the ignorance of childhood would be the old offering of pearls to swine. The ignorance of the adult poor of the South is awful, but what power on earth can change it? The only part of the population capable of receiving education is receiving it in as large proportion as in the North. Why, then, does the South need Federal aid to education more than the North? J. H. M.

BOSTON, January 28, 1886.

THE BELL TELEPHONE DECISION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your leader in the *Nation* of the 21st instant, on "The Telephone Case," is admirable and well calculated to do substantial good. The dispassionate statements it contains will commend themselves to every one (not interested in the plaintiffs' attack), who is in any way able to form and hold an opinion. I write to express the earnest hope that you will follow up with your vigorous logic this many-sided subject, in the interest of those who love truth and justice and honest common sense.

The injury which Mr. Lamar's decision has done Mr. Bell and his company, though undoubtedly great, is far exceeded by that inflicted on the whole people and on public morals, and its inevitable effect will be to depreciate property of as legitimate a kind as any in existence. The decision is revolutionary in its nature, and will surely bear the most pernicious fruit, by establishing a precedent for similar attacks whenever the stake is large enough. In an amiable and easy-going way Mr. Lamar, having also some doubts in his own mind which he would like to have settled, proposes to give the anti-Bell corporations, of dubious origin, and their lawyers, a chance, by attacking for them at Government expense a well-sustained patent. I will not venture to recite the *positive* reasons which determined this decision; but there is one *negative* reason of much potency which should not be lost sight of. This is the fact that the four gentlemen who sat as judges at this hearing, and who came, it seems, severally and independently to the same conclusion, knew nothing about patents or patent law, and less about the relations existing between inventive progress and the development and prosperity of the country. And in this opinion, though it may seem somewhat harsh, remembering that the Commissioner of Patents was one of the four, a large number of persons will certainly agree; indeed, it would be difficult to find the man, unbiassed by circumstances, who does not look upon the patent system as suffering serious decadence at this present time. That system, fairly and honestly administered, is thoroughly democratic in the beneficent protection it gives the poor as well as the rich man. It rewards the true and first inventor, whoever and wherever he may be, by giving him a monopoly for a limited number of years in return for something not possessed by the world before. That such a man is the actual inventor, and has given the necessary information in return for a temporary monopoly, is ascertained by the examination, which, under the law should be most thorough.

Herein the American system surpasses all others to a degree which may be crudely estimated by the excess in number of the United States patents over those of other countries, and by the wonderful progress in the arts made here. Every attempt to nullify the broad principle underlying these grants; to confuse and mystify the public as to the nature and equity of the protection afforded; to destroy the efficiency of the examination and so take from the prima-facie value of each patent, or to break them down after issue by Executive interference, is a blow at the rights of property legitimately and, as a rule, very laboriously acquired, and at the manufacturing industries and comforts of the people. When a plausible request by interested persons, addressed to officials as unversed in patent law and practice as in science and technology, is sufficient to bring the great powers of the Government into activity against its own grant, then indeed will patented property of every kind be at the mercy of the speculator and stock-jobber.

Obvious criticism and brilliant suggestions are easily made after the fact; they affect more or less even the strongest minds, while with shallow persons their force is generally overwhelming. Somewhere in his writings Baron Liebig says—not in these words, but to this effect—that every great and far-reaching discovery passes through three well-defined stages or epochs before it is finally accepted by the world. In the first stage the innovation is pronounced—Impossible! In the second it is admitted to be possible but is clearly—Worthless! In the third it is seen to be both possible and useful, but—Old! The foremost invention for many years is now passing through this third epoch, and there is reason to fear that it will be a long and arduous one for Mr. Bell and those who put faith in him.

Before concluding, I wish to point out one statement of yours (the only one) which few Washington people interested in such matters will be found to endorse. You speak of Mr. Lamar's conclusion as "amazing," and you apprehend that it "has surprised no one more than the plaintiffs themselves." My impression is that they were not at all surprised. I know of no person who was. Mr. Lamar is quite intelligent enough to see that there were only two essential questions to be considered, namely: Had a fraud of a certain kind been committed? and, if so, could the Government act? Argument pertinent to these questions could have been soon heard and a decision reached. This was not done; on the contrary, extraneous matter of all sorts calculated to manufacture public opinion was freely admitted, and the hearing, as well as the subsequent consideration of the briefs, was allowed to drag to such a length that it did not require much prophetic capacity to tell in what direction things were drifting. The honest presumption was, and should have been, in favor of the Bell patent; the real effort was to justify a foregone conclusion. ERFINDER.

WASHINGTON, January 26, 1886.

"THREE ACRES AND A COW."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent number of the *Nation* appears a statement from which it would be gathered that the cry of "Three Acres and a Cow" was simply raised by way of derisively summing up an appeal to the baser instincts of our rural electorate in the recent English general elections.

This is very far from being the complete statement of the case. I beg respectfully to call your attention to a pamphlet for which I take as the title the words of which I was the author, 'Three Acres and a Cow.' This expression sums up the

facts of a very important and interesting state of things on the estate of Lord Tollemache and Cheshire, and is further used by me to enforce, what I believe to be the fact, that by means of similar action throughout the grazing and dairy districts of Great Britain the position of our rural laborer can be enormously improved.

Pardon my intrusion upon your notice, which I would not venture upon did I not believe this question to be a vitally important one to many poor men, and also that I might rely on your courtesy to allow some statement to appear which should put before your readers the true explanation of the words "three acres and a cow."—I am, yours faithfully,

FREDERIC IMPEY.

95 COLMORE ROW, BIRMINGHAM, January 16, 1886.

AN INTERNATIONAL PARCELS POST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of the communication signed "L." in the *Nation* for January 21, expressing a need for an international parcels post, permit me, as a sufferer from our present defective system, to add my voice to the cry. On two occasions I have been obliged to import small articles, which, being for church purposes, were duty free. Notwithstanding my precaution in having the parcel transmitted in care of the United States Express Company, on each occasion the parcel was, without my order, turned over to certain conscienceless sharks termed "custom-house brokers," who seem to be on hand to "gobble" all packages which are not claimed by the consignee. The only notice which I received of its arrival was through this firm of sharpers, and I was obliged to deal with them, paying all their charges as well as the freight and custom-house "fees." The total amount of the cost of transportation was in each case fully equal to the value of the goods imported. By all means let us have an international parcels post. F.

January 23, 1886.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: What your correspondent "L." says about the desirableness of our Government's joining the International Parcels Post must be heartily concurred in by anybody who has received such a bill as this:

Duty	$1.10
Custom-house fees	.60
Foreign charges and freight	1.98
Cartage	.75
Storage	.55
Brokerage	2.00
	$6.98

These charges were made upon a package containing about a hundred cubic inches, and weighing two pounds. To bring it from Berlin to New York cost $1.98; to transfer it in New York from the custom-house to the express office cost $3.30.—Respectfully,

LUCIUS HERITAGE.

MADISON, WIS., January 23, 1886.

"AMERICAN SOVEREIGNTY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The fact that your correspondent, "P. B.," is known as one who has given not a little attention to the above subject, makes his conclusions seem all the more remarkable to those of whom he speaks, who believe that the masterly analysis of Austin has never been shaken, and that sovereignty exists somewhere as a unit in every independent political community.

He says, in substance, "that with us there is no such thing as sovereignty"; that there is no State or people which has no political superior; that "the Federal state and its people—that is, the aggregate people—and also each local State and its people, as to important subjects" have each a superior in the other and are therefore not sovereign; and that, if sovereignty ever existed, it has been divided and destroyed.

This view differs from the common one, which has ever found such abundant expression in our judicial and political literature, wherein it is assumed that sovereignty is divided, "no matter how," between the Federal Government and the States, each being sovereign within its sphere. Neither of these views rises above the agents which American sovereignty employs, and to which it intrusts the execution of its powers. The one claims a complete destruction of sovereignty, merely because of the independence as regards each other of certain of its important agents. The other sees no further than the agents themselves, and because it finds them wielding between them the powers of sovereignty concludes that they are the sovereign parts of a divided sovereignty.

The idea of an independent political community wherein sovereignty does not exist is a mere fancy which has no basis in reason or in fact. And, with all due respect for judicial *dicta* and lay opinion, a divided sovereignty is a contradiction of terms. Sovereignty may create or adopt agents, divide its powers among them and restrict each to its intended sphere, but it cannot itself be subject to any control beyond its own will. "P. B." says that "if sovereignty ever existed, it has been divided, destroyed, no matter how; it no longer exists, it cannot exist with the irrevocable loss of its necessary powers." But, if sovereignty existed, did it divide and destroy itself, or what power divided and destroyed it? What has become of that power? And what authority has "P. B." for saying that the loss of its powers is irrevocable?

That must have been merely a *de jure* sovereignty which could be thus divided and destroyed and have its powers irrevocably distributed. The power that created and adopted the various agencies of government in this country; that delegated and "reserved" to them the sovereign powers which they wield; that defined such powers and restricted their exercise by a written constitution; that from time to time has added further expressions of its will, and that may at its pleasure resume the powers thus placed in the hands of its agents and redistribute them, is sovereign in this country. Its agents are powerful, but they are not sovereign and not beyond its control. It is not the Federal Government. That is merely one of its agents, created and intrusted by it with only a part of its powers. It is not the local State. That is but another agent which is completely subject to its will. Nor is it the aggregate people of the local State. There is no power granted or "reserved" to the local State or its people which may not be taken away without their consent. They possess no power which is not held at the will of a power higher and outside of themselves.

This view may not conform to the intent of the framers of the Constitution or to later opinion as to the effect of their work; but, what is of more importance, it conforms to actual facts as they exist. We have now reached a point where we can afford to see the facts as they are, and we shall escape much confusion of thought if we cease to talk of sovereign States and a divided sovereignty. Yours very truly,

EDWIN BURRITT SMITH.

CHICAGO, January 25, 1886.

EDUCATION FOR THE PUBLIC SERVICE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The last few years have seen the establishment in the United States of three separate "Schools of Political Science"—at Columbia, at the University of Michigan, and at the University of Pennsylvania. In the same time the courses in economic and political science at Harvard, at Johns Hopkins, and at several other of the leading colleges have been vastly improved and extended. It is easy to see a connection between these improvements and the present general movement for the reform of the methods and of the personnel of the public service. The public is beginning to demand that trained efficiency shall be accounted a better recommendation for office than political adroitness. The aim of the newly established Schools of Political Science, we may fairly infer, is largely to supply the general training which is beginning to be demanded of public servants; in effect, they are in large measure established as semi-professional schools of preparation for the civil service.

It is obvious, however, that the training afforded by these schools, being mostly general in its nature, has very little bearing on the preparation for those grades of the public service which at present are approachable by the road of competitive examination. It is equally obvious that until the higher grades also, such as those of the consular service, are made approachable by the same road, the possible usefulness of these schools will be greatly restricted. Until the public service in America is made a profession, such as it is in most of the States of Europe, there will be little use in offering to young men a professional training for it. Until that time arrives, these schools—in so far, at least, as their aim is to provide this training—can only hope to attract a dilettante or an academic clientèle; few young men will be attracted to their courses except by curiosity or with the purpose of fitting themselves as teachers of political science.

More than all this, in considering their programme of studies, one is driven to entertain serious doubts as to whether any one of the three is adapted, even by anticipation, to the end of preparing young men for the higher grades of the public service, even were these grades to be thrown open to competitive examination. When this reform is accomplished, possibly our Schools of Political Science have the intention of rearranging or of enlarging their courses, with the view of directly providing this preparation. I doubt, however, if they would find this practicable.

There are several reasons assignable why none of these schools could supply the need for such a training. In the first place, such a school ought to be situated at the national capital, where is the centre of administration for all the higher grades of the service; secondly, it ought to be independent of any other school or university; and thirdly, its courses ought to be arranged with the greatest possible attention to definiteness of aim and to practicalness of method. In short, *mutatis mutandis*, it should be modelled directly after the plan of the admirable École Libre des Sciences Politiques at Paris. It should be situated at Washington, in order that the bulk of its faculty could be drawn from those actually engaged in the public administration; it should be kept free from official connection with any other school, in order to be saved from any danger of doctrinairism, and in order also to have the greatest possible opportunity for free development in the attainment of its own ends; and naturally it would best attain those ends by always keeping the methods and the matter of its instruction as practical as possible.

The School at Paris to-day supplies a large number of those employed in the higher administrative offices in France, in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, in the consular and diplomatic service, in the prefectures, in the inspection of finances, and in the Cour des Comptes, and this School admirably fulfils the three conditions I have named. A majority of its Faculty consists

of those who formerly have been or actually are in the Government service. Among these are Léon Say, De Foville, Dunoyer, Ribot, and Charmes—names sufficiently well known in French politics. The school stands by itself, with no connection with parties, and, I believe, no Government aid. Its courses are directly arranged to prepare for the civil-service examinations in the several branches of the public service which I have just named. The School is now in its fifteenth year.

All the friends of administrative reform in America are substantially agreed upon the necessity of extending the present civil-service reform to cover all purely administrative branches of the public service. The change is probably only a question of time. When it comes about, measures will surely be taken to establish some sort of a school to fit candidates for the examinations. There is a great number of offices of the higher class under each department at Washington, especially under the Departments of State and of the Treasury, to efficiently fill which the best of preparation could be given by a school definitely organized for that purpose. I have, therefore, considered it worth while publicly to call attention to the example of the Paris School of Political Sciences, and especially to contrast the direct and practical nature of most of its courses with the too academical nature of the courses (from this point of view) of our three American schools. These have doubtless drawn many suggestions and much of their inspiration from the Paris institution; nevertheless, when the time comes it will be practically impossible for them to play the same rôle in relation to our public service which is played by the Paris School in relation to the French public service; it will be impossible for them to take the place of a central, independent school, located at Washington, and having the predominating end in view of preparing its pupils to pass the examinations for the higher grades of civil and diplomatic service.

F. I. Carpenter.

Paris, January 12, 1886.

GEORGE BORROW'S WORKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I think that Professor Knapp will be glad to add to his list of Borrow's works the following title:

'Faustus, his Life, Death, and Descent into Hell. Translated from the German by G. Borrow.' With Colored Frontispiece. London, 1825. 12mo.

Mr. A. Egmont Hake, in Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (vol v, p. 408), gives fresh facts regarding Borrow's writings. Among other works apparently not known to Professor Knapp, he mentions a translation from the Danish of Ewald's poem, "The Death of Balder," and a translation into Turkish of "Blue Beard," which latter is perhaps the same as the posthumously published 'Turkish Jester.' Mr. Hake furthermore states that Borrow's stepdaughter, Mrs. MacAubrey, is in possession of several valuable manuscripts not yet published.

In *Notes and Queries* (1st series, vol. xi, p. 339) is a curious article by Borrow worth looking at; in it he speaks of riding "Lavengro's wild cob." The 'Autobiography' mentioned by Allibone can only be 'Lavengro.'

Lindsay Swift.

Boston Public Library, January 30, 1886.

Notes.

Harper & Bros. have in press 'The Massacres of the Mountains," an illustrated historical work relating to the Indians, by J. P. Dunn, jr.; and part ix. of Dr. J. M. Carnochan's 'Practical Surgery.'

G. P. Putnam's Sons make the important announcement that Prof. Alexander Johnston, of Princeton, has in preparation a 'History of the United States from 1840 down to the Close of 1885,' to be published in the course of the present year. No people more than the American needs to have its records of the immediate past accessible, for none is so forgetful. The same firm will issue 'Documents Illustrative of American History, 1606-1863,' edited and annotated by Howard W. Preston; 'Flights Inside and Outside Paradise: Sketches of Travel in Japan and Elsewhere,' by Geo. Cullen Pearson; and 'Summer Haven Verses,' by James Herbert Morse.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will add to their series of "Educational Classics" Richter's 'Levana.' Moreover, they will begin in February a new monthly periodical, to be called the *Citizen*, and to be edited by the members of the American Institute of Civics, of which the President is Henry Randall Waite.

A new edition of Mr. Charles B. Reynolds's 'Old St. Augustine,' with six fresh illustrations and a "coquina" imitation binding, will be brought out by E. H. Reynolds, of that city.

The Worthington Co. will publish immediately Swinburne's study on Victor Hugo, making a volume of 230 pages.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will soon publish the seventh volume of Mr. John Burroughs's agreeable studies of out-door life and literature, under the appropriate title of 'Signs and Seasons.'

Ginn & Co. announce Hans Andersen's 'Fairy Tales,' edited for home and school by J. H. Stickney, in three series; and 'Analytic Geometry,' by G. A. Wentworth.

Mr. William Winter is preparing a volume of criticisms of Miss Mary Anderson as an actress, which will be published by Mr. George J. Coombes. In both form and substance it will resemble the volume on 'Henry Irving in New York,' which Mr. Winter wrote and Mr. Coombes published late last spring. There is already an English biography of Miss Anderson, by Mr. Farrar, but it is quite uncritical.

Of the serial novels now appearing in the magazines, Ticknor & Co. will issue shortly Mr. Howells's 'Indian Summer,' and later Mrs. Mary Hallock Foote's 'John Bodewin's Testimony.' Macmillan & Co. will publish Mr. James's 'Bostonians,' both in London and New York, as they did his 'French Poets and Novelists.' It will appear in England in the British three volumes, and in America in the more natural single volume.

Henry Holt & Co. i sue this week 'A Cardinal Sin,' one of two posthumous novels by "Hugh Conway."

D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, will shortly bring out 'Social Studies in England,' by Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton.

The Rev. J. D. Stockbridge, who is engaged upon a catalogue of the Harris Collection of American Poetry, lately devised to Brown University by Senator Anthony, is receiving, we understand, abundant evidence that the work will be taken up on its appearance. The British Museum has already bespoken a copy.

Mr. Wm. Henry Burr, of Washington, is bringing out in parts (Brentano Bros.) a work entitled 'Bacon and Shakspere,' and proving that Bacon wrote the sonnets ascribed to the latter.

'Love Made to Order, and Other Comedies,' by Francis Gellatly (Chicago: Knight & Leonard; 1885), gives little encouragement to the theory of Mr. Stedman that the drama is the coming American form in literature. The three plays of this volume are rapid in movement and contain some farcical situations; they have also the merit of contemporaneity; but the life they depict is of the vulgarest kind, the wit is confined to punning and puerilities of Shaksperian parody, the humor is too often dependent on impure suggestion, and the satire is so generally aimed as to lose effectiveness. The subjects are not in themselves objectionable, but the manner in which they are treated and developed calls for the full measure of disapprobation. The stage could not tolerate them with self-respect; much less can literature admit them.

The garb of the 'Voltaire' which introduces us to the new and uniform edition of the works of Mr. John Morley (Macmillan & Co.) is attractive in the extreme. The volume is a handy duodecimo, bound in wine-colored cloth, and openly printed on paper of excellent quality. One can but contrast it with the second edition of 1871-2, an octavo of much inferior merit typographically, and taking up much more room with its 354 pages than does the present unassuming edition with 365. An historical work in which the foot-notes are not more numerous than in this one, could not choose a better model in all respects. It would be superfluous to praise the contents of the 'Voltaire.'

Mr. Robert Laird Collier has gathered into a very pretty volume, 'English Home Life' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.), half-a-dozen essays on the interior domestic arrangements and customs of the higher-class English families, and he has compressed into these narrow limits an amount of information regarding English daily life which is really wonderful. The reader, and especially "the fair reader," will acquire from it a fund of knowledge both interesting and suggestive. Mr. Collier is not altogether a eulogist, but when he is either dissatisfied or displeased, as any American must be with certain phases of English society, he explains in what way such objectionable things are rooted in the soil and institutions. The chapters on the government of the family and what is called "the atmosphere" of the house in which the children grow up, are especially valuable to those interested in training the young, and we commend them to the attention of reformers anxious to have "morality" taught in the public schools of our country, either with the denominational attachment which President Eliot has patented, or without.

Scribner & Welford have brought out in dainty parchment form Mr. J. Cotter Morison's *étude*, 'Madame de Maintenon,' of which one cannot speak too highly as a delightful essay. Of the extent to which the historical estimate of her enigmatic character is to be modified by the discovery that her letters were seriously tampered with by their first editor, it is as yet impossible to judge. The author follows the traditionary safe course by assuming that she was neither saint nor sinner, and that her rise was not deliberately ambitious from the start, but largely the result of circumstances; her main aim, in his view, was "to make the most of both this world and the next." The sketch is executed with great delicacy of touch, and the passages depicting the scenes at St. Cyr are marvels of picturesqueness, interest, and satire that is wholly good-natured.

Mr. John G. Allen's 'Topical Studies in American History' (Rochester, N. Y.: Scranton, Wetmore & Co.) will be found a very useful aid to teachers of American history. It consists of brief memoranda, extracts from documents, topics for special preparation, and notes for conversation, arranged under chronological heads, but with no attempt at uniformity of treatment in the several periods. The idea seems to be that of the greatest freedom and elasticity. In the margin of nearly every page is given a list of books for reading—histories, biographies, poems, novels, and essays. The compilation of the book shows industry and good judgment.

Mr. Frederick Saunders's 'Evenings with the

Sacred Poets' shows, like his other compilations, a wide and catholic taste, and a happy faculty of combining quotation and anecdote with wise observation. The work, which was originally published about ten years ago, is now reissued (by A. D. F. Randolph & Co.) with two additional chapters, on 'Recent American and English Writers,' which continue the stream of sacred song, and reveal a depth of faith in the modern writers like that of the older hymnists. In fact, the ground and reason of the hymn writer is faith and trust; he writes to comfort sorrow or inspire effort, and the bulk of the writers build on the language of the Bible, so that their thoughts move largely in one sphere. Mr. Saunders refers to the more well-known verses of the hymn-books by their first lines only, but among the choicer of the old and the modern English, and from the best translations, especially of the German and the Latin, he quotes many fine examples which are pleasing to read once and refer to often, and he mingles with his quotations numerous interesting biographical statements and anecdotes. Some of Mr. Saunders's "waifs," unacknowledged, at the end of the volume, are so good, and withal so familiar, that one suspects them to be acknowledged. "How easy 'tis to keep sin-free," for instance, is by Coventry Patmore. Two cases of oversight occur in the earlier part of the book, where, under the somewhat general heading, "German—Thirty Years' War," Luther is classed with a few of the writers of that period, and on one page the date of Giles Fletcher's death is given as 1623, and again as 1650, the former being correct; but these are mere oversights.

Silvio Pellico's 'My Ten Years' Imprisonment' forms the first issue in Cassell's ten-cent National Library, according to our recent announcement. It is a little pocket volume of 200 pages, in small but not trying print, and paper covers. Professor Henry Morley supplies a brief introductory sketch of the author.

Besides the text edition of the 'Bacchantes,' edited by Professor Beckwith, of which we spoke last week, there is another edition, with notes, which we had overlooked.

We are glad to record the completion of volume one of Mr. N. Ponce de Leon's 'Diccionario Tecnológico' with the fifteenth number, and to learn that the enterprise has been so well supported that this English-Spanish portion will be directly followed by the Spanish-English. It is a very valuable addition to all existing vocabularies. The publication office is at No. 40 Broadway.

'Recollections of a Book Worm' is the alluring title of a collection of essays on books and book-collecting written by Mr. J. Roger Rees, to be published in London by E. Stock.

We have received from the compiler, Professor Joseph Kürschner, the eighth annual issue of his 'Litteratur-Kalender.' As regards its general features, we can but repeat the praise we have given to former issues. The present volume, however, contains a steel portrait of Hermann Heiberg, perhaps the cleverest of the newer German novelists. In the necrology we notice the names of Karl Andrae, Georg Curtius, Karl Hillebrand, F. Hiller, Karl Richard Lepsius, A. Meissner, Gustav Nachtigal, and Robert von Schlagintweit.

The February number of the *Book-Buyer* appears with a new cover and initial letters by Mr. G. R. Halm, with a portrait of Mrs. Burnett and an account of her methods of work, with the first of Mr. Laurence Hutton's interesting papers on American Bookplates, with a review of Lieutenant Greely's book by ex Chief Justice Daly, and with other illustrated articles and reviews, the cuts being chiefly borrowed from the books of the month. In one of the advertising pages we note a list of the books published during 1885 by Charles Scribner's Sons, nearly seventy titles in all, not ten of which, or less than fifteen per cent., are the work of English authors. Perhaps twenty years ago the proportion of American books would not have exceeded this. Elsewhere in this number of the *Book-Buyer* we are told that Messrs. Scribner will publish a new guide to Mexico by Mr. Thomas A. Janvier, and two first novels by American authors distinguished in other walks of literature: 'Domesticus,' a social satire in prose, by Mr. William Allen Butler, and 'The Late Mrs. Hull,' a long story by Mr. Frank R. Stockton, one of the most skilful masters of the short story.

The hundredth anniversary of the birth of the brothers Grimm (January 4, 1885—February 24, 1886) has been celebrated by the eminent Icelandic scholars, Vigfusson and Powell, by the publication of a group of essays relating to their studies. There are seven of these essays, besides a "Prologue in Berlin," by G. V., and an "Epilogue in Oxford," by F. Y. P. The first, which gives its name to the volume, is entitled "Sigfred-Arminius," and is an attempt to show that the legend of Sigfred is an outgrowth of the historical career of the great German hero, Arminius. *Hermann*, as an equivalent for this name, the author rejects, holding that *Arminius* was a merely Roman name, and that the real name of the hero must have, according to Germanic custom, contained the same radical syllable as that of his father, *Sigimer*, and other kinsmen, *Segestes*, *Segimund*, etc.; then why not *Sigfred?* The arguments are ingenious and many of them plausible; but, after all, what real ground is there for supposing that *Arminius* was not his true name? A short paper upon the defeat of Varus brings up some interesting illustrations from sagas, etc., of the Germanic custom of felling trees in the way of an advancing enemy—such as Dio's account makes probable in the defeat of Varus. The longest paper is the closing one, by Mr. Powell, upon "Traces of old law in the Eddic lays"; it contains a great deal of interesting matter in the comparative study of ancient law.

Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England," in the January number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, touches upon the kinsfolk of the Poores, of Newbury, Mass., and the Hawthornes of Salem, and among other wills gives that of the father of the first Sewall who came over (the ancestor of Judge Sewall), which furnishes the clue to a connection with the Hornes of Salop, and extends the Sewall line one more generation backwards. Mr. Waters has also edited from three contemporary copies in the British Museum a valuable manuscript 'Relation concerning the Estate of New England,' to which the approximate date of 1634 is assigned from internal evidence. A large part of this relation, following some of the MSS., had been printed before, but in a limited private edition. Noteworthy, too, in the same number, is Professor Horsford's discussion of the meaning of three Indian names for Boston, accompanied by several old maps. We can only mention his conclusions: Sha-um-ut (Shawmut), *Near the Neck;* Mushau-womuk, *Canoe-place;* Messatsoosec (Massachusetts), *Great-Hills-Mouth;* Accomonticus (Agamenticus), *Beyond-the-hill-little-cove.* The Neck referred to in "Shawmut" was not the Boston or Roxbury Neck of American history, but one near Haymarket Square, now quite as effectually obliterated as the former by filling in.

A pamphlet report of the commemoration of the bi-centenary of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes on October 22, 1885, by the Huguenot Society of America, is before us. As interesting as any single feature of this celebration is the fact that it was held in a French church in this city organized by the refugees in 1687, and in whose successive edifices "services in the French tongue have been continued from that day to this."

To the January number of the *New York Genealogical and Biographical Record* Mr. Thomas C. Amory contributes a discursive but interesting paper on the Boston-born Admiral, Sir Isaac Coffin, of the British navy. An engraving after Stuart's portrait accompanies it.

Shakespeariana for January (Philadelphia: Leonard Scott Publication Co.) renders a useful service by indicating in detail the differences in the successive editions of Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps's 'Outlines of the Life of Shakspere'—editions for which shelf-room would be lacking in the house of any but a Shakspere scholar, and none of which is provided with an index, or with the tables of contents of its predecessors.

'The Wilderness Road' is the subject and title of the second publication of the Filson Club (Louisville, Ky.: John P. Morton & Co.). Mr. Thomas Speed describes, in an interesting manner, with the aid of rare books and old journals and itineraries, the routes by which emigrants passed from the seaboard into Kentucky, and particularly that by way of the Shenandoah Valley and Cumberland Gap, with the last section of which, the "Wilderness Road," Daniel Boone's name (if not his fame, as ought to be the case) is connected as the pathfinder. Mr. Speed pays a high tribute to the skill with which Boone laid out this thoroughfare (hardly more than a trail for many years).

The elaborate report of the Massachusetts Drainage Commission with reference to the sewage problems offered by the valleys of the Mystic, Blackstone, and Charles Rivers, has just been printed and will command widespread attention. It is accompanied by numerous maps of the basins under consideration, and several photographic views of sewage filters and farms in this country and in England.

A very interesting account of an ascent of the volcano Popocatepetl is given by Prof. A. S. Packard in the February number of the *American Naturalist.* Curious, too, are Mr. C. Brent's "Notes on the Leaf-Cutting Ants of Trinidad." In the Editors' Table, Professor Cope estimates in some detail the expenses of an Academy of Original Research, which he holds up as a suitable monument for any millionaire ready to make the necessary endowment.

The *Hawaiian Almanac* for 1886 reports the population of the islands on December 27, 1884, to have been 80,378, a gain in eight years of 2,393. Japanese immigration began in 1885, the Chinese continues under regulations as to numbers whose evasion causes trouble; and Portuguese are about to arrive again. The editor, in a paragraph on the importation of Christmas toys, classes Hawaiians and Chinese together in contrast to "the foreign population"—meaning Europeans. The islands boast two railroads, one having a station called Spreckelsville—an unlovely compound. There is a capital paper on music in Hawaii. The natives find only the 2-4 or 4-4 time quite natural, and the instrumental band which a skilful German leader has made out of them, has had the most trouble in getting the mazurka or waltz movement. Few of the tunes which this band plays are caught up and whistled by the natives, but the opening chorus of "Pinafore" proved exceptionally taking. The natives play the guitar with great feeling, and of late have acquired the banjo and a "hideous small Portuguese instrument now called 'taro patch fiddle.'" Outside the natives, the writer thinks there is no place in the world "where so many pianos are to be found in proportion to the number of the population."

With its December number *Mélusine*, that delightful folk-lore journal over which MM.

Gaidoz and Rolland preside with so much grace and learning, completed its second volume; and seldom has it contained any tales more curious and amusing than the five *historiettes*, Talmud-like but not of the Talmud, taken from an anonymous collection of the sixteenth century. In the January number are continued the Notes and Notelets on popular melodies contributed by Anatole Loquin, in which words and music are given, often with several versions of each.

We have received from Mr. Schoenhof, Boston, the prospectus and the January number of a new periodical, *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Paris: Boussod, Valadon et Cie.). This "revue illustrée," which is published by the successors of Goupil, outdoes in size and price every other literary magazine of France. Each number will form a large quarto volume of 144 pages, besides a *feuilleton* of twelve pages containing literary and artistic notices. It is magnificently printed on the most beautiful paper, and illustrated by some of the first artists. The cost is 30 francs a number, or 300 francs a year (320 francs by post). The name of the editor, M. Anatole France, is a certain guarantee of the high tone which the new review will aim to keep. The present number is rich from both a literary and an artistic point of view. The two most attractive articles are "Le Déisme pendant la Révolution," by M. Frédéric Masson, with its luxury of illustrations, and M. E. Caro's fine criticism of the Abbé Roux's 'Les Pensées d'un Solitaire.' The number opens with a reminiscence of his school-days, "Les Poètes de Collège," by M. Édouard Pailleron. M. Henry Houssaye writes a few pages to accompany the full-page illustration in colors by Detaille, "La Charge." M. Gounod writes on sacred and profane music in illustration of the picture of his nephew, Guillaume Dubufe, which is reproduced. M. Widor contributes the music to accompany a very pretty poem of Sully Prudhomme, and there are interesting articles by MM. Jules Simon, Jules Lemaitre, Leconte de Lisle, José-Maria de Heredia, and others. The whole number is a pleasure to the eye, and the literary value of the text is of the highest kind.

— The mid-winter *Century* opens with a series of illustrations from the works of Barye, whose name and characteristics are not to be unknown to the American public, if the magazines can help it. The cuts are varied and interesting, and amply supply whatever was lacking in the profusely illustrated article which appeared some months ago in *Harper's*. A second pronounced feature of the number is Mr. Cable's account of the Place Congo dances, with the musical scores. He has reproduced the look of the heathenish amusements of the slaves there with surprising vividness, and as much openness as the subject will permit. Mr. Howells's new novel, "The Minister's Charge," also attracts attention. We pass over the pages rapidly, however, to come to the extraordinary chorus of authors demanding international copyright as with the blare of the trumpets before Jericho. Mr. Lowell's quatrain is quotable:

> "In vain we call old notions fudge
> And bend our conscience to our dealing;
> The ten commandments will not budge,
> And stealing *will* continue stealing."

— In the February *Lippincott's* many readers will turn with curiosity to see how Mr. Dorman B. Eaton has met his engagement to "reply" to Gail Hamilton's previous article on the Civil-Service Reform. He begins with a half-apology for having got himself into the disagreeable situation of having to make a rejoinder to a woman whom the only way to answer is to "answer back." As was to be expected, he can find no serious argument or understanding of the matter in hand in "G. H.'s" (Greater Humbug, as he interprets) diatribe, but only a rich and copious vocabulary of fish-wife compliments which he rehearses. It is evidently not pleasanter for him than for others to get into a wordy warfare in such primitive English. He does his best, however, to find something in his antagonist's position capable of serious discussion, and in the most telling part of his article explodes the common word-dodge of those speakers who are continually telling us that the Government has not lost money by the corruption of officials. His examination of the Internal Revenue report for 1881–82 is a final answer to that mischievously plausible argument. In the rest of the magazine we can note only the very carefully finished and delightful story by "J. S. of Dale," whose brief tales are models of literary workmanship. The fidelity of the river-scenes, and the selection of suggestive and memoried detail, together with the charm of the narration, make the most hackneyed and commonplace of simple plots a fresh and true thing. The author shows only one regrettable tendency—to preciosity.

—The new school of historical study has at last created for itself a worthy organ in the *English Historical Review*. Germany and France already possessed similar periodicals. Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift* has for nearly thirty years represented the highest standard of historical work in Germany, and for ten years the *Revue Historique* has done the same for France. These two reviews are not on exactly the same plan. Both contain a certain number of solid articles, generally not more than two or three, presenting in a literary form the results of some special study or exploration. The *Historische Zeitschrift* is then, for the rest, made up of book notices, generally short, but often elaborate and detailed; and, as the books reviewed are for the most part German, one can find here a very complete account of the contemporary historical literature of Germany, while that of other countries is apt to be neglected. The French *Revue*, on the other hand, makes it distinctly its aim to present a complete view of contemporary historical literature, and for this purpose obtains correspondents in every country, who from time to time give elaborate reports upon the recent publications of their own countries. This may be called the distinctive feature of this review. The regular book notices are comparatively few in number; between the "articles de fond" and the "bulletins" there are miscellaneous documents and shorter articles, and at the end there comes a list, several pages long, of all the periodicals in the world which deal with historical questions, with the titles of their articles—often briefly characterized. We have thus a perfect record of historical literature in all countries and all departments. The projectors of the new English *Review* have been able to take advantage of the experience of its predecessors, and to judge where it was best to copy them, and where to supplement them. They have wisely abstained from undertaking to rival the French review in its specialty — the bulletins. This difficult work once done need not be done over again. Apart from this, the *Review* is admirably full and well-arranged in the department of intelligence. The "list of historical books recently published" will be very acceptable to all students; and its "contents of periodical publications," while similar to that in the *Revue Historique*, has the advantage of being arranged by nations, and is thus easier of consultation.

—There are more regular book reviews than in the *Revue Historique*, but not nearly so many as in the *Historische Zeitschrift;* and it seems to us that here if anywhere is the defect of the work—one does not find in it a complete survey of the field of historical composition for England, such as the other two reviews afford for France and Germany. The solid articles occupy, we should judge, rather more space in proportion than is the case with the other reviews. They are five in number, besides a prefatory note. The first is upon German schools of history, by Lord Acton—a very intelligent presentation of the course of historical study in Germany, occasionally a little obscure from a certain allusiveness of style. The next is a short paper upon "Homer and the Early History of Greece," by D. B. Monro, Provost of Oriel, very suggestive in its discussion of the geography of Homer, and the light thrown by it upon primitive history. The Homeric map, he shows, is not merely totally different from the historical map of Greece, but "is also different from the mythical map, as we may call it—that is to say, the map which would have been naturally produced by bringing together the most famous heroes and legends." He thinks that for the birthplace of Homer we must look to Greece proper—Thessaly, Bœotia, or Argolis. Then follows a long and characteristic article by Mr. Freeman upon "The Tyrants of Britain, Gaul, and Spain, 406–411"—very valuable for the student of the period of the migrations. The next article is by Prof. Seeley, "The House of Bourbon." Its real subject is the family compact of 1733—"the most important document of the middle period of the eighteenth century, and the most indispensable to history." The last article is unsigned: "Notes on the Greville Memoirs." Between the articles and the reviews comes a miscellaneous section, entitled "Notes and Documents." Here we find two notes of interest in American history—"Mather and Randolph," by C. E. Doble, and "The Campaign of Gen. Braddock," by J. C. Wilson. This is a very strong and interesting number; and the appended list of contributors promises the maintenance of the same standard. Among them is a considerable number of American names. The review is edited by Rev. Mandell Creighton, author of a history of the papacy, and is published quarterly by Longmans (in this country by the International News Co.). The subscription price is five dollars.

—The fifth volume of Mr. Leslie Stephen's great enterprise, the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan), carries the work through Bottisham. The grandees of the present instalment are James Boswell (by the editor), who fills eight pages, Admiral Blake (9 pp.), and Blackstone, of the Commentaries (some 7 pp.). Many legends concerning Blake are set aside in the article devoted to him, nor is his great rival Tromp allowed his traditional broom. Four pages are given to William Blake, the poet and artist, who is sympathetically judged. He is quoted as saying, toward the close of his life, apropos of academic modes of study: "Natural objects always did and do now weaken, deaden, and obliterate imagination in me." Blake made the well-known designs for Blair's "Grave"; and Blair himself is commemorated in the same volume, with an analysis of his single great poem. Four pages are allotted to St. Boniface, who here finds himself in alphabetical company with Mary Blundy, murderess. In four pages, likewise, the career of Admiral Boscawen is sketched, and in three that of Sir Thomas Bodley, founder of the great Oxford library. But the lesser lights possess even greater interest than these, because, for one thing, they are nearer our time, and the common dictionaries have less (or nothing) to tell about them. The Blackwoods, Adam Black, John Black, editor of the *Morning Chronicle* and friend of James Mill; Laman Blanchard, of the *Examiner* and of so many other journals; H. G. Bohn, the Countess of Blessington, Dr. Bleek, of Hottentot fame; George Boole, Mme. Anna Bishop and

her husband, Sir Henry R. Bishop, that most prolific composer; Peter Borthwick, champion of the West India planters, and hence of a system separating husband and wife at pleasure, yet author of "the Borthwick clause" in the poor law which forbids the separation of couples over the age of sixty on entering the doors of the poor-house—are a few names, taken at random, which one is glad to meet with here. The American interest in this volume is not slight. An ancestor of Longfellow's occurs in that Richard Bonython who settled in Maine in 1631. And here also are William Blackstone, once owner of Boston Common; the Rev. James Blair, the founder and president of William and Mary College; Commander Johnston Blakely, U. S. N., who took his *Wasp* into the British Channel in the war of 1812, and went down, with ship and crew, somewhere in the North Atlantic, probably, in the year 1814; the ill-fated Blennerhasset, the elder Booth, William Birch, painter and engraver, one of Washington's portraitists, etc.

—Part xxi of Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' (Macmillan) is of special interest to violinists and to admirers of Wagner's music. To the articles Violin and Violin Playing thirty one pages are devoted, and to Wagner thirty. Other important articles are on Violoncello, Virginal Music, Voice, Volkslied, Vogler, Wallace. The writer of the article on the violin does not believe in the Oriental origin of our bowed instruments: "The harp and lyre were borrowed by the Greeks from Egypt—probably, like the alphabet, through Phœnicia; but here the debt of Europe to the stringed-instrument-makers of the East begins and ends. The Arabic and Hindoo instruments from which Fétis and others deduce the violin evidently belong to a totally distinct family. . . . The fiddle has developed out of the lyre and monochord." The writer shows specifically that every detail of the peculiar form of the modern violin has its acoustic reason for being so and not otherwise: and he gives a full account, with illustrations, of the various odd forms through which the violin's predecessors passed before the one was found which seemed fittest to survive. He protests against "the groundless idea that no good fiddles have been made since the golden age of the Cremona makers, which terminated 120 years ago, and that the secrets of violin-making are lost." The prices of the best Italian instruments range from $1,000 to $2,500. "In the writer's opinion, the prices now paid for old Italian violins, always excepting the very best, are high beyond all proportion to their intrinsic excellence. . . . No one with any real idea of the use of a violin would pay £100 for instruments by Montagnana, Serafin, or Peter Guarnerius, when he could buy a good Vuillaume, Pressenda, or Lupot for from £20 to £30; yet the writer has constantly known the first-named prices realized for Italian instruments of decidedly inferior merit." Nevertheless, many of the best violin-makers seldom make new instruments, their principal occupation being the purchase, restoration, and sale of old ones. A violin consists of seventy distinct parts, each of which must be studied separately, and "the restoration of old instruments demands a knowledge of the fiddle which is wider and deeper than that required for the mere fiddle-maker." The article on violin-playing gives an interesting account (with a table) of the various "schools" of violinists and their peculiarities. The writer thinks there can be no doubt that the number of good violinists is very much greater at the present time than it ever was before. The article on the violoncello is good enough so far as the instrument is concerned; but when Mr. Payne comes to talk about the compositions for it, the English Mendelssohn madness crops out again. He not only declares Mendelssohn's weak and artificial sonatas to be among the finest works in the 'cellist's repertory, and laments that his intention of writing a concerto was frustrated by his death, but takes occasion to sneer at Schumann's Concerto, the slow movement of which, as a matter of fact, brief as it is, has more genius in it than anything Mendelssohn ever wrote. Nor is this all. Mr. Payne mentions and commends 'cello compositions by such composerlings as Dotzauer, Kummer, Lee, Viotti, and even Offenbach (!), but has not a word to say about Rubinstein's two magnificent sonatas for 'cello and piano, his equally fine concertos, and his three morceaux; or Chopin's highly poetic Sonata, which disputes with Rubinstein's Second Sonata the honor of being the best composition ever written for 'cello and piano. We may remark, by the way, that one of the most significant things about Rubinstein's genius is that the English have not yet "caught on" to it, whereas Mendelssohn they took to heart at once. A failure of immediate appreciation in England, as experience shows, prognosticates the immortality of musical genius.

—It is most unfortunate that this dictionary, otherwise so excellent, should be edited so largely from the Mendelssohnian point of view. Many of the articles are in consequence not up to date, and Dr. Grove would do well to publish a special supplement giving "post-Mendelssohnian" information. In this respect Dr. Riemann's 'Musik-Lexicon' is vastly superior to Grove's. There is, however, one article in the issue under consideration which is fully abreast of the times. Mr. Dannreuther's article on Wagner is the best of its length ever written in any language, extensive as is the Wagnerian literature. He does not waste his space by incidentally lamenting what Mendelssohn did not do, but tells us what Wagner did accomplish. The article comes upon us as timely as a magazine essay just at present, when two or three of Wagner's operas are heard here every week. Mr. Dannreuther arranges his material under four heads—biographical and personal; literary; musical; chronological lists, and a list of valuable books on Wagner and his music. Dannreuther is well read in Wagner's ten volumes of literary works, and wherever possible he introduces the composer's own words on biographical and critical points. He has also been so fortunate as to have access to Wagner's privately printed autobiography, which he repeatedly quotes from. Particularly full are the details regarding Wagner's early life in Paris and his struggles for fame and bread, which were so severe that at one time he applied—in vain—for a place as a "choriste" at a small boulevard theatre: "I came off worse than Berlioz when he was in a similar predicament. The conductor who tested my capabilities discovered that I could not sing at all, and pronounced me a hopeless case all round." Brief résumés are given of Wagner's principal æsthetic treatises, the secrets of his instrumentation are explained, and his opinions of and relations to other composers made clear. A striking portrait of his appearance, habits, and temper is drawn on page 365.

—'Translations from the Poems of Victor Hugo,' by Henry Charrington (London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribner & Welford), and 'Selections Chiefly Lyrical from the Poetical Works of Victor Hugo,' now first collected by Henry Llewellyn Williams (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford), agree in lacking an English version of Hugo's only sonnet. Dean Charrington's is the more scholarly of these two attempts to render Hugo's poetry into English verse—a task of unspeakable difficulty and danger; and on the whole it is the more satisfactory. There are several poems in Mr. Williams's collection far more finely translated than any in Dean Charrington's, but the general average of the single-handed version is very much higher than that of the eclectic. We are inclined to believe that a selection of the best translations from any very popular poet ought to be more successful than the attempt of any single translator can hope to be. No foreign poet, for example, has been as adequately represented in England as Ferdinand Freiligrath, whose daughter chose the best English renderings of his lyrics, herself translating only those which had not already been translated advantageously. But this method calls for finer taste and sounder judgment than Mr. Williams possesses, and his selection of the English translations of Hugo is very unsatisfactory and misleading. Of course, he has included some admirable verses, by Mr. Lang, Mr. Garnett, "Father Prout," Toru Dott, and other competent translators; but his own work is in general hopelessly wrong in form and in spirit. Dean Charrington's collection is of uneven quality, but it never sinks so low as Mr. Williams's. Of course, no one has been bold enough to venture on English versions of the "Djinns" and the "Pas d'Armes du Roi Jean"—as characteristic of the French poet as they are untranslatable.

—Whoever has visited the Plantin Museum at Antwerp will be attracted by the first of a series of articles on Rubens and Balthasar Moretus, by Max Rooses, curator of the Museum, in No. 518 of *L'Art* (Macmillan). The visitor sees on the walls original paintings by Rubens, and in the cases his sketches for title-pages beside the printed designs, the engraved plates, and the painter's receipts for his pay. Among the scrupulously preserved papers of the grandson of Christopher Plantin are many evidences of his close relations, in friendship and in business, with his old schoolmate, and M. Rooses's investigations have enabled him, as he does in this article, to throw much light on Rubens's career, and on the dates of some of his works. A fine portrait of Moretus is reproduced in connection with the text. Rubens reappears in another article, with a disagreeable subject, "Demoniacs in Art," which has many curious illustrations from a great variety of sources. In etchings, the December numbers 518 and 519 have a holiday richness: a group portrait of Fr. Snyders and his wife, after Van Dyck; a Flemish interior, also involving a formal portrait of man and wife, after G. Coques; and a fancy "January," typified by a dangerous young woman in furs. Add a photogravure showing a newly discovered Madonna and Child by Mantegna, as it now is, and as it lately was—painted over so that its origin was not suspected by the custodians of the art museum at Brera. No direct indication is given that the right-hand view is the restored one, but one's doubts are set at rest in the *Illustrazione Italiana* for January 10. The book notices are much more numerous than usual, and naturally deal with illustrated works, giving samples of the engravings. One such, from 'Manners and Caricature in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland,' shows "the ship of the Caucus," having on board the Genevan authorities, called by their enemies, as we are told in a foot-note, "Caucus (petit clou, petite association fermée)"—*i. e.*, a close corporation. The *Courrier de l'Art* for December 17 reports the very amusing debate on the subject of the rejection of certain paintings offered to the Louvre by a public-spirited group of private art lovers. The attack on the Ministry of Fine Arts was very discursive, and had a party bitterness, the Radicals calling for the discharge of all the "reactionaries" connected with the Louvre. The proprietor of *L'Art* being involved, to his credit, in the controversy, the *Courrier* gives a spirited editorial comment on the debate, revealing, among

other things, the long-standing jealousy of *L'Art's* rival, the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*.

—Decidedly the most attractive, and probably the most heroic, figure among the Protestant commanders of Germany in the Thirty Years' War is Duke Bernhard, of Weimar. Young in years and spirit throughout his warlike career—he was born in 1604 and died in 1639—brave, chivalrous, learned, keen of perception, steady in his aims, quick in action, unflinching in adversity, he was worthy to avenge Gustavus Adolphus at Lützen (1632), and succeed him in command. Nor did he lose his prestige by the defeat at Nördlingen (1634), where he met overwhelming forces. But he accepted the Emperor's pardon after Tilly's victory at Lutter (1627); he incurred Oxenstiern, the great Swedish Chancellor's, suspicions, and concluded agreements with Richelieu which secured him princely advantages under the protection of France; and on his death his trusted lieutenant, Erlach, surrendered his stronghold and troops to that foreign and Catholic Power. Can he, in the light of all this, be considered a German patriot, true and steadfast? Goethe made an effort to compose a life of the hero of Weimar, but gave up the task, being unable to get at a clear conception of his subject. The historian Luden had the same experience. Röse's biography ('Herzog Bernhard der Grosse von Saxen-Weimar, mit Urkunden,' 2 vols., Weimar, 1829), presents no solution. Dr. von Gonzenbach, who devoted three volumes to the life of Erlach ('General Hans Ludwig von Erlach,' Bern, 1880-82) warns his readers not to seek in Bernhard a patriotic hero according to the conceptions of our time: he was no more than a brilliant princely *condottiere*. Entirely different, however, is the view taken by Prof. Gustav Droysen, the younger historian of that name and biographer of Gustavus Adolphus, whose 'Bernhard von Weimar (2 vols., Leipzig, 1885) is the product of many years of research in the archives of Dresden, Gotha, Paris, and Stockholm. If Droysen's picture is correct, Bernhard was not only the noblest type of a warrior of his age, but a German patriot in the truest sense of the word. Protestant Germany will be prone to accept this decision.

THE PHILOLOGICAL SOCIETY'S DICTIONARY.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles; founded mainly on the materials collected by the Philological Society. Edited by James A. H. Murray, LL.D. Part II.—Ant—Batten. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1885.

In the crowd of serials that are constantly appearing, it may seem a little out of the way to claim a place for the Dictionary of the Philological Society, the second part of which now comes up for examination. Yet we doubt if the most popular of them all will, for an educated man, surpass this work in interest; we are sure that nothing but a production of genius could pretend to rival it in permanent value. It is without any intention of reviving or referring to the venerable jokes connected with publications of this kind that we remark that delay, such as has existed, in bringing out successive portions would naturally tend to the destruction of general or sustained interest in this enterprise. It is nearly a year since the first part was noticed in these columns, and more than a year has intervened between the appearance of the two parts; but a delay of this kind, inevitable in this instance, will probably never take place again. The work of digesting the material is now well in hand, and arrangements have been perfected by which the successive parts will appear with comparative regularity. It is expected, indeed, that the letter B will be finished early in the present year, and that hereafter publication of the successive portions will occur once every six months.

To come to particulars, the present part contains all the words from *Ant* to *Batten*. The total number explained in it is 9,135. As *A* is now finished with over fifteen thousand words, and as this letter contains in dictionaries of English about one-sixteenth of the alphabet, the editor calculates that in the completed work there will be comprised about 240,000 words. This is practically double the number found in the largest existing dictionaries, to say nothing of the altogether fuller treatment that is bestowed in this upon each of the entries. We venture to add, moreover, that this will be found an under rather than an over-estimate. It will certainly be so if the process of reading for it is kept up while the various parts are successively going through the press, and this we assume will be the case. The plan which has been adopted, or at any rate the one which has been followed, admits on a generous scale the formations of the hour. We do not believe in its advisability, because it can never be made exhaustive, and, if it could, would add little appreciable value to the work; but the adoption of the principle insures a pretty constant supply of new words, and it will be strange if the latter portion of the alphabet is not swelled, in consequence, beyond its legitimate proportion.

This second part, it may be said in general terms, is far more interesting than the first. It contains comparatively few of those words which made the latter seem, on a hasty glance, more like a technical lexicon of science than a purely English dictionary. It has cost, moreover, far more labor in its preparation; and it is a pleasure to bear witness to the skill, the judgment, and the thoroughness with which the work has been done. The editor has certainly earned the right to speak with gratification of the result accomplished, as well as with some feeling of the labor involved. Statistics can never give a satisfactory idea of the time and thought expended upon any point. Still, one does get a rough conception of the magnitude of the task that has been undertaken and accomplished when he finds forty-two closely printed columns given up to *Anti* and its compounds, twenty-four to *Back* and its compounds, and seven columns to the various uses of the preposition *At*. There is, in fact, not a page in this part in which even the general reader will not find much to interest, nor one from which the profoundest scholar will not gather information. As a single instance of the way in which this mass of illustrative quotations becomes self-explanatory, the word *babery* invites attention. This, in an older form, has long been one of the puzzling words in Chaucer, in whose writings it occurs once. It evidently perplexed the ancient copyists as much as it has done later commentators. It appears in the different manuscripts and editions as *babeuries*, *babeuwryes*, *babeweuries*, *rabewyures*, and *rabewynnes*. The latter forms, which are the ones now usually found in print, originated, without doubt, from the confusion of capital *B* with *R*. The illustrative quotations from other writers not only settle the spelling of the word, but also fix its meaning as "antic shapes" in architecture, which is the very sense the context in Chaucer may be almost said to require.

From the philological point of view this work is peculiarly strong. It is strong not merely for what it says, but for what it refrains from saying. The editor is utterly free from any desire to make conjecture take the place of knowledge in etymology, and the caution he shows in matters of derivation is a most welcome, and, we may add, a rather unexpected proceeding in productions of this kind. In truth we think so highly of the work as a whole, and of the manner in which it has been executed, that it seems a particularly ungracious task to call attention to shortcomings in details. The great merits of the dictionary so overbalance any petty defects that to speak at any length of the latter is liable to make the criticism misunderstood by the careless reader as well as resented by the careful editor. Yet, as was pointed out in the notice of Part 1, there are deficiencies in the work, some of which are doubtless slips practically unavoidable in an undertaking of this magnitude, but others of which seem to us to arise from the deliberate choice of a wrong method.

Naturally what would most attract attention at first in this country is the treatment of American usage. In this matter we are generally impressed with the accuracy of the work. We shall probably not be far out of the way in supposing that this state of things must be due largely to the supervision of Mr. Fitzedward Hall, whose valuable linguistic communications have appeared more than once in the columns of this journal. Whatever sins there are, are usually sins of omission. The feeling, too, comes over one at times, in examining the dictionary, that no great harm would have been done had this particular kind of sin been extended in some cases to the writers from whom the quotations have been made. The point of view, however, is everything in the matter of words as of usages, and our surprise at certain things which fail to appear as well as at some which do appear may not be shared by the intelligent Briton. Yet what member of the old anti-slavery party, with its forty years of bitter political agitation and the waste of wealth and loss of blood in the four years of war it indirectly caused, can help feeling a slight shock of amazement at not finding its title explained in the forty-two columns devoted to *Anti-* and its compounds, and barely recorded at the beginning as a specimen of a "synthetic combination"? What American, too, has not heard of the Argonauts of '49, the adventurers who, in seeking the shores of the Pacific, faced fearlessly perils greater than Grecian hero ever encountered, and direr than Grecian poet ever dreamed? Even some Englishmen must have heard of Bret Harte's 'Tales of the Argonauts'; but if they have, they have not thought fit to communicate their knowledge to the compilers of this dictionary. If these can be counted errors on the side of too little, there are others on the side of too much. *Approbate* for "approve," we learn, is "often used in the United States." The sole instance given is from the year 1849, where it is cited from the Proceedings of some Philological Society which seems then to have existed. We do not deny the verb "used," though we have never heard the word or heard of any one employing it; but we do deny the adverb "often." There is one singular instance of editing, which reminds us of the *logicize* of Bartlett's Dictionary. To an American authoress, Mrs. Whitney — whose writings seem to have been read for this work with special zeal, and to have contributed several formations previously unknown to the language—is credited the word *asideness*. To this is appended [U. S.] in brackets. Now the addition, if it means anything, means that the term is an Americanism. But in order that a term shall properly be called an Americanism, it ought surely to be used by a number of Americans, to say the least. It is an utter misapplication of its meaning to include under it the coinage of an individual writer, which is so far from being found in the common speech that it has probably never been heard or seen save in the productions of its originator. Moreover, if it be properly added here, it has been improperly omitted after *apparition* as a verb, and several

other words, to which there is precisely the same reason to append it.

Again, in the definitions of Americanisms there is sometimes a lack of precision, due to a lack of knowledge, which will be certain to mislead the ignorant reader who consults the work. *Barnburner*, for illustration, is given as a nickname of a section of the Democratic party in the United States. It was never employed outside of New York, and is now practically forgotten there along with many other similar terms which the faction fights in that State have brought into temporary existence. In like manner *banter* is given as a word used in this country with the sense of challenging to a race or shooting-match. To the vast majority of Americans it would be as strange a meaning as it could possibly appear to an Englishman. The authority from which these terms are taken specifies the places where they are used; and to neglect this limitation is as misleading in an English dictionary as it would be for a peculiarity of the East-Anglian dialect, for instance, to be credited in an American dictionary to the whole of England. But, after all, the most inexplicable thing in this work in its treatment of usage as found in this country is its failure to admit the spelling *armor* along with *armour*—a failure made more significant by the fact that it is careful to say that etymologically the spelling is properly *armure*. It is not a matter about which any one will be much concerned. In a language where every scholar recognizes the orthography as disreputable, the form given to a single word is not a thing to treat with special seriousness. Still, a fact is a fact, and it is the first business of a dictionary to recognize and record it. The fact in this case is that full one-half of the English-speaking race, if not more, spell this word as *armor*, and are likely to continue doing it; and it is no recognition of the fact to put this method of spelling among the variant forms which have been found from the thirteenth century to the present time. Webster and Worcester give only the form *armor*: they do not even admit the existence of *armour*. But a great dictionary of the language, such as is this, has no business to adopt national peculiarities and preferences, still less individual opinions.

This discussion leads naturally to the subject of possible divergences that already exist or may spring up between the language as used in England and in this country. To many readers it will be a surprise to learn that in the popular speech the "autumn" of the former country begins and ends a month earlier than that of the latter. There are certain senses of words put down here as archaic, also, which strike an American with some astonishment. One of these is the meaning of getting up from sitting or kneeling which belongs to *arise*. This verb, to be sure, is not so common with us as the simpler form *rise*; but that it never was anywhere in any period of its history. We venture to say that no one in this country would hesitate about using it in this sense, or would think it strange to hear it used by any one else. There are, indeed, many words which belong much more to the language of writing than of conversation, but it would certainly be questionable to register them as archaic simply because, after having belonged to the language of the latter, they had passed over almost entirely to that of the former. Again, have *apparel* and *assisting* ever been much employed in the spoken tongue? If they have not, is it not misleading therefore to represent them as they are represented here as going out of use? And while on this subject of possible divergences it may be worth while to say that in this country *apothecary* is only a 'druggist'; but we must add that it is impossible to make out from the definition found in this work what is his precise position in England.

It is on the purely literary side, however, that this dictionary displays any real weakness, and it displays that only by contrast with the strength of the philological treatment which characterizes it. It cannot be insisted upon too strongly that a great work of this kind, which is destined to remain a conspicuous literary monument for generations, should be not merely a record of usage, but of the very best usage. If a choice of two examples equally good has to be made, the greater author is to be selected in preference to the less. It is only peculiar appositeness that can justify appealing to the latter rather than to the former. The rule is certainly often violated in this dictionary, and possibly is not accepted. Were we disposed to felicitate ourselves upon the progress of what are sometimes supposed in England to be American ideas, we might point to the literary impartiality shown in this work as rather a striking illustration of their spread. Certainly the doctrine that one man is as good as another has never been more consistently and thoroughly carried out in the case of authors. If it be the main aim of a lexicographer to show the wealth of written matter that has been put under contribution for his work, such a course may be a fitting one. But if it really be, as it seems to us it should be, his aim to give in every instance the highest attainable authority for every usage of every word, it is not a course to be recommended. We cannot be expected to be thankful for a gift of pebbles, when pearls could have been furnished as easily. The fundamental principle to be adhered to in undertakings of this character is that all the works of all the great writers should be gone over most religiously; that the examination of them should be exhaustive; that no usage of theirs, no opinion of theirs on word or on usage, should be left unrecorded. Especially ought this rule to be followed in the case of words which are of comparatively rare occurrence. No quotation from an inferior author should, under such circumstances, ever be cited in preference. How much more weight would attach to *bacchanalias*, and *bacchanal* in the sense of "drunken orgy," with quotations that might have been taken from Milton and Dryden instead of the obscure writers of their times from whom the extracts given are derived! There is a special application of *avatar* in the title of the poem which contains Byron's terrific attack upon George IV., which ought to have found place here. "I rejoice," writes Gray to Walpole in 1751, "to find you *apply* (pardon the use of so odious a word) to the history of your own times." He corrects in another letter Walpole's use of *arrive* for "happen." This is the sort of literary opinion—entirely independent of its correctness or incorrectness—which ought always to be set down in a great national dictionary, whenever writers of the first authority have given expression to it. It is usually set down in this work; that it is not so invariably is doubtless the fault of the readers rather than that of the editor. Still, that there should be any failure at all, detracts somewhat from that satisfactory feeling of absolute trust in its completeness which we should all like to entertain. This demand for completeness, it is to be remarked, is asked only in behalf of the greatest authors. It is to deficiencies in their case alone that any criticism of ours is confined. While this dictionary nearly fulfils all that can be demanded, it does not fulfil it so perfectly that we can feel certain beyond all question that, in the treatment of any single great author's vocabulary, the last word has been spoken; we mean, of course, the last word in the light of present knowledge, and not in that of future.

Let us take Chaucer as an illustration. We specify him because he is an author who deserves special consideration, not merely for his position in regard to our early literature, but on account of the increasing interest which is now taken in his writings, and the neglect which his vocabulary has received from previous lexicographers. One explanation of a perplexing word has already been given; and this is far from being the only one to be found here. But along with this generally full and accurate treatment of Chaucer's language, there is occasional wobbling which at times leaves on the mind an unpleasant impression. Urry's edition is quoted; it is not an edition that deserves to be even looked into. In the "Knight's Tale," Venus, in the council of the gods, after the defeat of Palamon, her favorite, says, "I am ashamed douteles." She means of course that she has been brought into discredit by the result. This is a sense that is not recorded here, though it is fair to add that it is one which can be inferred from a signification given to the verb. In the "Man of Law's Tale," the famous crux, *atazir*, which baffled generations of scholars, and which has only recently been explained, is here conspicuous by its absence. The same is true of *apiked*, one of the words of the Prologue. *Avauntour*, not in the general sense of 'boaster,' but in the special sense of 'a boaster of female favor,' is not found. The use of *on* with *assent* ("Troilus and Criseide," ii, 1,300) is not recorded. We could give a few other instances in the treatment of the vocabulary of this one author which are not entirely satisfactory, but a very large number where insignificant writers of or near his period have been cited in preference to him. These latter omissions, which are doubtless made intentionally, seem to us serious defects. Not so the others referred to, which are far from being numerous at most, and against the occasional occurrence of which it would require almost supernatural insight and oversight to guard.

In the way of more general criticism we notice the failure to record the special use of *author* in the sense of 'editor.' This was certainly a common employment of the word during a large part of the last century. It is "to the author of the *Gentleman's Magazine*," "to the author of the London *Evening Post*," and all similar daily, weekly, and monthly periodical publications that communications were then directed. Occasional omissions occur of words used in the text. *Apple-jack*, we are told, is the name in America of apple-brandy, in the East of England of an apple-turnover. But what is an apple-turnover? The dictionary does not tell us, and while we can guess at its meaning, we cannot be certain of it. Under *aphis* it is said that the aphides are sometimes called 'ant-cows.' But he who meets with the latter word must know also its scientific name, for it has by itself no place or explanation in this work. Nor, coming to a question that belongs to philology rather than lexicography proper, do we believe that the preterite *aris* was derived from the past participle. The theory which originates forms like "sprung," "flung," and many others now in use, together with "smit," "ris," "aris," "strid," and others once employed but now discarded, from an intrusion of the past participle into the preterite instead of from the plural of the preterite, seems to us untenable. It is not implied by this that the participle had no influence, only that it is not from that quarter that the forms mentioned actually came. But the subject is too large to justify here anything beyond an expression of dissent.

There are other things of which we had purposed to speak, but we have left ourselves no space for their discussion. They concern, however, like most of what has gone before, only matters of detail, and do not affect the substantial value of the work, which can safely defy the most hostile criticism that is ever likely to be directed against it. This is, indeed, a dictionary that no one who seeks to make even the most su-

perficial study of our tongue can afford to be without. It cannot be long before the possession of it will be regarded as a necessity by every man of education; and in the confident assurance of the coming of that time, its projectors may rest satisfied that it will be as successful from the financial point of view as it is already honorable from the point of view of scholarship.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Ghost's Touch, and Other Stories. By Wilkie Collins. Harper's Handy Series.

The Sacred Nugget.—Self-Doomed.—Christmas Angel. By B. L. Farjeon. Harper's Handy Series.

Houp-là. By John Strange Winter. Harper's Handy Series.

The Old Factory.—Ralph Norbreck's Trust. By William Westall. Cassell & Co.

Babylon. By Grant Allen. D. Appleton & Co.

The Unforeseen. By Alice O'Hanlon. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Goblin Gold. By May Crommelin. Harper's Handy Series.

rimus in Indis. By M. J. Colquhoun. Harper's Handy Series.

The Rabbi's Spell. By Stuart C. Cumberland. D. Appleton & Co.

King Solomon's Mines. By H. Rider Haggard. Cassell & Co.

Nuttie's Father. By Charlotte M. Yonge. Macmillan & Co.

Cabin and Gondola. By Charlotte Dunning. Harper's Handy Series.

The Story of Margaret Kent. A Novel. By Henry Hayes. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Vergebens. Roman von Maria Werkmeister. Chicago: Franz Gindele Printing Co. 1885. 244 pp.

It is written in the signs of the times that unless potential novelists shall have a new revelation, the plain story-teller must soon become a dodo of literature. The evil day is so near at hand that a volume of tales by Wilkie Collins is a boon to the host whose only conviction about the art of fiction is, that it was discovered, or invented, or decreed, by some beneficent being solely for the mental distraction of travellers through this working-day world. To the literary reader, no matter what may be his estimate of the intrinsic worth of Collins's stories, or of their rank as intellectual creations, there is pleasure in contemplating work done by a method clearly perceived and thoroughly mastered. Collins understands his own resources so exactly that scholastic warfare and dilettante counsel are alike impotent to disturb or to confuse him. Among the younger breed of novelists, who take their profession solemnly, the feeling about Collins is that "any fellow could do that if he would." The severe and binding character of his method is contemptuously ignored. There is no eagerness to discern that a mastery of it implies the possession of many unusual qualities, such as a correct sense of selection, accurate knowledge of the force of dramatic surprise and climax, and a nice judgment about the fitness of a word to its place. It demands, too, the power to perceive an inevitable end before the first paragraph is written—a power which the young fry apparently either consciously despise or have developed away from. Collins always proposes to himself a strange and unexpected dénouement, frequently an improbable or unnatural one. He invariably plays upon the inexhaustible reserves of curiosity, and from the beginning imposes upon his reader the obligation to discover the secret he holds, whether after all his secret be worth revealing or not. He knows, too, how to compel close attention, and is so ingenious in the contrivance of routes to his goal that, though they may be long, winding, and perplexing, they rarely fatigue. Only after the end is reached do we reflect on the lack of grace, polish, atmosphere, and proclaim that our taste has been violated, our sensibility shocked, by the author's pronounced mannerisms and intrusive eccentricities.

In his last volume, "The Ghost's Touch" and "Percy and the Prophet" develop the influence of supernatural agency on worldly affairs. Both have the author's distinguishing merit of method, and the latter has, in addition, two or three interesting characters. Mr. Blowmore, the eloquent advocate of the British citizen's rights, the protector of the unwritten Constitution, is almost a bit of burlesque; he certainly insinuates enough absurdity into the tale to suggest that all the wonderful occurrences narrated presented themselves to the author in a ludicrous light. The third story, "My Lady's Money," is excellent. In a degree it refutes the accusation that Collins in every instance sacrifices character to movement. Here the ten characters, including the terrier, "Tommie," are so distinct that they not only account for what they did and left undone under existing circumstances, but they convey a lively notion of what they would do in a totally different set of emergencies. Though the story is short, this effect is achieved without any evidence of haste or incompleteness.

Until Mr. Farjeon resolved to establish his claim to the title of novelist, by issuing a volume of fiction every two or three months, he was an acceptable story-teller, over-fond of calling on the rains to beat and the winds to blow a significant accompaniment to his drama, but still with something novel to say, and an agreeable way of saying it. He used not to appear so much like Dickens as he does now, or, at all events, he did not appear so much less than Dickens. The longest of his three recent volumes is the romance of 'The Sacred Nugget.' The scene is in Australia when the gold fever was at its height. Mike Patchett, the lucky finder of the cross-shaped nugget and of tons of precious ore, is Boffin reduced to bathos; Mrs. Whitmarsh is a colonial echo of Mrs. Wilfer; Mr. Horace Blakensee recalls Eugene Wrayburn and Mortimer, though neither of those gentlemen, peculiar as were their tricks to emphasize their social position, ever hit upon the distinguished device of incessantly polishing his finger-nails in public. In 'Self-Doomed,' the chief figure, Gideon Wolf, is introduced, labelled by the author, incomparable villain. The record of his uniformly wicked behavior reveals nothing to discredit the label, but is a wholly uninteresting confirmation of its descriptive truth. In 'Christmas Angel,' which is the best of the three because it has some sympathy and purpose, Farjeon expresses the philanthropic spirit of the times, as Dickens, in all his work, gave words to a tempest of humanitarian sentiment in the man. When Scrooge went off with the Christmas ghosts, he was wafted along by the strength of Dickens's personal desire that all the world should have roast-beef and plum-pudding on Christmas Day. When "Charlie's father" is led by the wraith of his son through scenes from which he awakens a sadder and wiser man, one feels that Mr. Farjeon is part of a "movement," and that he is thus contributing his share toward its advancement. If the imitation of Dickens were limited to catching up and carrying on his sympathy for suffering and his charity for sin, no word of adverse criticism could be spoken, but a copy of his melodramatic, sentimental manner is offensive. Dickens's versatility, his superb vitality, his inexhaustible spontaneity, place him beyond the canons of taste and form. His extravagances were his own, and their brilliant idiosyncrasy condoned their falseness. For that very reason he is the worst sort of a literary model.

The sketch 'Houp-là,' by the author of 'Bootles' Baby,' illustrates the best modern method of stimulating compassion for human misery and admiration of heroic qualities. It is a simple, straightforward, dramatic rendering of a bit of real life, in its movement subjecting character to the finest test. Bootles, who reappears, establishes himself as a figure in literature, a typical contradiction of the sneer that heroism went out with periwigs and ruffles.

If all the novelists who conceive the expression of a moral meaning to be the ultimate object of art, could convey their meaning as artistically as the author of 'Houp-là' (who, rumor says, is a woman), much splendid argumentative talent might pine and die for want of an attractive subject of discussion. But the numbers of tentative, uncertain, unskilful efforts bid fair to keep what the "Gamps" call "arguefiers" busy for many a day. The utilitarian fiction dedicated to the service of the Lancashire workingman is, in itself, a bonanza of disquisition. Mr. William Westall, in 'The Old Factory' and 'Ralph Norbreck's Trust,' has hesitated between the relative artistic values—or, can it be, relative drawing power?—of stern reality in Lancashire dialect and wild romance in glittering rhetoric. As a consequence, he has produced neither good contributions to social science nor blood-curdling adventure, and he has done nothing at all to relieve harassed inquirers into the mission and meaning of art.

Mr. Grant Allen, in 'Babylon,' has not quailed before the immensity of this problem, as far as it affects or is affected by painting and the plastic arts. The human interest in his novel is soon exhausted. Neither the American landscape painter, nor the Dorset peasant sculptor, nor any one of the more prominent characters, has a breath of the vitality imparted to Cecca, the queen of the Roman models. She is the conventional passionate, revengeful, unscrupulous Italian; but she lives, and in her alone the author shows power as a painter from the life. The curious reader, however, will turn over the pages twice to quarrel or agree with the art criticism, to be amazed and amused by the display of philological prejudice. Though there is no definite confession of faith, the essence of Mr. Allen's artistic creed undoubtedly is, that the highest, and indeed only considerable, object of art is to express beauty, and that that expression has reached perfection when the beauty of the spirit is made visible through the beauty of the form. The artist's moral lesson to humanity is taught through the spiritual elevation which contemplation of his work excites. Hiram Winthrop accomplished this mission by his sensitive paintings of his native woods and weeds and marshes; Colin Churchill, through the spiritualization of noble and heroic form in marble. It is easier to assent to Mr. Allen's creed than to approve his expression of it. The technical, critical phrases, strangely out of place in a novel, would be pedantic if they were not purely journalistic. Their unfitness is peculiarly noticeable, considering Mr. Allen's sensitiveness about the use and sound of words. What he calls the "Great American Language" has offended him deeply, and through the story runs a strain of peevish comparison between harsh, shrieking American corruptions, and "pretty, melting" Dorset dialect, dignified by the appellation "West Saxon of the Court of King Alfred." Preference of a burr to a twang is a matter of taste, but faithful reproduction of dialect is a matter of close observation and delicate perception of sound, and memory. After reading Mr. Allen's reproduction of the rural dialect of New

York State, one can define the imaginative passages of 'Babylon.' Some of his objections to verbal usages in America, though captious, are valid; but when he disparages *sick*, as an Americanism, one wonders if, for instance, he habitually reads Calphurnia's message to the Senate, "Say he is *ill*."

The opening scenes of 'The Unforeseen' are in a *habitan* village in the heart of the Canadian forests. The French Canadians are a comparatively unwritten people, and offer to the novelist a field where reality is almost one with romance and picturesqueness. Miss O'Hanlon, like several other novelists who have attempted it, begins very well, but abandons her fine opportunities for the attraction of conventional background to her figures. Though Mme. Vandeleur very soon loses her distinctive *Canadienne* personality, she is a clever and brilliant adventuress, and her career is logically drawn, from its obscure beginning to its despairing end. She is by no means typical, but she is possible. Claudia Estcourt, the contrasting figure, is typical, and though poetic justice may cry for the punishment of vanity, selfishness, and cruelty, a wide experience of life will commend the author's inflexibility. The novel is overladen with characters, and spun out, but it is carefully constructed, guided by taste and fine intention, and, moreover, it is interesting and enjoyable.

Such commendation cannot be given to 'Goblin Gold,' by May Crommelin, whose earlier novels promised a fair future. It is the threadbare story of a hypocrite who, attaching himself to a singularly ingenuous and generous man, drags him through a sequence of scrapes in order to oust him from his inheritance. This character is a survival. He is like the leering, hissing, hand-wringing villain still popular in melodrama, and unlike any human being that ever was.

His double appears in 'Primus in Indis.' The hero of this story is introduced hurrahing and intriguing for Prince Charlie. The machinations of the villain prevent the hero's being more than a handsome and somewhat noisy supporter of the bonnie Prince; so, as a soldier of fortune, he follows Clive into India. Here the number of his adventures is more striking than their coherency, and, after they are told, Peterkin's interrogation, "What was it all about?" springs naturally to the lips.

The supernatural incidents in the 'Rabbi's Spell' are a concession to Mr. Cumberland's reputation as a wizard. The tale of murder and retribution could have been told as well without them. The real motive is to expose and censure Russian officialism, and, eliminating pages expressive of bitter personal hostility to Russia and the Russians, the motive is successfully realized through the action. Several scenes are skilfully managed, notably those between Count Soltikoff and his subordinate, Nevikoff. In these the author gives a lesson in the diplomatic art of making your desires understood without saying one word compromising to dignity or honor.

'King Solomon's Mines' is a capital boy's book, to which the purely fabulous foundation is no drawback. The marvellous adventures of Captain Good and his friends in the land that lay beyond the "Suliman Mountains" appeal, through devices familiar and novel, to the healthy boy's ardor for fighting savages and coming off victorious, with the spoils of Golconda to boot.

'Nuttie's Father,' by Miss Yonge, is not intended for children only; it may be read at any age with a perfect sense of security that moral bulwarks shall not be assailed. It has all the amiability and sincerity which have endeared Miss Yonge to two generations, but the girl who goes up for the Cambridge examinations is too abnormal a development for her to grapple with. It is very edifying to hear that Nuttie is going in for "higher education," but we can only feel that she has gone in heart and soul for mild dissipation, sanctified by convictions about the saving grace of the High Anglican ritual, and that the quadrilateral of the tennis ground represents to her consciousness the purest mathematical beauty.

Encouraged, probably, by the reception of her novel, Charlotte Dunning has gathered a few of her short stories together into a volume, which has been issued as one of the numbers of "Harper's Handy Series." It takes eleven tales to fill out the 200 pages, and, as a rule, they are quite short, airy, and light; yet they strike one as being more than sketches, after all. Whatever may be the facts in the case, one feels in reading them that they were not dashed off with recklessness: they seem to show the finishing marks of a careful hand. It is entirely to this finish of form and an engaging delicacy of style that the stories owe their charm, for there is nothing strikingly original, new, or distinctive about them; in fact, there is a flavor of other writers to be detected in one or two of them that is just slight enough to escape the appearance of imitation. "Told Between the Acts" recalls immediately a form in which Balzac liked to cast his sketches. The author's fondness for making a plot of the simplest materials and for turning the story on the very slightest incidents is noticeable throughout, and one finds one's self wondering, when the volume is put aside, what there was in it that interested him; but the interest is there, nevertheless.

The story of Margaret Kent is neither a new nor a pleasant one. It is told with a certain degree of facility, however, that gives it the air of a commonplace, clever piece of fiction-writing. There is no lack of incidents or situations, nor of characters not well enough drawn to be worthy of praise, nor yet poorly enough drawn to deserve unqualified censure. The novel, in a word, is commonplace throughout; it is not quite sensational, nor is it quite simple and natural. It has violent contrasts, a brisk movement, and excites an interest of a sort; but it is not an elevating or worthy interest. One is at a loss to see what Mrs. Kent finds in Dr. Walton to make her love him; and her faithfulness to her worthless husband, who returns from South America just as she is on the point of asking for a divorce, is rather too much forced upon her by circumstances for us to give her any great credit—for Dr. Walton's disgusted and almost brutally passionate attitude when he discovers that she is not a widow, as he had thought her, leaves her no alternative. The final complication, when Dr. Walton's mistake is reversed—when she is really a widow and he thinks it is not her husband but the latter's cousin who is dead—is a needless piling up of improbabilities. From the character of the book as a whole, however, one is inclined to think that the author has tolerably succeeded in what he set out to do, and one remembers that

"Not failure, but low aim is crime."

'Vergebens' is a pretty story, of the quiet or domestic order, which contrives to be interesting and to leave a pleasant impression in spite of its familiar plot and incidents and the melancholy character of many of the scenes. From its being written and printed in Chicago, the reader might suppose that it dealt with phases of German-American life, which would have given the work a unique interest; but this merit the author by no means claims. It deals, in fact, with life in a small South-German town fifty years ago; the characters, the author explains, being described partly from memory, but partly also from tradition. That, with scenes so distant and incidents which, though neither realistic nor commonplace, have long been common property with writers of fiction, the author should have been able to infuse vividness and vitality into her characters, argues considerable powers of sympathy and discernment.

LAUGHLIN'S BIMETALLISM.

The History of Bimetallism in the United States. By J. Laurence Laughlin, Assistant Professor of Political Economy in Harvard University. D. Appleton & Co. 1886.

It was very important that, with the beginning of the silver controversy as a live issue in politics, there should be put within easy reach a collection of all the stores needed for such a campaign. Nobody can have failed to notice how, since the assembling of Congress, this question has gone to the front, passing by easy stages the civil-service and the tariff and all other questions in its claims upon public attention. Yet it has been a momentous question ever since the 28th of February, 1878, when the Bland-Allison bill was passed over President Hayes's veto. Indeed, the controversy started two or three years earlier, as soon as the decline of silver below our old ratio of sixteen to one was recognized as a permanent change in the relative values of silver and gold. The public mind, however, appeared to take a rest after the passage of the silver-coinage law; and although nearly all instructed persons saw that great mischief was impending, and many used their best efforts to arouse public opinion to a sense of the coming danger, they were not able to gain attention. Now, however, the ball is opened. Masses of people are for the first time really taking sides. All the signs point to a protracted struggle, at the end of which most assuredly the silver men will be worsted, although they may prevent any action adverse to the Bland dollar in the present Congress. The conditions are such that the opponents of the arbitrary coinage of silver must continue to fight, however often they may be worsted, and must fight all the harder the oftener they are worsted. No such stress is imposed upon the other side. On the contrary, the larger the accumulation of Bland dollars in the Treasury, the less reason is there for continuing to coin.

Professor Laughlin's work is an extremely painstaking collection and methodical arrangement of all the facts needed by the student, the statesman, or the editor to fit him for taking part in this battle. Along with the collocation of material we have a clear and dispassionate argument, not of the controversial sort, maintaining the views held by nearly all economists of the present day on the subject of monetary standards. It is worth mention that prior to 1876, when the extraordinary decline in the price of silver began, the subject of bimetallism had not been much considered by English or American writers. The old discussions which antedated the adoption by England of the single gold standard were forgotten. So also were the debates of our own statesmen, in their gropings after the truth, which they eventually reached in practice in the year 1853, but did not embody in the law until 1873. In the former year it was found that true "metallism" consisted of a gold standard with a silver subsidiary coinage, the bullion value of the latter being sufficiently below the money value to prevent its being melted and exported and the country thus left without any small change. The settlement reached in 1853 was the acme of human wisdom simply because it was the embodiment of human experience carefully noted, and noted, too, by the evidence of no little suffering.

Professor Laughlin supplies us with the history of this long pursuit after truth in all its details. Nothing more instructive can be found in the history of any country. Indeed, all countries go through a like experience at one time or another. The laws of political economy are laws because

they fit the whole world. The exceptions which are made so much of by the professorial socialists form interesting studies by themselves. It is vastly interesting to know why nations go to war and destroy life and property in such reckless fashion as we observe that they do, but it remains true that man's instinct is to save his life and his property, and that this instinct is so nearly universal that it may be resolved into a law. It will be interesting to know why the United States, after so much hard experience in learning the truth about the use of the two precious metals, abandoned it and adopted a practice utterly unknown and unexampled in the world's history—that of coining dollars on Government account. Monetary science is not concerned with this eccentricity. Political science is concerned with it by way of noting how a great people may follow an *ignus fatuus* into a Serbonian bog, and how they may toil back again after they have waded in it sufficiently. It is just as certain that the United States will come back to the single gold standard, with a silver subsidiary coinage, in law and in fact, as it was that all the nations of western Europe would come to that conclusion. The question now is whether we shall momentarily abandon the gold standard *de facto* before we turn our steps out of the bog.

As we have said, Professor Laughlin has grouped together all the scattered material of our own history, and nearly all that is useful from the history of other nations, to equip those who desire to enlist in the fight on the side of correct principles of finance. The arrangement of statistics regarding the production and coinage of gold and silver is especially valuable, presenting in graphic form the yield of the mines in each of the periods in the world's history marked by any unusual increase of one or the other metal, and also of the whole period from the discovery of America to the present time. It is not at all remarkable, but will be surprising to many readers, to observe how many of the otherwise inexplicable variations in the relative values of the two metals are accounted for by a glance at these charts, which are simply the setting forth of the law, or rather the facts, of supply. The other factor in the problem, the demand, is to be drawn from the history of commerce; and this, too, is supplied in due measure by the author. The two, taken together, make the law of supply and demand which governs the price of the one as measured by the other in all cases whatsoever. Incidentally, Professor Laughlin demolishes the most distinctive portion of the work of Mr. Dana Horton—that relating to the supposed disturbance of the equilibrium of the precious metals by the Bank of England's resumption in 1819—and gives the reader a strong impression of the superficiality of Mr. Horton's studies.

The only thing of importance that we miss from Professor Laughlin's volume is a chapter on the resumption of specie payments by Italy. This was a recent event of the first magnitude, pregnant with answers to many disputed questions of the sort which bimetallism has to do with. The appendices to the work are copious and well chosen. We wonder, however, why the table showing the coinage of the French mint stops at the year 1876. Surely they must have been doing something there the past nine years.

THE SHORTER PIECES OF FLAUBERT.

Œuvres Complètes de Gustave Flaubert. Tome vi. Trois Contes, suivis de Mélanges Inédits. Paris: A. Quantin; New York: Christern. 1885.

If it can be said of a reprint, we should say unhesitatingly that few more interesting books of literature have appeared last year, or will appear next year, than this latest and final volume of the eight volumes of Flaubert's works just issued by Quantin in his beautiful *ne varietur* edition. It is the only volume of the eight which could be put, by one who cares for Flaubert, into the hands of one who had not yet acquired a regard for him, with strong confidence that the general impression would be agreeable; and to those who value everything Flaubert has written, it is welcome as containing a considerable amount of material not heretofore published—though, as the new matter is mostly youthful work, its interest is chiefly biographical.

The volume opens with "Un Cœur Simple"—an extraordinarily vivid representation of the outer and inner life of a servant-woman, the servant of a widow in a small town. In force of imagination and power of expression this little tale could scarcely be surpassed. As a piece of writing it is very remarkable, and as a conception of a human existence its truth, spiritualized by its tenderness, and its tenderness invigorated by its truth, render it a masterpiece. It belongs to the same category as 'Les Reliques Vivantes' of Turgeneff, and to say that is to give it the highest praise.

The next tale is the legend of St. Julian Hospitaller, told with the utmost directness and simplicity, and with an astonishing *naturalness* of rendering, manifesting the supreme dramatic gift of living the life conceived. In Flaubert's case this gift has power to communicate itself singularly to the intelligence of the reader. Not only his own mind transmuted itself into that of the servant or the saint, feeling what they must have felt, seeing what they must have seen, senseless to all things not perceived by them, but we, too, see, feel, suffer, triumph, in their persons. This is largely an effect of *style*. Phrases, pages, in which every word rings true to the thought, stamp on the reader's mind so unusual a clearness and vividness of impression that one can scarcely distinguish it from a spontaneous act of the mind itself. The mingled conciseness and lingering of Flaubert's manner increase this intimacy of sympathy. When he is in the presence of what is familiar, he but glances at it and passes on, speaking only the necessary word to make it visible to us; when he encounters what is peculiar to the moment or the individual he pauses, watches, waits, gazes, intently listens, and, so gazing and listening, delivers those cadenced and magic utterances which create the universal out of the particular, the ideal out of the real, and art out of nature.

The third tale is the story of the death of John the Baptist (under his name of Iaokanann), considered as an incident in the accompanying historical movement. It is perhaps less successful than the other two, but the three together form a very perfect reflection of the three faces of Flaubert's mind—his observation of the present, his study of the past, and his leaning toward the supernatural; and their merit seems all the more apparent from the restriction of their compass.

These tales are followed by a preface (published in 1870) to a posthumous collection of the verses of Bouilhet, between whom and Flaubert existed the closest friendship—admirably expressed by this paper. Its quiet reserve gives great dignity to the feeling pulsating through it and vivifying it, and ennobles the outburst of emotion with which it closes. As if counselling two friends connected by such ties as had just been severed for himself—

"When one of them dies," he says, "let the other preciously cherish his memory as a rampart against all that is mean, as a succor in moments of weakness, or yet more like a household place of prayer where he will go to breathe out his sorrows and to ease his heart. How many times, at night, looking into the shadows behind that lamp which was wont to shine on both their brows, he will vaguely seek an indistinct form, almost questioning it, 'Should it be thus? Shall I so do? Tell me.' And if this remembrance is the eternal nourishment of his pain, it will be at least companionship in his loneliness."

We are obliged by honesty to confess that we have assumed a misprint in the text: the use there of the feminine form of the adjective in the clause "prête à l'interroger" would make the shade ("l'ombre") the questioner. But a similar misprint of "il" for "elle" on a subsequent page perhaps justifies us, and our rendering of the passage is borne out, in spirit at least, by the tone of Flaubert's letters during the months immediately following Bouilhet's death. "In losing my poor Bouilhet I have lost . . . one who saw my thought more clearly than I myself. His death has left for me a void of which I am every day more conscious." Again: "I feel no longer the need of writing, because I wrote especially for one sole being who exists no longer." He adds (it is to Mme. Sand): "You say to me things which are very beautiful, and very good too, trying to restore my courage. I scarcely have any, but I act as if I had, which perhaps comes to the same thing." For a long while—perhaps always—afterward it is evident, to use his own phrase (in 'Madame Bovary'), "il se sentit triste comme une maison démeublée."

In a letter written while composing the Preface, Flaubert says: "The difficulty is to know what not to say. I shall allow myself the relief of blurting out two or three dogmatic opinions on the art of writing; it will be an occasion to express what I think—a pleasure which I have always denied myself." These opinions are so inwoven with criticisms of his friend's work that they are not quotable, but they are well worth reading and considering. For the most part they are amplifications of the thought which La Bruyère declared in these terms: "Il faut exprimer le vrai pour écrire naturellement, fortement, délicatement."

Of the remaining half-volume, a hundred and fifty pages are occupied by hitherto unpublished sketches of a three months' walking tour in Brittany in 1847, when Flaubert was twenty-five years old, and ten pages by notes written on the Nile in 1850 (which appeared in *Le Gaulois* after his death). The Brittany sketches are eminently picturesque, and effective with touches of historical reminiscence, imaginatively treated, which produces an unusual and poetic mingling of past scenes with present ones. On one page is the funeral service of a poor fisherman, on another the bed of Diana of Poitiers, on another the "bagne" of Brest, and next the daring surprise of St. Malo in 1589—in "that prodigious sixteenth century . . . when the episode stands sharply out from the history, and yet holds its place in it in a marvellous fashion, brightening its colors and widening its horizons." He pictures brilliantly that period when, "even if we disregard the things visible at first glance, the beliefs cracking to their foundations like crumbling mountains, the new worlds discovered, the lost worlds unburied, Michael Angelo under his dome, Rabelais who laughs, and Shakspere who observes, and Montaigne who meditates—where shall we find elsewhere more development of passion, more violence of courage, more eagerness of will, and finally a more complete expansion of liberty, circling and beating up against all native fatalities?"

It was in these Brittany wanderings "par les champs et par les grèves" that Flaubert first drew the portrait of the beggar who ten years afterward was to be so conspicuous a figure in 'Madame Bovary.' Here, too, he came across an attempted assassination of two women, and gave them his services as a surgeon.

The Nile notes are less interesting, less simple,

less thoughtful, more personal; and, concerning themselves rather with souvenirs of French life than with records of Egyptian days, they are lacking in picturesqueness.

Flaubert's enthusiasm for the sixteenth century gives special interest to an essay on Rabelais among these "mélanges inédits." It is undated, but probably belongs to the author's early years. It is not only a criticism of Rabelais, but of the judgments passed on his work by the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries; thus setting forth its relation to its own age and the following ones with point and vigor. It is a careful study, but not an important one. One of the noteworthy thoughts in it is this: "Great writers are to the world of ideas what capitals are to kingdoms: they receive the influence of every province, of every individuality, and, mingling with this what is personal to themselves and original, they amalgamate it, they arrange it, giving it back transformed into art."

The remaining papers are valueless but powerful fragments from three of the many works Flaubert left in manuscript. Two of these three are dramatic rhapsodies on Death and Sin, Time and Eternity; but there is a list also of some dozen romances and tales, half-a-dozen historical essays, and several other more or less finished performances, all written from 1835 to 1843. It was not till 1857 that 'Madame Bovary' appeared, and though that cost him five years' work and he put an interval of six or seven years between that and each of his two next works, one is curious to know what, besides 'Madame Bovary,' occupied him in the fourteen years between the dates of the last manuscript and the first publication. The forthcoming volumes of his correspondence may perhaps inform us. The precocity of his talent, and at the same time its shrinking from publicity, were almost as striking as its force in maturity; it is evident that the passion for perfection of form, which was his life-long inspiration, moved him from the first. Such a passage as this is certainly remarkable for a youth of twenty years, and it must be remembered that it loses greatly by translation:

"I loved life, but life expansive, radiant, irradiating. I loved it in the wild gallop of horses, in the twinkling of the stars, in the movement of waves flowing toward the shore. I loved it in the throbbing of beautiful naked breasts, in trembling looks of love, in the vibration of the strings of a violin, in the rustling of oak trees, in the setting sun which gilds the windows and carries the thought to the balconies of Babylon, where queens leant and looked upon Asia."

This was his emotion at twenty, and at fifty *this* (in yet more untranslatable phrases):

"As for me, poor wretch, I am glued to the earth as if by leaden sandals; everything agitates me, lacerates me, destroys me, and I vainly strive to climb up higher."

"Sed quia semper aves quod abest, præsentia temnis,
Imperfecta tibi elapsast ingrataque vita."

John de Witt, Grand Pensionary of Holland; or, Twenty Years of a Parliamentary Republic. By M. Antonin Lefèvre-Pontalis. Translated by S. E. and A. Stephenson. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885.

PIETER SIMONS'S work on the Grand Pensionary bears the title, 'Jan de Witt en zijn Tijd'; James Geddes's, 'History of the Administration of John de Witt,' etc.; M. Lefèvre-Pontalis shows by his sub-title still more distinctly that the theme is historical rather than biographical. And yet the Grand Pensionary is not the representative of a government or of a period, but the chief actor in a grand political drama—a leader, a combatant, and a victim. He is a man of surpassing intellect and ability, of indomitable energy and resolution, and of spotless civic virtue; and his end is as tragic as any recorded in history, modern or ancient. What induces his recent biographers to merge his life in his times is in part the scantiness of materials illustrating "the social, non-political, non-official side of him (the human side of him, in short"), as Mr. Geddes expresses it, and in part the ease with which the mountains of documents and correspondence left by him enable his biographers to connect almost every day of his public life with the doings and schemings of the leading statesmen, diplomats, and princes of his age. John de Witt loses in biography, as a striking individuality, by the constant association of his name with Cromwell, Charles II., Louis XIV., and the young William of Orange, whose antagonist he was successively, as well as with the rulers, princely or official, of Spain, Sweden, Denmark, Brandenburg, and the Empire, whose aid he managed to secure for the United Provinces. Besides, the Grand Pensionary was a mighty man of the pen only, and though he did not shrink from risking his life under the naval flag of his republic—when he thought it expedient to follow it as commissioner—his quiet achievements were eclipsed by the deeds of Tromp, of Ruyter, and even of his own brother, Cornelius. No page of the two volumes before us shows John de Witt in as heroic an attitude as that in which Cornelius appears at the side of Ruyter, in the naval battle of Solebay, very shortly before the day (in 1672) on which both brothers were to be torn to pieces by an infuriated mob of Orange men:

"The courage shown by Cornelius de Witt was no less worthy of admiration [than Ruyter's]. Ill, suffering from rheumatic pains in his arms and legs, but triumphing by the strength of his mind over bodily weakness, he took his place close to Ruyter near the helm. Incapable of standing, he had a chair brought to him bearing the arms of the republic, and sat there as if in the seat of government, to give the signal of command and to share at the post of honor the dangers of the crew. In order to represent with dignity the sovereignty of the States General, whose delegate he was, he was escorted by twelve guards carrying halberds; three fell wounded at his feet, three more were killed, and their bodies thrown into the sea. Careless of the balls that were falling round him, having already dedicated his life to the service of his country, he remained calm and immovable on the deck till the close of the day. . . ."

John was no less patriotic and no less firm, but, unfortunately for his stature in a Pantheon, his "diplomatic despatches alone, at three sous a sheet, had in twelve years been worth 4,900 florins to his principal clerk." He was also too economical in the service of the State as in his thrifty household—"the cost of copying . . . he had reduced from four to three sous a page"—too balanced and free from ostentation, too religiously domestic, to make a shining figure. His excellent wife, whom he lost early, and his children reflected in their plainness no lustre upon his home circle. The highest trait in the character of the family was their resignation, in which Roman and Christian fortitude appeared blended. Cornelius, tortured on the rack, shamed his judges into abandoning the false accusation of his having conspired against the Prince of Orange; and when the two brothers were soon after massacred, not only their sister, Johanna de Zwyndrecht, evinced a spirit undisturbed by fear and despair, but her firmness was surpassed by that of Cornelius's widow, Maria Hoeuft.

"The next day, as she was returning to Dordrecht, she met on the boat a passenger just come from the Hague. He had been a witness of the scene, and gave an account of it to the bystanders, winding up by exhibiting a finger which had been cut from Cornelius de Witt's hand.

"Maria, who had listened in silence, advanced towards him, and asked to look at the finger which he was showing. She examined it with reverent attention, and said suddenly, 'This finger was yesterday still on the hand of my beloved husband—I know it well.' At these words the passenger, who had not expected to find himself face to face with the victim's wife, fell down overwhelmed with emotion, and all who were with him on the boat were struck with pity, whilst Maria remained calm and collected in her sorrow."

It should not be inferred from our extracts that the history before us abounds in striking delineations of scenes, situations, and character. Far from it: it is a diplomatic history, full of lengthy and occasionally tedious, though always instructive, accounts of negotiations, debates, and changing political phases, and often overladen with details more apt to obscure than to amplify the narrative—a defect which the work shares with too many historical productions of our time. On the other hand, the French historian of De Witt is fortunately free from his English contemporary's, Geddes's, excessive "lack of enthusiasm for his subject, and the coldness, both of his judgment and diction," which we have had occasion to remark upon before (*Nation*, No 837). M. Lefèvre-Pontalis would never have said, like him, "The period . . . is not an heroic period, and John de Witt is in no sense a hero"; nor, in summing up the main activity of the Grand Pensionary—in opposing the centralization of Dutch power in the hands of an Orange stadtholder—"This surely was poor work, even taking it at its best." He sees in him a statesman who not only faithfully served his country and liberty, but who secured the former a place in the highest rank of European policy, and firmly established the latter—"a man of worth greater than any mere statesmanship, and character higher even than his talents." His work was good, and did not perish with him.

"The ineffaceable traces left by the long ministry of John de Witt were useful in keeping up the fidelity of this attachment to tutelary institutions. The power which he had exercised for twenty years bore without detriment the supreme test by which a good government is recognized, which even after downfall seems to live again in the benefits it confers. Before the United Provinces, threatened with the loss of their independence, had appealed to the Prince of Orange to save them, the Grand Pensionary of Holland had placed them out of the reach of the usurpations of a despotic power by accustoming them to rule themselves."

The Lives of Robert and Mary Moffat. By their son, John S. Moffat. With an introduction by William M. Taylor, D.D. With portraits and maps. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1885. Pp. xix, 484, 8vo.

AMONG the persons sent out by the London Missionary Society to South Africa in the year 1816 was a young Scotch gardener named Moffat. The son of a customs officer in humble circumstances, he was early accustomed to severe toil and privations. The want of a regular education was of little moment, as from a boy "he had a craving, which clung to him through life, to learn something of whatever he came in contact with." After a short delay, the lad (he was but just twenty-one when he landed) was sent to the kraal of the noted outlaw chief Afrikaner, who had for many years been a terror to the colonists, but had now consented to receive a missionary. During the year spent at this station Moffat gained an extraordinary influence over the natives, as well as the strong personal attachment of the chief. This was owing in part to his noble presence, his singularly winning face and manner, but more to the perfectly fearless confidence and honesty with which he treated them. The Government was not slow to recognize this influence, especially after seeing the change wrought upon Afrikaner, whom Moffat had persuaded to accompany him to the Cape, and "imperious" proposals were made to him to become Government missionary to the Kaffirs. This invitation was declined in order that he

might continue the work he had begun among the Bechwanas.

In 1819 he was married to Mary Smith, a daughter of a former employer, and a person admirably fitted to be his companion. Her courage was proof against every danger. Her faith was unfaltering, and her devotion to the missionary work equal to his own. They made their home on the banks of the Kuruman, nearly four hundred miles beyond the then border of the colony, and in a few years, under their fostering care, the desert began literally to "blossom like the rose." The civilizing influence of neat houses, and gardens filled with fruit trees, upon the natives, however, was long unattended by corresponding religious results. The brutish savages, untouched by the devotion of their teachers, seemed deaf to their appeals, and for ten years they labored without a convert. Nevertheless, their confidence in the truth of their Gospel message never wavered. At a time when there was "no glimmer of the dawn," a letter was received from a friend in England "asking if there was anything of use which could be sent." The answer of Mary Moffat was, "Send us a communion service; we shall want it some day." It came three years later, the day before the first converts were baptized. About this time Moffat undertook to provide a literature for his flock, and after thirty years of frequently interrupted labor, he had translated and printed the Bible and several other books in the Bechwana language. He made, also, numerous journeys both to the coast and into the interior, to gain the confidence of the natives, to secure openings for missionary work, to mediate between hostile tribes, and to prevent raids upon the white settlements. These journeys were never unattended by dangers, and were often exceedingly tedious. Twice Mary Moffat was detained more than a month on the banks of the Orange and Vaal Rivers, waiting for the waters to subside sufficiently to permit wagons to cross. Lions were very numerous and bold, besieging the travellers at times and destroying their oxen, while during the journeys into the interior the peril from bands of marauding savages was never absent. It was a trying life, in which the frequent and long separations of husband and wife, and parents and children, were the hardest to bear.

In 1839 a much-needed rest was taken in a visit to England, during which time the New Testament was printed, and Moffat, besides continuing his work of translation and delivering numerous missionary addresses, wrote his 'Labors and Scenes in South Africa.' After four years spent in this manner they returned to their station and were met on the banks of the Vaal by David Livingstone, who "had ridden from Kuruman, a distance of a hundred and fifty miles, to bid them welcome." The references to their future son-in-law are comparatively few, but they are sufficient to show that while the attachment between him and the Moffats was very deep, his giving up the missionary work for that of an explorer was a grief and disappointment to them. Livingstone, on his part, shared in this feeling to such an extent that he supported a missionary, to be his deputy, as it were, out of his own private resources, devoting "more than a fourth of his Government salary to this object." The old life, with its multitude of pursuits, was taken up again. Gordon Cumming, the famous hunter, who passed through Kuruman on his way to the interior, says of Moffat: "Minister, gardener, blacksmith, gunsmith, mason, carpenter, glazier, every hour of the day finds this worthy pastor engaged in some useful employment." The most interesting episode of this part of his life was his third and last visit to the noted chief Mosilikatse, who had conceived an extraordinary affection for him. When he reached the chief's house, Moffat says, "I entered: he grasped my hand, gave one earnest look, and drew his mantle over his face. It would have been an awful sight for his people to see the hero of a hundred fights wipe from his eyes the falling tears. He spoke not, except to pronounce my name, Moshete, again and again. He looked at me again, his hand still holding mine, and he again covered his face."

In 1870, having completed a half century of work in the missionary field, the aged pair returned to England, Mary Moffat to die shortly after she landed, Robert Moffat to receive public honors such as probably no missionary in our time has ever received. The Queen twice sought an interview with him. The University of Edinburgh conferred the degree of D.D., the Corporation of London the freedom of the city upon him. Dean Stanley invited him, a Wesleyan, to speak in Westminster Abbey. The Lord Mayor of London gave him a public breakfast at which the Archbishop of Canterbury made the principal speech. And yet he had done no great work, had made no important discoveries, but had simply devoted his life to the welfare of an obscure tribe of savages. It was the missionary, not the man, whom his countrymen delighted to honor. He died in 1883, in the eighty-eighth year of his age.

The editor of this deeply-interesting biography, the son and successor of Dr. Moffat in his missionary work, has done his part well, though he has passed too briefly over the earlier part of his father's life, under the mistaken impression that his readers would be familiar with it from Dr. Moffat's own account. The burning questions of Cape politics are barely touched upon, but enough is said to show that Dr. Moffat was most strongly opposed to the giving back of the Transvaal to the Boers, and also to the Zulu war. The numerous letters which the editor gives show both his parents to have possessed, in addition to very earnest piety, considerable powers of description as well as a vein of strong common sense. Some of the expressions in them strike us as very felicitous, as, for instance, in speaking of his frequent interruptions, Dr. Moffat says, they "dart on one with the uncertainty of a shooting star, and render the appropriation of time as devious as the flight of the bat." The two maps of South Africa in 1820 and 1884 are very meagre, many of the places referred to in the narrative being left out. It is often difficult on this account to trace Dr. Moffat's journeys into the interior.

New India; or, India in Transition. By H. Y. S. Cotton, Bengal Civil Service. London: Kegan Paul & Co. 1885.

THIS little book is an earnest and well-reasoned plea for the concession of a large measure of political liberty to the people of India; and the argument derives additional weight from the fact that Mr. Cotton is a member of the Anglo-Indian bureaucracy which at present rules over India with virtually irresponsible power. The need for some change must be very urgent, indeed, when a member of the Bengal civil service does not shrink from pressing upon his countrymen the propriety of such radical alterations in the established order of things as are recommended in 'New India.' Of the profound importance of the subject discussed by Mr. Cotton there cannot be two opinions. The problem in process of solution is whether or not it is possible to graft upon Oriental minds the practical capacities of the West, and upon the immobility of Oriental institutions the progressive and adaptive attributes of European civilization. Should this problem be worked out successfully, then there can be little doubt that the new life breathed into the people of India will gradually extend itself over the entire continent. If, on the contrary, the experiment fails here, "the light of Asia" will be, as it were, extinguished.

The great delicacy and difficulty of the existing situation are due to the fact that it is a product of two antagonistic influences which have been operating in British India for the better part of a century. As a result of one of these influences, the British Administration has become more centralized and despotic than before, and, consequently, a great deal less susceptible to the currents of native thought and feeling. As a result of the other, the most energetic, able, and aspiring portion of the people have become inspired with ideas and opinions which cause them to feel an alien despotism as a grievous injustice and an almost intolerable burden. In the earlier days of the East India Company, British power in India was the newly sprung authority of one band of adventurers among many. When Hyder Alee ruled in Seringapatam and the Mahratta Peshwas at Poonah, the struggle for empire was still a doubtful one. Indeed, but for the alliance of other native States, it is not improbable that the company of English merchants might have succumbed to the forces arrayed against it. Such a relationship between the two races had the effect of bringing Englishmen and Indians together upon a footing more nearly approaching equality than has been possible since the former became the one unquestioned and paramount Power throughout the Continent. Then, again, the effect of British rule has been to destroy the ancient aristocracy, and to grind down all classes to one dead level of helplessness and poverty. This levelling down of society consigned the two or three English officers in each district to an almost unbroken solitude, so far as the body of the people was concerned. They were brought into direct contact with the criminal classes, and they maintained of necessity certain formal relations with their own native subordinates; but they lived cut off from all that knowledge of the people and the country which is obtainable only in the free and equal intercourse of private life. It was this long-continued isolation which gave rise to those grotesque conceptions of native character which are prevalent among Englishmen in India, and which have received literary expression in the description of the Bengalese to be found in Lord Macaulay's essay on Warren Hastings. They ascribed to the people in general the same characteristics which most impressed them in the two classes of which alone they had any direct experience. Because the petty native officials, liable to dismissal and ruin at any moment from the caprice or ill-temper of their English superiors, endeavored to secure their position by sycophancy and obsequiousness, therefore manliness and independence of spirit were qualities not to be found anywhere in India. Because the complicated procedure of English law courts fostered a vast amount of perjury in those who had to appear before them, therefore *all* natives, in all relations of life, were wholly actuated by a spirit of lying, treachery, and deceit. These opinions, loudly and repeatedly expressed, had the natural effect of compelling sensitive and self-respecting natives to hold aloof from the society of their English rulers. They could not, in truth, venture into it except at the risk of being grievously insulted. And though few sensible Englishmen, at the present time, continue to speak or to think in this outrageous way, the gulf which was then dug between the two races is still very far from being filled up.

"The really best men," Mr. Cotton says, "among the natives of India who influence opinion and lead society, . . . do not care to make the acquaintance of Government officials

if they can help it, and they do not thrust themselves on the Government. . . . Englishmen hear little of them, and the Government, as a rule, knows them not, but their names are household words among the homes of the people."

These leaders of the people are at present a rapidly increasing class, owing to the spread of English education. No one at all acquainted with the Indians can doubt the activity and acuteness of their minds; and when Western knowledge was placed within their reach, they devoted themselves to its acquisition with a passionate eagerness. But, as Mr. Cotton has acutely pointed out, this Western knowledge did a great deal more for the people of India than inspiring their leading spirits with new political ideas and methods of language. It provided them with a common language, and, in so doing, removed the great impediment which checked the growth of a national feeling:

"No other bond of unity was possible; the confusion of tongues was an insuperable obstacle. But now the English language is established as the channel through which the fire worshippers of Bombay and the Baboos of Bengal, the Brahmins of Madras and the Mahrattas of Poona, the Pathans and Rajpoots of Upper India, and the Tamil and Telugu-speaking races of the other extreme end of the peninsula, are able to meet on one common platform, and to give expression to their common interests and aspirations. . . . A quarter of a century ago there was no trace of this; the idea of any Bengalee influence in the Punjab would have been a conception incredible to Lord Lawrence. Yet it is the case that during the past year the tour of a Bengalee lecturer, lecturing in English, assumed the character of a triumphal progress; and at the present moment the name of Surendro Nath Banerjea excites as much enthusiasm among the rising generation of Moultan as in Dacca."

Here, then, are the two antagonists who must be induced to work together in harmony if the structure of British power in India is not to be shattered by internal revolution. On the one side there is a ruling caste of foreigners who have hitherto enjoyed a monopoly of place and power, and a complete immunity from criticism; on the other, a yearly increasing proportion of the subject people whose intellect, ambition, and independence of spirit have been trained, educated, and equipped with appropriate weapons by the ruling caste itself. By the educated natives themselves there is nothing more earnestly deprecated than a violent solution of this difficulty; and so long as they retain their ascendancy over their countrymen, internal peace and order are secure. But unless the Anglo-Indian bureaucracy is prepared to surrender a portion of its power, there must come a time when this ascendancy will be snatched from them to pass into the possession of more daring and adventurous spirits. And so far, all the indications show that nothing short of compulsion will persuade the bureaucracy to yield one jot or one tittle of its authority. Again and again, in royal proclamation and Parliamentary resolution, has the principle been affirmed that the service of the state in India is to be thrown open to all British subjects, without regard to their race, color, or religion; but they are uttered to deaf ears so far as the ruling bureaucracy is concerned. The pledges thus solemnly given to the people of India remain unredeemed to this day, and will remain so forever, until some force is applied to the English in India which they are unable to resist. If the nation at home fails to apply that pressure there, it will certainly, sooner or later, be applied after a very destructive fashion by the people of India.

Mr. Cotton urges upon his countrymen to be wise in time. They profess to have been educating the people of India for the duties and responsibilities of self-government. The period of education he considers to be now past, and the time to have arrived for fulfilling, at any rate in part, the hopes and the promises which have been held out to them. The future of India, he is of opinion, will be a federation of independent States cemented together by the power of England; and it is toward that issue that English effort in India should be directed:

"Years must elapse, generations may pass away, before we can expect the consummation of the policy I advocate. But it is a policy which we should always keep before our eyes, to which all our efforts should converge. Sooner or later India must again take her old rank among the nations of the East, and all our action should be devoted to facilitating her progress to freedom. Not in mere vague talk, but strenuously and of set purpose, it should be the principal object of our Indian Government to address itself to the peaceful liquidation of its concerns, and the reconstruction of native administrations in its own place."

Traité d'Épigraphie Grecque. Par Salomon Reinach. Paris: E. Leroux. 1885.

THE last few years have been marked by an increased attention to epigraphy. Of the importance of epigraphic studies there has never been any question among scholars, but the interest has been much heightened of late years, so that the caution which Dr. Jowett expressed in his 'Thucydides,' that "in any sound study of ancient Greek inscriptions we must be prepared for slender results," grated harshly on a large class of enthusiasts. This increased interest is due to increased exploration. Without exploration there can be no deep professional interest, no contagious enthusiasm. The palæographer and the textual critic need not be one, but without palæographic vision the textual critic is sure to flounder. So the multiplication of explorers has greatly increased the number and zeal of the students of epigraphy. The inspection of the monuments themselves gives a sense of immediateness that nothing else can give. It is one thing to read in Grote of the famous inscription which commemorates the citizens of "the Erechtheid tribe who were slain in one and the same year in Cyprus, Egypt, Phœnicia, the Halieis, Ægina, and Megara"; another thing to be brought face to face with the stone itself in a corner of the Louvre. But wholly apart from this intangible and imponderable element, the value of inscriptions has never been so much appreciated as it is to-day for the fruitful study of morphology and phonology; and the testimony of the stones is the most important testimony we can have as to the life of the classic languages, especially of Greek. And though it must be confessed that it is hard to read anything into or out of many inscriptions, the most insignificant fragment may contain a most momentous fact for the student of dialect, of lexiology. Ephebic inscriptions are not exhilarating: the lesson they convey is soon learned, and the official style of Egyptian Greek soon ceases to amuse; but, as if to reward the zeal of the modern epigraphist, new treasures are always turning up, as, for instance, the great find at Gortyn in Crete, which is fresh in the memory of our readers, and which is as full of interest for the student of law as for the student of Greek life and language. Americans have not been content to be passive recipients of European learning and research in this province, and no book on Greek epigraphics is complete without a reference to the work of the Assos expedition, to the explorations of Doctor Sterrett, to the interpretations of Professor Merriam and Professor Allen.

Once, in order to get a notion of Greek inscriptions, it was necessary to handle the ponderous tomes of Boeckh's monumental work, and it is still true that no compendium can ever take the place of the publications of the Berlin Academy. All students—yes, even beginners—should be encouraged to make themselves personally acquainted with the great folios of erudition as well as with the manifold handy books that meet the immediate need. And yet manuals are necessary for daily use, and Cauer and Dittenberger and Kaibel and Roehl and Hicks and Collitz and his associates have made admirable collections from different points of view. Of books for reading, for practice, there is no immediate lack. What M. Reinach has undertaken to supply in the present volume is a work that shall replace the 'Elementa' of Franz—an admirable treatise, which unfortunately has become rare, and which in the advance of epigraphic knowledge and of epigraphic appliances has also become in a measure antiquated, though it is much to be doubted whether a good book ever becomes really obsolete. M. Reinach tells us that the famous epigraphists of Europe have declined the task; they have not dared put to the touch "the reputation slowly acquired by monographs that have been more praised than perused." And so he has come to the rescue. As he well says, a man who published a Manual of Classical Philology at twenty-one cannot plead modesty at twenty-seven, and so we have the 'Traité d'Épigraphie Grecque'—not only a work of astounding industry of the bibliographical sort (M. Reinach has prepared us for being astounded), but a book full of life and freshness. We are not always ferreting among dusty periodicals and forgotten magazines; we are not always straining our eyes over faint photographs and unsatisfactory squeezes. We are in the free air, climbing ruins, wading mill-races, liberating the fine old stone from a coat of envious plaster, or cajoling some secretive Greek or speculative Turk to guide us to the hiding-place of some epigraphic beauty. M. Reinach, to be sure, does not go into the details that make Schliemann's narrative so quaintly personal, but we feel everywhere that we are favored with the bright presence of a man who has lived what he writes.

After a fairly long introduction, in which he gives an account of the *raison d'être* and plan of the book and a general letter of instructions to the beginner in epigraphic exploration and study, M. Reinach presents us in two chapters with a translation of Mr. Newton's admirable Essay on Greek Inscriptions, accompanied with many notes of his own, which bring the bibliography down to the most recent times. Then follows M. Reinach's own special contribution, entitled "Traité des Inscriptions et des Formules," in five chapters, comprising the history of the Greek alphabet, the orthography and grammar of the inscriptions, inscriptions in general, public acts, miscellaneous and private inscriptions, a chapter of miscellanies on eras, names, and the like, with addenda and corrigenda, in which the latest numbers of European and American journals are diligently used.

This is not the place for detailed criticism of a work which, by its very nature, presents numberless points on which malignity might fasten. How is it possible that a false date, a false reference should not have crept in, that some Dryasdust memoir should not have been overlooked? It is a book for which all those who need guidance will be duly grateful, and not least for the sharp tone in which the author summons the goodly fellowship of epigraphists to the manifest though painful duty of appending translations to the inscriptions which they publish. The omission of such translations, he says, "is a very bad habit, which leads many people to publish what they do not understand, and to dwell in their commentaries only on those passages which they can make out. Nothing is omitted except the difficulties, and as these are passed over adroitly in silence, the kind reader who does not understand imagines either that he is very ignorant or that the editor is more erudite than himself." It is the old evil of school editions of the classics transplanted

to a higher sphere, and M. Reinach does well to expose it.

Institutes of Logic. By John Veitch, LL.D., Professor of Logic and Rhetoric in the University of Glasgow. Edinburgh: William Blackwood & Sons. 1885. 8vo, pp. 551.

THE first question that a man should ask himself when he thinks of writing a book on logic is, Have I thoroughly comprehended my Mill? Whoever does not know that Mill has done more than any other writer since Aristotle to rescue logic from the charge of being too useless and too puerile to deserve the name of science, can hardly hope to write a book that shall be worth the writing. Whoever thinks that what Mill has had to say on most of the subjects of logical discussion is both foolish and unimportant, will have to contend against a pretty strong presumption in the mind of his readers that a great part of his own book will turn out to be unimportant and foolish, if nothing worse.

Mr. Veitch presents a mind of curious quality: the psychologists would find it an interesting study. It is remarkable that the same man should be able to point out the secret of Hegel's contradictions so clearly as he has done, and to make, himself, so many plain and simple errors. He says: "What appears to sense may be affirmed as a sensible fact and denied as a transcendental or supersensible fact. . . . Vacillation in regard to the sphere of the affirmation and negation is at the root of most of the current Hegelian fallacies. Their apparent profundity is only lack of transparency." This is admirably stated. Mr. Veitch's contributions to logic are not equally forcible.

Most people will think twice before they allow themselves to suppose that they have discovered a new form of syllogism; the antecedent probability of accomplishing that feat is about as great as that of pointing out a hitherto unnoticed sun in the heavens. Mr. Veitch offers this (in the negative form) as his discovery—he has named it the Syllogism of Collection: "The crops this season are not good in quality, the crops this season are not good in quantity; therefore the crops this season are not good in either quality or quantity." "This," he says, "is a perfectly simple form of reasoning in common use, though not fitting into any of the received formulæ—nay, in the negative form even apparently violating the rule against two negative premises." After this, one is anxious to know what Mr. Veitch supposes syllogism to be. This is the way he gives his definition: "It is that I have two propositions—not one merely, as in the case of immediate inference—and out of these two I not only get, but I am obliged to get, a third." In this he puts in an unessential feature of syllogism and leaves out an essential one. No one is obliged to draw any conclusion at all from two premises. It may not occur to him to see what can be said without reference to the middle term. If any one asks him the question, or if it enters his mind of its own accord, the conclusion, it is true, is forced upon him, but no more so than in immediate inference. Can any one refrain from admitting that if the moon is not made of cheese, it is, all the more, not made of green cheese, if the idea has once entered his head? The essence of syllogism—what Mr. Veitch has omitted to notice—lies in the fact that it accomplishes the elimination of a term common to the two premises, and enables one, by dropping half the information which the premises together contained, to preserve the remaining half in a form convenient for use. What Mr. Veitch calls a new syllogism, logicians consider to be a grammatical device for saying in one sentence what might be said in two.

Mr. Veitch shows as little skill in dealing with the theory as with the form of syllogism. He fails to see the *petitio principii* which every syllogistic argument contains. He says, "May I not know that all mineral acids are poisons without knowing that salt is a mineral acid?" Certainly you cannot, is the easy reply. Suppose salt turns out to be a mineral acid and not to be a poison: what becomes of your too hasty generalization then? It is not without the aid of some misrepresentation that he finds Mill so often "ludicrous" and "ridiculous." Mill shows that the conclusion gives nothing that is not given in the two premises. Veitch says (p. 377) that it is absurd of Mill to think that the conclusion gives nothing that is not given in *one* premise.

Any one who can devote eighty weary pages to moods and figures, and forty to the quantification of the predicate, will not be expected to have much that is luminous to say on the difficult subject of induction. To Mr. Veitch it appears that the canons exert a weak and unsteady influence compared with formal logic, that they cannot for a moment be placed on the same high level with the laws of thought. That may be true, but the fact remains that children seldom make mistakes in syllogism, and that the wisest may be grateful for any real guidance in the art of making general propositions. Induction, Mr. Veitch thinks, is but a poor process, necessarily imperfect, and Mr. Jevons, he says, has amply endorsed this view. It is no doubt a great pity that the Creator of the universe did not send down a copy of its laws ready made. We should have been spared an endless amount of trouble, and we should never have been plunged into that deep gulf of uncertainty from which we have now no hope of escape. As it is, however, perhaps our wisest plan is to make our poor little craft as seaworthy as possible, and not to waste our time in sighing for other worlds than the world in which our unhappy lot is cast.

An Atlas of Practical Elementary Biology. 4to, 24 plates, with explanatory text. With a preface by Professor Huxley, P.R.S. Macmillan. 1885.

LIKE McAlpine's 'Biological Atlas,' this work has special reference to Huxley and Martin's 'Elementary Biology,' the usefulness of which, as frankly admitted by Professor Huxley in his preface, has been greatly interfered with by the absence of illustrations. The twenty-four plates represent the principal features of the anatomy, histology, and development of the frog, crayfish, earthworm, snail, mussel, hydra, unicellular organisms (vorticella, amœba, protococcus, yeast plant, and bacterioid), fungi, stoneworts, fern, and several flowering plants. As compared with McAlpine, the figures are more elaborate, more numerous—somewhat crowded, indeed, on certain plates—and, upon the whole, more accurate, though not free from error. They are not so readily understood by the student, because uncolored and less distinct in outline, and because the parts are designated by abbreviations instead of the entire names, and the explanatory text does not face the plates. The directions and descriptions are more extended, and there is a very complete bibliography of manuals and original papers upon the forms treated of.

In connection with works like the present, there arise three questions, here stated in an order inversely to that of their comprehensiveness: What "forms of life" should be selected for elementary study? In what order should they be taken up? At what stage ought such instruction to be given? Conceding that the vertebrates are to have but a single representative, it should probably be an amphibian; but the structure of the frog is so exceptional in many respects, that it is to be hoped that efforts may be made to introduce into biology-studying countries the more generalized Necturus of North America. Theoretically, the lowest forms should be considered first, and perhaps they might be practically if the Amœba and yeast plant were large and easily handled. Again: since, upon the whole, vegetable organisms are lower than animal, plants might be taken up first. But, finally, a vertebrate with limbs and distinct head is readily comparable with the human body, and is therefore easier to begin with. It is to be noted that the 'Elementary Biology' and 'McAlpine' begin with the unicellular organisms and end with the frog, while the present work, presumably with the approval of Huxley himself, presents the forms in the order given in the early part of this notice.

At present—in this country, at least—work like that implied in this atlas is only provided for in colleges. But the college professor, even when his chair is nominally that of "Biology," is almost inevitably a botanist or a zoölogist. If a practical knowledge of organic types could be gained in the schools—and without encouraging the student to regard himself as a "biologist" on that account—it would be an advantage in several directions which cannot be particularized here.

Songs from the Novelists, from Elizabeth to Victoria. Edited, with an introduction and notes, by William Davenport Adams. London: Ward & Downey; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1885.

MR. DAVENPORT ADAMS has prepared as interesting an anthology as we have seen for several years. He acknowledges in his introduction that his work was suggested by Bell's well-known collection of 'Songs from the Dramatists.' This stopped with Sheridan, although there are not a few songs of the later dramatists which deserve inclusion—the "Wearing of the Green" from Mr. Boucicault's 'Arrah-na-Pogue,' for instance, and "If my Glances have Betrayed Me," from Robertson's 'Ours.' Mr. Adams, beginning quite as far back as Bell, has brought his collection down to date—at least he has thought best to extract and preserve certain alleged songs by certain of the distinctly third-rate British story-makers of our own time. But in general his choice has been as commendable as his research has been wide. He begins with Sir Philip Sidney, Robert Greene, and Thomas Lodge. Then he moves along to Fielding, Richardson, Smollett, and Goldsmith. Scott brings us into the present century, where the name of the novelist is Legion and the songs of the novelists are abundant. It is not a little surprising, even to one whose business it is to be well read in English fiction, to see how many familiar songs are embedded in equally familiar tales. Goldsmith's "Elegy on a Mad Dog" and "When Lovely Woman Stoops to Folly" are both in the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' "Gaffar Gray" is in the 'Hugh Trevor' of the revolutionary Thomas Holcroft; Lover's "Widow Machree" and Lever's "Widow Malone" are both to be found first in their Irish stories; in a novel Lever put his version of the "Pope of Rome," another version of which was made by Thackeray, and in a novel Thackeray put his "Ho, pretty page with dimpled chin"; "A place in the memory, dearest," is said or sung in Gerald Griffin's 'Collegians,' from which Mr. Boucicault was to borrow the 'Colleen Bawn,' without even changing the names of the characters; and "O, Mary, go and call the cattle home," made its first appearance in Charles Kingsley's 'Alton Locke.' Omissions there are not a few, for in declaring the text of an anthology like this every man may make his own canon. For example, we may ask in vain for the jolly song in Mr. Walter Besant's 'Readymoney Mortiboy,' or for the tender lyric in his later historical novel,

'Dorothy Forster'; and we may wonder at the omission of the pretty verses in 'Their Wedding Journey.'

The songs are arranged in what seems to be a sort of irregular chronological sequence—by the death dates of the authors—and so not altogether happily. There is a detailed table of contents and a final table of first lines; there are excerpts from the novels to explain the circumstances of the story in which they were supposed to be sung, and these appear as foot-notes; and in an appendix there are such other and more ample explanatory notes as were called for.

Madame Mohl. Her Salon and her Friends. A Study of Social Life in Paris. By Kathleen O'Meara. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1886.

To say that this is an extremely interesting book would be faint praise. Perhaps no one has an easier task, in entertaining the reader, than the author who writes of people who spent their lives in making life socially agreeable in a brilliant sphere; and, indeed, one must be very ill-furnished with taste and discretion to make any account of the famous salons stupid. In the case of Mme. Mohl, there is a good deal to give special character to the old story of the evenings of the conversationalists. In particular, she was an English woman, and the eccentricity of the race was markedly developed in her. She was, in fact, a character, and the frankness of her expression gave full effect to her peculiarities. It was not merely in her dress, which seems to have been frightful, nor her deportment, which was often surprising, but in her qualities, that her originality was most pronounced. The secret of the attraction which gathered about her for so many years the intellectual society that was at Paris, either permanently or temporarily, is not easily discovered; and those who submitted to the charm gave the most diverse accounts of its power. It is not unlikely that from the time when she alone could chase the *ennui* from Chateaubriand's old age, to that when the venerable Thiers confessed to her that he was her too timid lover in his student days, the fascination passed through many changes; yet the testimony is strong that it never failed. She had prejudices, as was proper to her island extraction, and these led her into the most inexcusable rudenesses, as in her notorious insult to Ristori, though this was unpremeditated; but she does not seem to have had ideas, nor are any witty sayings of hers remembered. In herself she was very variously compounded, and not a few disagreeable traits entered into her personality: clearly she was mistress of the art of displeasing. In the midst of the piquant anecdotes and situations which enliven the volume, one finds that his sense of comedy is not infrequently appealed to—not ungraciously, but greatly to the damage of Mme. Mohl's dignity. In spite of all faults, she maintained her empire; and her affections, which were quick, strong, and faithful, bound to her some of the most distinguished of her contemporaries. She would not have been the Englishwoman without this strength of heart in conjunction with her force and oddities of character. Her old age is presented as singularly devoid of charm. Generally speaking, the lines of the portrait are drawn too much from her later years; but it is extraordinarily lifelike, and a valuable addition to the salon gallery.

What We Really Know about Shakespeare. By Mrs. Caroline Healey Dall. Boston: Roberts Bros.

THIS tasteful volume is issued as a popular handbook of the results of scholarly research into the facts of Shakspere's life. One-half of it is occupied by an "outline biography," made up of the documentary evidence in regard to the Shakspere's station in life, business transactions, and family affairs, in which the only novelty one remarks is the certainty with which the author "feels" that Shakspere was on the Continent from 1587 to 1592. The rest of the volume is filled with a bundle, rather than an arrangement, of abstracts, notes, tables, quotations, etc., which involve some repetition. The entire book contains, in one place or another, mention of about every document or contemporary reference having relation to the poet, and a large part of the references to him in the literature of the next century; and is a sort of digest of the special scholar's volumes of Halliwell-Phillipps and of Ingleby's 'Centurie of Prayse,' to which Mrs. Dall makes no secret of her indebtedness. With regard to this she says in her prefatory declaration: "As my outline pretends to little originality, I have not paused to use quotation marks, even when I use the very words of better authorities." The book is really aimed at the "Baconians," and is meant to show that Shakspere was a man of substance, position, and character, incapable of such a part as is assigned him by the adherents of Bacon. But those who are blind enough to be "Baconians" are deaf to argument, and lack indeed no deficiency except the sole one that would grace them—to be dumb. This publication is really serviceable as a book of reference, a kind of encyclopædia of the facts of Shakspere's life, so strangely heterogeneous and disconnected.

Rocky Mountain Botany. Manual of the Botany of the Rocky Mountain Region, from New Mexico to the British Boundary. By John M. Coulter, Ph.D., Professor of Botany in Wabash College, and Editor of the *Botanical Gazette.* Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. 1885.

THIS is an offset, as it were, of Gray's 'Manual,' planted in the virgin soil of the Western Plains and the Rocky Mountains. It was much wanted and is to be of great use—first, to the botanists of this newly settled but now populous region, and to the many tourists who visit the mountains in summer; next, to the schools and colleges which are springing up in all the principal places. All these scattered folk are like sheep without a botanical shepherd when they get beyond the range of Gray's 'Manual,' and so it is needful and most fitting that they should have a manual of their own. This which is now provided for them will be all the more natural and convenient for being conducted, as it is, on the lines of the familiar model, both in substance and in typography. And we note one decided improvement, in that—the flora of the region being still so largely in the state of nature, and the introduced weeds few—the author has kept the intruders out of the body of his fair pages, relegating them to foot-notes. We wonder there are so few of them; indeed, we suspect that their presence has in a degree been ignored. But the unwelcome foreigners are coming nevertheless; and by the time the second edition is called for, like the "tall buttercups" which an English poetess sings, "they will be seen, whether we will or nay." Still, as long as we can have a flora of pure native Americans, let us enjoy it.

The present work, which, so far as we can judge, seems very well done, comes naturally from Professor Coulter. He was the author, conjointly with Professor Porter, of a synopsis of the flora of Colorado, which was published ten years ago as one of the Hayden Geological Reports, has been in great demand, and has long been out of print. So that, as the preface states, "in the wonderful development of the decade since then lies the confidence that a more convenient book, covering a greater range, will be welcome to many."

French Student and Self-Instructor, and Ready Speaker Assistant. By Alfred Sardou. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.

ALTHOUGH as a rule the various "Self-Instructors" in the modern languages are merely catch-pennies for the ignorant, an exception must be made in favor of the work before us. In spite of the awkward title and overcharged title-page, the book is what it professes to be, a complete and condensed method for beginners as well as for advanced pupils. Of course the author has been obliged to have recourse to some method of transcription for the French sounds. Those who know how difficult it is to transmit or to acquire these even with all the help of oral instruction, may smile to see "Vous ne voulez pas de pommes de terre" represented by *Voon—voo-lay pahd pom duh tair;* but it must be admitted that M. Sardou has done his best to overcome the impossible. He is careful throughout in his representation of the unaccented *e*, and of the linkings and grouping of words. The treatment of the pure diphthongs, in such words as *bien, juin,* is not quite satisfactory. The book is in five parts, bound in three volumes, but it very much needs an index to make it really useful to an unaided learner. The grammatical portions are clear and the diagrams well arranged. The conversational parts are progressive and comprehensive, with an extensive, well-chosen vocabulary, graceful and varied constructions, useful phrases, interesting allusions to Paris, and incidental explanations of French customs.

Our Young Folks' History of the Roman Empire. By William Shepard. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1885. 8vo, pp. 478.

MR. SHEPARD has told the story of the Roman Empire in a manner well adapted to interest the young people for whom his book is designed. He has the art of entertaining without sacrificing the "dignity of history"—a quality which is worth maintaining, after all. The book is excellently printed, too, in good clear type; but we cannot praise the illustrations, very few of which have any historical merit. They are for the most part "made-up" pictures, composed with neither knowledge nor imagination. In this the book is neither worse nor better than most histories written for the young. We shall continue to protest against this style of illustration—which does not illustrate—until publishers begin to have some conception of what their duty is in the matter. The account given by Mr. Shepard is for the most part the traditionary one, and does not indicate any familiarity with the latest results of scholarship. We would not, of course, burden a book for children with the details of recondite learning; but even children have a right to be told the truth, and not to be put off with exploded fables. They ought not, for instance, to be told (p. 44) of Tiberius that "he was mean and cruel, and wicked enough to sacrifice anybody that stood in the way of his ambition. But he knew how to hide his real character under a cloak of pretended meekness and humility." Now Tiberius was not mean, but throughout his reign displayed a wise liberality. Neither was there any pretence of meekness in him—humility, perhaps, whether pretended or not we will not undertake to say. Even cruelty, as a characteristic, it is hardly fair to attribute to a man who displayed no traces of it up to the age of nearly seventy. The summing up of Tiberius's character (p. 91), and the comparison of him with Augustus, are on the whole very fair. But the statement (p. 44) that Agrippa Postumus (not *Posthumus*) was slain by his order, has not a particle of evidence in its favor. The word *princeps,* spelled correctly on page 27, is three times printed *principus* on page 68. On the same page

it is incorrectly stated that the Senate wished to call Tiberius *Dominus*. On page 284 Ctesiphon is spelled Otesiphon.

First Year of Scientific Knowledge. By Paul Best. Pp. 344. 8vo. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.; New York: Christern. 1885.

THE well-known French ex-Minister of Public Instruction owes much of his popular reputation to a little book which he prepared on the rudiments of Natural History and what used to be called Natural Philosophy, for the use of children. This book, we are informed, is in use in all French schools of the lower grades, and many editions have been sold. An English edition has been issued, printed in France, and translated by Mme. Bert, who is a Scotchwoman. For children and beginners in general it is, of course, necessary to sketch such matters in broad outlines without regard to minor detail. This being understood, we find the book well adapted in plan and contents for its purpose. It treats of animals, plants, stones, and soils, elementary physics and chemistry, animal and, lastly, vegetable physiology. It is clearly printed and fully illustrated. It will require a certain amount of intelligence in the teacher, whose relation, in French schools, to his scholars is more intimate than in most of our public grammar schools; but there is nothing which is not clearly set forth, and nothing to which the most fastidious could take exception. The illustrations are good, but so small that some of them are rather obscure. The translation is now and then defective in giving the French rather than the real English equivalent for a French word, but not sufficiently so to constitute a serious fault. We have no work which fills the place this is intended for, and should be glad to see this one in general use.

Elementary Algebra for Schools. Hall and Knight. Macmillan. 1885. Pp. 308.

THE authors of this book have had an experience of twelve years in fitting pupils for the army and university examinations, and the result is that they are convinced that algebra can be most easily studied in an order different from the most logical order. There is always a strong presumption that a subject will be most readily taken in by a youthful mind in the order in which it actually had its rise. Algebra was from the beginning the science of the equation. Complicated operations in fractions and in factoring were only subsidiary to the solution of the equation; there is no reason why they should be forced upon the rebellious student at a time when he sees no reason for their existence. We have no doubt that these authors are quite right in putting the easy and interesting parts of algebra first, and that the student will make quite the most rapid progress in this way. His tender reasoning powers, which have remained wholly unexercised in arithmetic as usually taught, should not be subjected to too sudden and severe a strain when he first enters upon a real branch of mathematics.

The book contains an excellent collection of examples—3,500 in number.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bert, Paul. First Year of Scientific Knowledge. Translated from the French by the author's wife. London: Reife Bros.
Feich, I. K. Poultry Culture. Chicago: W. H. Harrison, jr. $1.50.
Frank, H. The Skeleton and the Rose, and Gems by the Wayside. Brentano Bros.
Murray, J. E. Essential Lessons in English Composition, Analysis, and Grammar. Philadelphia: J. E. Potter & Co. 75 cents.
Morison, J. C. Madame de Maintenon: An Étude. Scribner & Welford. 50 cents.
O'Meara, Kathleen. Madame Mohl: Her Salon and her Friends. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.50.
Robertson, C. F. The Louisiana Purchase in its Influence upon the American System. [Papers of the American Historical Association. Vol 1. No. 4.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Saintsbury, G. Marlborough. [English Worthies Series. Edited by Andrew Lang.] D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Savage, M. J. Evolution and Religion from the Standpoint of one who Believes in Both. Philadelphia: G. H. Buchanan & Co. 25 cents.
Scott, Sir W. The Talisman. Edited by Dwight Holbrook. [Classics for Children.] Boston: Ginn & Co. 60 cents.
Scherer, W. A History of German Literature. Translated from the Third German edition by Mrs. F. C. Conybeare. Edited by Max Müller. Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols. $3.50.
Smith, W. R. Kinship and Marriage in Early Arabia. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Schücking, L. Lebenserinnerungen. 2 vols. Leipzig: S. Schottlaender.
Sidgwick, H. The Scope and Method of Economic Science. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Shedd, W. G. T. The Doctrine of Endless Punishment. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Stebbins, Genevieve. Delsarte System of Dramatic Expression. E. S. Werner. $2.
Stephen, L. Life of Henry Fawcett. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Stickney, J. H. A Child's Version of Æsop's Fables. Classics for Children. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.
Stephen, Leslie. Dictionary of National Biography, Vol. V. Macmillan & Co. $3.35.
Stevenson, R. L. Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Spencer, Herbert. Ecclesiastical Institutions; Part IV. of the Principles of Sociology. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Sorel, A. L'Europe et la Révolution française. Paris: Plon; Boston: Schoenhof.
Stryker, M. W. Christian Chorals for the Chapel and Fireside. Biglow & Main.
Tate, T. The Philosophy of Education, or the Principles and Practice of Teaching. E. L. Kellogg & Co.
Tennyson, Lord. Tiresias, and Other Poems. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Thayer, S. H. Songs of Sleepy Hollow, and Other Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Thayer, S. H. Songs of Sleepy Hollow. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Thompson, Sir H. Food and Feeding. 4th ed. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.
The Broken Shaft: Tales in Mid-Ocean. Edited by Henry Norman. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Varley, J. P. Sylvian, a Tragedy; and Poems. Brentano Bros. $1.25.
Worthington, Sophie. Under the Apple Trees. Phillips & Hunt. $1.
Waite, H. R. College Songs. Boston: Oliver Ditson & Co.
Walker, J. S. Landlords' and Tenants' Guide for New York: Walker & Co. 50 cents.
Werkmeister, Maria. Vergebens: A Romance. Chicago: The Franz Gindele Printing Co.
Zeller, Dr. E. Outlines of the History of Greek Philosophy. Translated. Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.

Fine Arts.

AMERICAN WATER-COLOR SOCIETY.

THE Water-Color Exhibition is always one of the pleasantest picture shows of the year, and the nineteenth annual exhibition, now open at the National Academy, is no exception to the rule. The white and gold frames and the pale colors are always agreeable in general effect; and, for the same reason that it is almost impossible for any work, however good, to detach itself from the others and make a powerful effect, it is equally difficult for any work, however bad, to impose its badness upon one in the imperious fashion of some bad oil pictures. There is a common notion that water-color painting is an easier art than painting in oil, which is expressed in the old rhyme:

> La peinture à l'huile
> Est bien difficile,
> Mais c'est beaucoup plus beau
> Que la peinture à l'eau.

But the truth is that the facility of water-color is in its difficulty. The difficulty of attaining full tone or elaborate modelling in water-color approaches impossibility, and the result is that, when they are wise, water-color painters hardly attempt these qualities at all, but confine themselves to the rapid and facile sketching which is easily within the powers of the material. For the greater number there is safety in this limitation of aims, and therefore, while one seldom sees a very impressive work in an exhibition of water colors, one is seldom shocked by the atrocity of failure attained by bad painters in oil.

These remarks apply more particularly to pure wash drawing, or what is generally known as "legitimate water color," and less strictly to gouache or distemper. Why these latter are more or less "legitimate" modes of working it is hard to see, but they are different, and have only deadness of surface, and consequent paleness of color, in common with pure water color. The most prominent examples of opaque water-color work in the present exhibition are certainly Mr. Chase's two large distemper paintings. One hears some murmuring against them as not "legitimate" water colors, but surely, if Mr. Chase finds the material suited to his aims, he has a perfect right to employ it, and since there is no special exhibition for works in gouache and distemper it would seem that the hanging committee have done well to stretch a point, rather than to deprive the public of a view of two works of such importance. The larger of the two, "A Summer Afternoon in Holland," is one of the very best things Mr. Chase has done, and, apart from some questionable drawing in hands and ankles, is almost entirely satisfactory. The justness of observation and sureness of eye and hand displayed in it are quite wonderful, and as a study of light (and that is undoubtedly what Mr. Chase intended it for) it would be hard to imagine it bettered. The absolute truth of relation between the broad shadow and the glowing spots of sunlight, and the dazzling play of reflections among the tea-things, are specially remarkable, and scarcely less so is the translucent green of the foliage overhead. Mr. Chase's other contribution, the "Madrid Dancing-Girl," is much less interesting, having little of the swing and movement that the subject requires, and comparatively little charm of color. Is it possible that at its perspective distance the fan upon the stool (or is it a table?) should appear so large?

If these are the most important examples of opaque water color in the exhibition, Mr. Abbey's "Old Song" is certainly the most important example of transparent water color to be found there. It is Mr. Abbey's "old song"—the song we all know so well and do not tire of—full of gentle refinement and sweetness, and only better sung than ever. Mr. Abbey is evidently constantly increasing in technical mastery, and apart from its beauty as a picture this is as fine a piece of water-color painting as one could wish to see.

An importance of another sort, the importance of a very celebrated name, belongs to Detaille's large military picture — an importance only partially justified by the actual performance. The composition is confused, the color unpleasant, and the values are non-existent. There are many things in the exhibition by young Americans which are better in everything but drawing than the work of this too celebrated Frenchman. His drawing is indeed sound and good, but even that is somewhat uninteresting and mechanical, and he seems to owe his fame largely to the choice of subject which flatters French pride and love of military glory.

There are 846 numbers in the catalogue, and it is inevitable that in reviewing such a mass of work one should have many sins of omission to answer for. Abandoning any attempt at much system, we will note here and there such works as for any reason have attracted our attention.

Mr. Weir has six contributions in the exhibition, mostly flower pieces in his well-known manner. They are, as ever, very handsome in sober tone—exquisite in color, though approaching almost to black and white—and they are also, as ever, rather formless. One could desire to see flowers better drawn, but scarcely to see them better painted.

Mr. Murphy has a number of his facile and not very profound landscapes, of which perhaps the best is entitled "November." The distance in this picture contains more nature than most of his work, and is very handsome in color, but the left-hand side of the picture is decidedly artificial. To the artificial style of landscape belong also Mr. Crane's numerous contributions, with their thin trees which grow altogether too

cleverly. Mr. Bolton Jones has a landscape of his usual type, well and solidly done, without much emotion; and Mr. Tryon, a quiet-toned "November," which, while it will not add to his reputation, will take nothing from it. Other landscapes we have noticed are a charming, tapestry-like little picture by Mrs. S. N. Carter; a queer, dark little "Woods Near Cedarhurst," by Oliver H. Perry, which would give more assurance of talent if its companion were not so bad; a couple of gray, pastel-like compositions by C. Melville Dewey; a quiet "Evening," by W. Dodge MacKnight; a handsome black-and-yellow "Low Tide," by Ross Turner; a good little "Moonlight," by W. A. Coffin, in the vein of an oil picture recently seen at the Union League Club; a good, low-toned "Sandy Hook," by G. H. McCord; a strange black and green picture, by B. R. Fitz; a "May Twilight," with a white heifer in it, by C. Morgan McIlhenney; a vague and misty "Morning in Acadia," by Horatio Walker, very handsome; the "Bank of the Georges River," by Charles Copeland; a "Water-Mill," by Edward A. Bell, and several drawings by William J. Whittemore.

Mr. Smedley has two figure subjects, entitled respectively "June" and "November," which are marked by his usual quiet refinement, but perhaps by a little less than his usual power. Subjects of a similar sort are treated by Mr. Dielman and Mr. C. Y. Turner, in neither case with any great success. Mr. Turner's picture is of much the same color and texture throughout, and Mr. Dielman's, though pretty and pleasant, is rather spotty in technique. Mr. Church's two drawings are of his usual vagueness, and perhaps have a little less than his usual charm.

Mr. Weldon's "Incense" is conceived somewhat in the spirit of Louis Leloir's work. The almost insuperable difficulty of modelling nude flesh in water color has been too great for him. He has tried to overcome it by recourse to stippling, and the result is the rather disagreeably red and speckled look that nude flesh generally has in water-color paintings, and which Mr. Maynard, in his otherwise charming "Bather," has not been able to avoid. Mr. Millet and Mr. Blashfield are also represented by classical figure subjects. The architectural background of Mr. Blashfield's little drawing is excellent, but the figure is rather less carefully drawn than we should expect from him, and the bright red shadows of the drapery are surely impossible. Mr. Quartley has an excellent little figure subject, "Washing Pilchards"; Mr. Lippincott, a pale-colored landscape with figures, which is pretty and pleasing, and Leon and Percy Moran have several of their clever but ill-drawn productions. One of the best things in the exhibition in its way is a little head of a "Barbizon Peasant," by Theodore Robinson, in an oblong decorative panel. Some clever sketchy heads are signed by Elizabeth Nourse, and Mr. Beckwith sends also a head which is very charming.

Mr. Blum's "Sister's Advice" comes from Holland, and shows in a very interesting way the effect of the Dutch masters upon his brilliant talent. There is much delightful work in it, and it is none the less delightful for the tempering and added soberness that have come to him from his present surroundings. From Holland also come some fine and sober interiors by H. Keever. Mr. John Johnstone has sent two rather curious attempts at the fiery coloring of La Farge.

Mr. E. D. Boit sends a couple of his brilliant sketches of Parisian street scenes; Mr. Charles A. Platt, a good view of the "Quay at Honfleur"; Mr. Childe Hassam, a very clever beach scene at Scheveningen; and Mr. Nico Bastert an excellent little "Still-life."

As usual, the quaintest things in the exhibition are signed by William Walton. Mr. Walton's ideas are always so out of the way and so original, and there is such an evident sincerity in his strange way of carrying them out, that we always enjoy his work, with an enjoyment certainly different in kind but not unequal in degree to that which we receive from work of infinitely greater technical accomplishment.

A word in closing about titles. One exhibitor actually calls his picture, "It is as if the pine trees called me from ceiled room and silent books to see the dance of woodland shadow and hear the song of summer brooks"! Another—a lady, this one—calls hers "Roses that gave out their odorous souls in an ecstatic death"; and there are others nearly as bad. When will some of our artists learn that one must put his poetry into the picture and not into the title, and that a Corot is no whit less poetic for being called simply a "landscape," and a mediocre performance no more than mediocre though it have a yard of poetry tacked to it like a tail to a kite?

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FOUNDED 1865.

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I.
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Under the Magnolias. Clinton Scollard.
III.
William H. Seward on Reconstruction. Charles Gayarrè.
IV.
Drifting. S. H.
V.
The Story of Black Dan. Louis Pendleton.
VI.
Liddell's Record of the War, with Portrait. St. John R. Liddell.
VII.
Robert Lee. Paul Hamilton Hayne.
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My Recollections of R. E. Lee. With Portrait. Alexander H. Stephens.
IX.
Poetry and Criticism. Richard W. Knott.
X.
A Birds Eye View. Henry W. Austin.
XI.
Bragg in Kentucky. C. C. Gilbert.
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City Building in the South. Will Wallace Harney.
XIII.
Third Day at Gettysburg. W. H. Swallow.
XIV.
Comment and Criticism.
XV.
The Editor's Table.
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Salmagundi.

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Net Assets December 31, 1884		$6,883,847 80
RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR 1885:		
For Premiums	$1,392,483 18	
For Interest, Rents, etc	453,974 38	
		$1,846,457 56
		$8,730,305 36
DISBURSEMENTS.		
Claims by Death	$431,388 98	
Matured and Discounted Endowments	151,788 30	
Cash Dividends, Return Premiums and Surrendered Policies	406,176 62	
Annuities	4,088 03	
TOTAL PAID POLICY HOLDERS	$993,441 93	
Taxes	14,731 89	
Commuted Commissions	48,138 25	
Profit and Loss	26,000 00	
Dividends to Stockholders	8,695 75	
Expenses: Rent, Commissions, Salaries, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, etc	245,751 90	
		$1,335,759 72
Net Assets December 31, 1885		$7,394,545 64
Policies issued in 1885	2,408	
Amount of Insurance in 1885	$5,045,608 00	

ASSETS.		
U. S. and N. Y. City Stocks	$659,703 42	
Bonds and Mortgages (being first liens on Real Estate)	5,063,508 67	
Real Estate	571,621 13	
Cash on hand and in Banks and Trust Company	932,404 79	
Loans on Collaterals	134,674 94	
Agents' Balances	32,632 69	
		$7,394,545 64
Add excess of market value of Stocks over cost	152,046 58	
Interest accrued	51,754 88	
Interest due and unpaid	5,091 40	
Deferred and Unpaid Prem's, less 20 per cent	200,969 05	
Gross Assets December 31, 1885		$7,804,407 55
LIABILITIES.		
Reserve by N. Y. standard, Company's valuation	$6,790,742 00	
Claims in course of Adjustment	55,670 99	
Matured Endowments not yet called for	215 54	
Premiums paid in advance	3,409 12	
Unpaid dividends to Stockholders	369 25	
Salaries, Rent, etc	2,041 68	
Surplus as regards Policy-holders	951,958 97	
		$7,804,407 55
Total number of policies in force	15,385	
Total amount insured	$33,956,324 00	

W. HAXTUN, Vice-President and Secretary.

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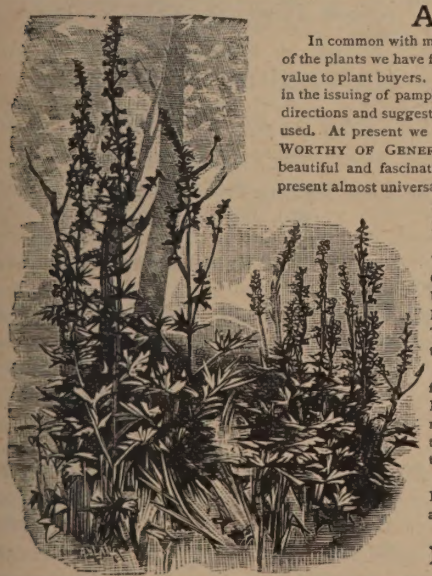

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In common with most plantsmen, it has been our custom to issue every Spring a catalogue of the plants we have for sale. This catalogue is necessarily a repetition, and we fear of little value to plant buyers. It has occurred to us that this annual expense might be better incurred in the issuing of pamphlets, describing a few of the very best plants, giving practical cultural directions and suggesting new and better arrangements for gardens than those commonly used. At present we are sending out the new edition of our book, "A FEW FLOWERS WORTHY OF GENERAL CULTURE," in which we have endeavored to show how a most beautiful and fascinating garden can be made with hardy plants, and how great a mistake the present almost universal custom is of using nothing but the so-called bedding plants, geraniums, coleus, etc., for gardening purposes. The book is superbly printed, and among its contents are the following illustrated pages: "Hardy Plants are Best;" "Hardy Plants and the Modes of Arranging Them;" "Rhododendrons, Kalmias, and Hardy Azaleas;" "Splendid Garden Effects with Hardy Lilies;" "Clematises, their Culture and Uses;" "Decorative Possibilities of Hardy Climbers;" "Success with Hardy Roses;" "Tropical Garden Effects;" and "Some Fine Lawn Trees." The illustrations are profuse and most artistic, and are made to show the garden effects of different plants.

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Receipts in the year 1885	$253,589 00
Disbursements " "	197,237 31
Assets, January 1, 1886	1,551,414 25
Liabilities (Conn. Standard)	1,191,849 53
Surplus to policy-holders:	
By Conn. Standard	359,564 72
By New York Standard	443,416 72

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 11, 1886.

The Week.

THE reported decision of the Cabinet, to answer the Bland resolution of inquiry about the Administration's silver policy by having Secretary Manning send to the House copies of his own report and the President's message, with the silver passages in each marked, is a dignified and ample response to Mr. Bland's unnecessary questions. The attitude of the Administration on the silver question is clearly enough defined already. What is not clear is the attitude of Congress, and especially of the Republican members who are supposed to have honest convictions upon the subject. For the childish purpose of annoying the President, they allowed the Bland resolution to pass by a large majority, thus giving the silver advocates the advantage of winning the first move in the contest, and the still greater advantage of seeming to have a large majority on their side. If the Republicans in both branches of Congress continue their present policy of doing only those things which are likely to embarrass and annoy the Administration, no matter if the public interests suffer thereby, they will have a protest from the country presently which will set them to thinking. It is of a great deal more importance at present to stop the coinage of silver than it is to split the Democratic party, and the sooner the Republican statesmen comprehend this fact, the better will it be for them.

In the Senate on Monday Mr. Eustis, of Louisiana, offered a resolution directing the Finance Committee to inquire concerning the treatment of silver at the New Orleans Sub-Treasury. Mr. Eustis said that the cashier of a national bank at New Orleans had written him stating that shipments of silver dollars had been made by banks in the interior to their correspondents in New Orleans, but the Sub-Treasurer at New Orleans had refused to receive the silver dollars on deposit, and that that refusal had been approved by the Treasurer of the United States. He had received information from another cashier of a bank giving the startling information that country merchants were refusing to receive silver dollars except at a discount. Mr. Chace, of Rhode Island, made the innocent inquiry whether country merchants were refusing to take silver dollars for debts or were refusing to sell goods for them. Mr. Eustis was unable to answer that query, but he understood that they were discriminating against silver dollars, refusing to take them except at a discount. Evidently something must be done to put a stop to this sort of thing. Since silver dollars are legal tender, and since the Government virtually redeems in gold at the custom-houses, we can see no reason why the country merchant should discriminate against them except that it costs him something to get them transported to New Orleans, New York, and other places where he has to pay his debts. A law of Congress compelling the express companies to carry them for nothing would apparently be the right sort of a measure for the crisis. It would be clearly unjust to compel the country merchant in the interior of Texas to take silver at par, and then pay $5 to $8 on every $1,000 to get them carted to the city merchant. Express companies are "organizations of wealth" which ought to be dealt with in a summary manner. The Sub-Treasurer in New Orleans, we venture to say, will be able to clear his skirts completely when the charges against him are investigated, but we have our doubts about the express companies.

The recent resolution of the Senate, that the Secretary of the Treasury should furnish it information concerning the origin, amount, and disposition of what is known as the "Conscience Fund," has had the effect of enlightening the country as well as the representatives of the country concerning a very dark and mysterious matter. It is fair to assume that Mr. Ingalls, who introduced the resolution, entertained the common notion that the aggregate amount of those remittances of which we see mention nearly every day in the newspapers, as "contributions to the 'Conscience Fund,'" must be at this time very great, and that these, being kept distinct from the beginning, could be made available in time of need for appropriations for Government purposes. It is quite likely that many have considered that this "fund" was not accounted for, that it was subject to little or no supervision, and that it consequently furnished much of the money with which corruption was practised during election times. We now know that it is not a "fund" at all, but simply a part of the money in the general Treasury, coming under the head of "miscellaneous receipts," just as do consular fees and the proceeds of sales of public lands. Under this head the Secretary of the Treasury has not failed annually to report the amount of money received from "persons unknown." These receipts amount to nearly a quarter of a million of dollars, and date back to 1827, though doubtless the greater portion has accrued since the war. Mingled with the receipts from other sources, these have of course been year after year appropriated by Congress for one purpose and another, and now the learned upper branch desires to be informed what has become of "the fund." The resolution is a striking commentary on Mr. Woodrow Wilson's remark, in his 'Congressional Government,' that our financial policy has not been to equalize receipts and expenditures, to subordinate everything to economical administration, but to make trades prosperous, and to hold the resources of the Government as incidental to the industrial investments of private citizens.

Senator Hoar's bill providing that Congress shall meet in 1887 and every other "odd" year on the first Monday in October, and in 1888 and every other "even" year on the second Monday in November, has been reported favorably from the Committee on Privileges and Elections, and ought to pass. The Constitution provides that "the Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday of December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day." After trying various other dates for the opening of the session, the first Monday in December was settled upon early in the history of the Government, and has been maintained ever since. At that time it was perhaps as good a date as could be selected, since it left three good months for the short session in the days when a Congressman went to the capital to stay until adjournment, and when Christmas was much like any other day in the almanac. But now the general observance of the holiday season, combined with modern facilities for travel, renders the early part of every session practically worthless, and the real work of the winter hardly begins before members return from the Christmas recess toward the middle of January—less than two months before the expiration of Congress in the short sessions. A bringing forward of the time of meeting to early October in the odd years, and to early November in the even years, will save even more time than the additional weeks represent, since members will go to Washington with the expectation of really attacking business before the holidays. The later date selected for the years of Congressional elections relieves the scheme from the objection of interfering with the time allotted to political canvasses, and there seems to be no valid ground for opposition to the change.

The Senate on Friday passed the bill for the admission of the southern half of Dakota as a State. The division corresponded almost exactly with party lines, all the negative votes being cast by Democrats and all the affirmative but that of Mr. Voorhees by Republicans. Partisanship of course ought not to enter into the decision of such a question, but it always does. Sometimes, however, it operates to the public advantage, as promises to be the case in the present instance. The Democratic House will refuse to ratify the action of the Republican Senate upon partisan grounds, but the result will be most fortunate upon public grounds. The movement for the division of the present Territory and the admission of the lower half as a State is the most anomalous and unjustifiable performance ever known in the history of the formation of States. In all previous cases a majority of the people of a Territory have declared by popular vote in favor of the erection of the Territory into a State. In this instance a scheme is pressed for the division of a Territory and the admission of half of it without the submission to the people of the fundamental question, whether they favor a division. The ambitious office-seekers of southern Dakota who are pushing this project, claim that a majority of the people in the Territory endorse their plan, but they have always opposed anything looking toward a positive expression of the popular will in the only way recognized under our system of government, by a vote of all the people. All other considerations aside, the pending measure ought to be defeated because there is no evidence that a majority of the Dakota people favor it; and until such evidence

is presented by a clear expression of opinion at the polls, it would be a violation of the principles of popular government for Congress to assume to interpret their will.

The *Times* of Thursday gives only one reason, besides its own assertions, for thinking the intervention of the Government necessary between the Pan-Electricians and the Bell Telephone Company, but unhappily this takes the form of a precedent which the *Times* itself apparently did not understand. Its contention is that, if you wish to have a patent cancelled for fraud, the Government must bring the suit. "Private parties," it goes on to say,

"however, may test the validity of a patent by compelling the patentee to bring a suit for infringement. But the failure of this remedy not only against powerful monopolies like the Bell Telephone Company, but against petty swindlers brazenly claiming patents they never got or owned, is demonstrated every day in forced compromises, in the abandonment of lawful rights because their defence and establishment would be extravagantly costly, and in the payment of blackmail under the name of 'royalties.'"

It then cites as an illustration of the superior effectiveness of the Government's remedy the Colgate case, in which the Attorney-General in 1867 brought, at the instance of the Western Union Telegraph Company, a suit against Colgate, as the assignee of one Simpson, to determine the validity of a patent for a gutta-percha insulator. The writer in the *Times* gives the history of the case, and then, with a fatuity which is happily rare, describes it as having ended, not in cancellation, but in—a compromise. The following passage deserves a place in *Puck:*

"Mr. Colgate, it appears, shrank from such a searching scrutiny of the validity of his patent, and speedily ended the proceedings by a compromise—just as the Bell Telephone Company compromised its suit with the Western Union Telegraph Company when it took on a too threatening look."

In other words, the proceedings terminated just as the suits brought by private parties are apt to terminate. We have ourselves no doubt whatever that the Pan-Electricians are now in pursuit of exactly what Colgate got. Consequently we are still left without reasons for believing Mr. Lamar's action wise and necessary, but are as open to conviction as ever. We think, however, the Pan-Electricians ought to get their case stated by a more powerful and mature hand than the writer in the *Times*.

A case is under argument in New Orleans at this moment which throws some light on the Pan-Electric movement. The Bell Telephone Company is there asking for an injunction to restrain the National Telephone Company from using its telephones. The defendants claim, in answer, that the Court should not entertain the application pending the attack of the Government on the validity of the Bell patent. We shall probably now see this plea put in all over the country, and, if it is found effective, the Bell Telephone Company would for two or three years be a prey to all comers, its stock lowered, and that of hundreds of rival claimants correspondingly raised. We do not mean to say that this is a reason why the Government should not interfere, but it is a reason why the necessity of its interference should be clear beyond question.

The most striking and encouraging fact in our politics to-day is the hearty support given President Cleveland in his reform policy by the South, as manifested by the utterances of the leading Democratic newspapers in that part of the country. With scarcely an exception the representative journals, like the Charleston *News and Courier* in South Carolina, the Savannah *News* in Georgia, the Jacksonville *Times-Union* in Florida, and the New Orleans *Picayune* in Louisiana, heartily sustain the President and vigorously condemn his assailants. The *Times-Union's* remark that "the efforts of the demagogues and dishonest partisans to hinder and embarrass him in his work will prove as abortive as their efforts to defeat his election," and the *Picayune's* declaration that "the Democratic leaders who oppose President Cleveland are guilty of party treason," are only samples of the current tone of discussion in such papers. It becomes plainer every day that the South believes in civil-service reform; and as the South, by the uniform testimony of Republican organs, controls the Democratic party, the discovery is of the highest significance.

Another thing which becomes plainer every day is that the only hope of blocking the great pension jobs, which claim agents and political demagogues are trying their best to push through Congress, depends upon the opposition of Southern Representatives and Senators. It is discouraging to find how many Northern Republican newspapers, which understand perfectly well the injustice and wrong of such vast schemes as the proposition to repeal the limitation as to the time ot filing applications under the arrears act, are encouraging Congress to pass bills which will take hundreds of millions out of the Treasury. With such encouragement, doubtless many Republicans who have previously opposed such schemes will follow the example of Senator Sherman, who has eaten his own words of two years ago and come out in favor of the arrears job, which he once truthfully declared had "no equity in it." Some Northern Democrats think that they can capture the "soldier vote" in their districts by championing these projects, and their votes, combined with those of most of the Republicans in the House, will come near to making a majority. The sole chance of defeating the jobbers is through a combination of the Southern Democrats with those Northern members of both parties who are above demagogism in this matter.

The recklessness of partisanship is strikingly illustrated in the flagrant misrepresentation of the President's course regarding the removals of officials, made by the Philadelphia *Press* in a leading editorial upon this subject. "*Thousands of men*," it declares, "have been turned peremptorily out of office in the middle of their terms." The *Congressional Record* of December 18 contained a complete list of the appointments made by the President, with information in each case as to whether the appointee was to fill a vacancy caused by death or resignation, or to succeed an official who had been suspended. From this statement it appeared that the President had removed in all *only six hundred and forty-three* officials, divided among the departments as follows: State, 80; Treasury, 160; Post-office, 266; Interior, 76; Department of Justice, 61. As there are about 4,000 offices filled by Presidential appointment, it follows that the first Democratic executive in a quarter of a century had removed, during three-quarters of a year, less than one in six of the Republicans whom he found in office. However, it is perhaps no wonder that a Republican organ which remembers that Mr. Blaine removed an even larger proportion of the Republican officials under his special oversight in the consular service, during the brief period that he enjoyed full swing under President Garfield, should suppose that Mr. Cleveland must have turned out men by the "thousands."

It is always interesting to trace the development of a national habit. Among the "literary remains" of the Rev. Homer Wilbur, pastor of the First Church in Jaalam, which were collected in the "Biglow Papers" a score of years ago, is a reference to what that worthy divine styled "one of the most inexcusable weaknesses of Americans"—their habit of signing their names to what are called credentials. The Rev. Mr. Wilbur thus recorded an illustration of this weakness which had fallen under his personal observation:

"But for my interposition a person who shall be nameless would have taken from this town a recommendation for an office of trust subscribed by the selectmen and all the voters of both parties, ascribing to him as many good qualities as if it had been his tombstone. The excuse was that it would be well for the town to be rid of him, as it would ere long be obliged to maintain him."

In process of time, as the recent "Bernard Conroy, Esq." incident in Indianapolis shows, the recommendation business has been carried a stage further. The Selectmen of Jaalam tried to get their man appointed to keep him out of the poor-house, while the Governor and other leading Democrats of Indiana recommended that Conroy be given an office apparently because they thought that was the only way of keeping him out of the penitentiary, where he had been sent more than once as a private citizen. Unfortunately for Postmaster General Vilas, no public-spirited citizen like the Jaalam pastor interposed and saved him from the necessity of revoking an appointment which never ought to have been made. Doubtless he and all the other members of the Administration, from the President down, are quite ready heartily to endorse the Rev. Mr. Wilbur's conclusion: "When I see a certificate of character with everybody's name attached to it, I regard it as a letter of introduction from the Devil."

The white Democratic taxpayers of Vicksburg are urging the passage by the Mississippi Legislature of a law overthrowing the present system of electing the city government by popular vote, and substituting the appointment by the Governor of a Mayor and Aldermen, because non-tax-paying Republican negroes are in the majority. Republican organs in Boston are profoundly shocked at such evidence of distrust of the people. And yet the Vicksburg plan is only an extension of the same principle which the Boston Republicans persuaded the Massachusetts Legislature to adopt last year, when they secured the passage of a law taking the appointment of Police Commissioners from the (Democratic) Mayor of the city and giving it to the (Republican) Governor of the State. The theory of home rule was definitively abandoned when the Massachusetts Republicans declared

that a Mayor chosen by popular vote could not be trusted to appoint the men who supervise the police force. It is only a step further to the position of the Mississippi Democrats that the system of securing a mayor and aldermen by popular vote ought to be abolished, and that the appointment of these officials ought to be vested in the Governor. Indeed, we should not be surprised any day to hear that such a change was advocated by those "respectable" but indolent citizens of Boston who decided a year ago that it was not worth while to work hard and elect a good Mayor, who could be trusted to appoint good Police Commissioners, when it would be so much easier to throw off the burden upon the Legislature and Governor.

There is an unpleasant suggestion of "hippodroming" in the course of the chess contest between Messrs. Steinitz and Zukertort. That the fortunes of the match should vary is not surprising; what is strange is that so many games should be lost and won by mistakes which, we are assured, would be unaccountable in the case of players of only moderate skill. These successive quite inexplicable mistakes, occurring as they do always just at the proper time to increase uncertainty as to the result, distinctly favor the betting "talent," and thereby are doubly unfortunate, to say the least. We would do no injustice to the players, who, for anything we know, may be the honestest men in the world, but it is a fact that the open history of the present match already excites suspicion of "professionalism," especially in view of such objectionable features as the very large stakes at risk and the undignified device of carting the game about the country. A great match rightly conducted would probably bring about a chess revival, of which there were indeed many signs at the beginning of this one, but already they have in great measure disappeared.

Society at Seattle, Washington Territory, is at last thoroughly convulsed by the attempt of its lawless element to expel the Chinese laborers. The civil authorities and the law-abiding classes have been driven to the extremity of firing on the mob and killing or severely wounding half-a-dozen of them. This, it is said, has produced a bitter feeling. We presume that it was not intended to soften previous asperities. The shooting did not begin soon enough. The proper time was months ago, when the first assault on the Chinese occurred. The only danger now is that some compromise will be effected with the rioters, which shall leave them all the substantial fruits of victory, and serve to convince them that they were right from the beginning, and that the law of the land is whatever an impromptu mass meeting of native hoodlums and unnaturalized foreigners choose to make it.

The London riot was the appropriate sequel to the demands of Mr. Chaplin and other Tory squires for what they are pleased to call "fair trade." This is the name under which "protection to native industry" masquerades in Great Britain. It teaches the destructive doctrine that Government can and ought to keep people employed at good wages. In the late electoral campaign Lord Salisbury lent his countenance and support to this theory, in a guarded manner, but with sufficient distinctness to be understood, in a speech to the electors of Southwark. The hint which he threw out was taken by the workingmen in earnest, and they accordingly waited upon him a few days ago and asked him to bring forward a measure to provide employment for them. Of course he could not answer their request in a satisfactory way, but was compelled to put them off with generalities and personal sympathy. All the materials for a "demonstration" were at hand, and it wanted only a leader to put the mass of suffering and discontent in motion. The leadership belonged naturally to the small knot of Socialists in London, because they know exactly what they want, while the others do not. The Socialists want immediate pillage and division of property. The British workmen want no such thing. They want honest work by which they can earn a living. There has never been any bond of sympathy between the so-called "International" society of the Continent and the laboring classes of England.

There was nothing more characteristic of the British mob, if this demonstration may be called such, than its voluntary dispersion after it had accomplished what it came together for—that is, after it had shown its numbers, held its meeting, and passed its resolutions. The breaking of windows and gutting of shops along the road was evidently the work of "professionals," who always attach themselves to any disorderly movement, and take advantage of the crowd and of the preoccupation of the police to fill themselves with liquor and to seize any portable property that comes in their way. If this had been a French instead of an English mob—if Paris, instead of London, had been the scene of disturbance—the streets would to-day be filled with barricades, the city would be in a state of siege, and the permanence of the Government, and even its form, would be endangered.

Mr. Gladstone is acknowledged even by his enemies to have been, under all the circumstances, remarkably successful in the composition of his new Cabinet. Mr. Chamberlain wished, report says, to be Chancellor of the Exchequer, but this would have alarmed as well as amazed "the City," where his schemes of taxation, as propounded during the last seven months, have been received with jeers and denunciation. He has therefore consented to take the Presidency of the Local Government Board, held in the last Cabinet by Sir Charles Dilke, while Mr. Mundella, a most estimable Birmingham manufacturer, who has given great attention to educational questions, becomes President of the Board of Trade — being another new recruit from the same quarter for the governing class. Lord Derby, now an acknowledged political failure, who made a dreadful mess of the Colonial Office in the last Ministry, is dropped out, apparently, altogether. Earl Granville, who was almost equally unlucky in foreign affairs, so much so that the prospect of his return to the same office is said to have made the Queen cry—deep interest in foreign politics being one of the traditions she has inherited from Prince Albert—takes the Colonies. He is a man of such genial manners, and has filled so many offices respectably, and has such a strong hold on the moderate wing of the Liberals, that, although he is over seventy, it was probably found impossible to shelve him entirely. Sir William Harcourt, who was Home Secretary under the last Gladstone Administration, now becomes Chancellor of the Exchequer. The ambition of his life has been to be Lord Chancellor, but he has of late years been so little of a lawyer that all prospect of seeing it gratified has probably passed away. Sir Henry James, who was Mr. Gladstone's last Attorney-General, would, in the ordinary course of promotion, have obtained the Lord Chancellorship, but he forfeited his claim by abandoning Gladstone and voting with the Tories in the recent amendment to the address. This has sent Sir Farrer Herschell, the late Solicitor-General, up one step, and has brought in Mr. Charles Russell as Attorney-General. Mr. Russell is a Catholic Irishman, the nephew of the President of Maynooth College, and, although not a Parnellite, a warm sympathizer with the Parnellites on the land question. He has been for some years the leader of the Common Law Bar in London. His appointment is a distinct recognition, as it would be called here, of the Irish element in the House of Commons.

Probably the most difficult place of all to fill was the Irish Secretaryship. Considering the fate which has overtaken the last three Secretaries — Mr. Forster ruined politically, Lord Frederick Cavendish murdered, and Mr. Trevelyan undoubtedly discredited—any Englishman in public life, however able or brave, might well shrink from taking the place. But if any Englishman can succeed in it, Mr. John Morley will. He has already, both as a journalist and member of Parliament, achieved distinct success in politics. He is a grave and weighty speaker, and, though not a sentimental man, has what we may call a philosophic sympathy with people of a different type of mind and character from the English, to the want of which the English failure in the government of Ireland has been largely due. He is favorable to home rule in some shape, and is ready to listen to what the Home-Rulers say, and consider it, and is not likely, when he gets to Dublin, to put on the "English gentleman" air which the Irish find so exasperating. On the whole, in fact, the new Cabinet is a considerable advance on its predecessor, as far as the Irish question is concerned especially.

The confidence of M. de Lesseps that the Panama Canal will be open for business within two or three years is simply wonderful. There is something almost sublime about the veteran engineer's anxiety to remove the business world's doubt regarding the completion of the work, "so that at the time of its inauguration shipowners and merchants may be ready to utilize it," and his consequent invitation to the leading commercial organizations to send delegates to accompany him on his tour of inspection. The New York Chamber of Commerce has done well to accept the invitation. There is probably no place in the world where people are so incredulous about the Frenchman's great scheme as in this city, but the public is interested in the project, and would be glad to know how it strikes a hard-headed American business man.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 3, to TUESDAY, February 9, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Riddleberger and Pugh resolutions in regard to the relations of the Senate and President were tabled on Wednesday by a practically unanimous vote.

In the Senate in open session on Monday Mr. Sherman made a speech in which he held that any and all information on the files of any department belongs to the Senate. When the Senate met in executive session, the discussion broke out afresh, and was made lively when Secretary Manning's reply to the Morrill resolution was received. The resolution called for information regarding the removal of Internal-Revenue Collector McCormick, of West Virginia, and the reply of Mr. Manning is reported to have followed closely the tenor of Attorney-General Garland's refusal to furnish the papers in the Duskin case.

On Friday the Senate passed the bill for the admission of South Dakota as a State, Mr. Voorhees being the only Democrat who voted for it. The northern part is to be organized into a separate Territory named Lincoln.

Mr. Ingalls introduced in the Senate on Monday afternoon a resolution, which was adopted, directing the Finance Committee to inquire whether the statute cannot be amended so as to require the issue of $1 and $2 notes. In support of this resolution he said that he understood that these notes had been retired for the purpose of forcing silver into circulation; that no attempt had been made to force gold into circulation by the withdrawal of the $50 notes; that the people own the money in the Treasury, and want currency based upon gold and silver in circulation, and do not desire to carry coin in their pockets.

Senator Cameron (Rep., Pa.) introduced a bill on Monday to promote the foreign trade of the United States and encourage the increase of the American merchant marine. American vessels are divided into sections according to speed and measurement, and for each nautical mile run between a United States port and any foreign port, including outward and inward passage, they are to receive from the Secretary of the Treasury compensation ranging from 4 cents to 5 3-10 cents for each 100 tons United States gross register measurement. In part consideration for this, every vessel shall carry without further charges whatever mail matter is delivered to it, under regulations prescribed by the Postmaster-General, for the ports at which it expects to call. The compensation is to continue until 1905, and is then to be reduced 10 per cent. per annum of the rates given. All payments are to cease in 1915.

The Senate Committee on Foreign Affairs has reported that it is not advisable that a commission to consider the fisheries should be appointed. The Democrats of the Committee are said to have agreed with the Republicans upon this subject.

Mr. Hoar, from the Committee on Privileges and Elections, reported favorably to the Senate a bill fixing the time for the meeting of Congress in 1887 and every second year thereafter on the first Monday in October, and in 1886 and every second year thereafter on the second Monday in November.

In the House of Representatives on Wednesday the silver men showed their hands, the Coinage Committee having decided to try to get the subject in its own hands by reporting a resolution relating to the manner in which silver is treated at the New York Clearing-house. The resolution is the one calling upon the Secretary of the Treasury for information of various kinds. Mr. Hewitt moved to recommit the resolution, with instructions to report it back with the omission of the clause which calls upon the Administration to define its policy with respect to silver. Upon this a roll call was ordered, and it was defeated by 58 yeas to 168 nays. This is, however, not a test vote on the silver question, The original resolution, with two slight amendments, was then adopted by a *viva-voce* vote. The amendment modifies the strictures upon the Administration contained in the original resolution. The resolution was based upon the speech of George S. Coe, at the Bankers' Conference, relative to the policy of the Treasury in regard to silver. Mr. Morrison then reported from the Ways and Means Committee a resolution calling for information as to the total amount applied to the sinking fund between June 30, 1884, and July 1, 1885. This was adopted. The answer to these two resolutions will furnish the text for a debate on the silver question in the House.

The House on Thursday passed the Dingley Shipping Bill providing for the removal of certain fees, charges, and burdens on American vessels engaged in the inland and coastwise trade.

It is estimated that the total requirements for pensions in the next fiscal year will be $80,000,000.

The Civil-Service Commissioners on Wednesday held an informal conference with the House Committee on Reform of the Civil Service. In reply to questions as to whether it would be practicable to classify Government employees by work rather than by salaries, the Commissioners said that while it was practicable, classification by salaries seemed to them a better plan. They favored the appointment of a commission to rearrange the classification and salaries of department employees, and cited instances where the same work was paid for at different rates in different departments. The Commissioners said they thought it would require an amendment to the Civil-Service Law to allow the Commission in making appointments to take into consideration the number of employees already in office from various States. They did not consider such an amendment wise, however, as it would tend to render the whole civil-service system unpopular with the North and West, because under it the South would get nearly all the offices and thus open up a sectional question. Under the law the South was now getting its share of the offices, and would in time have its due proportion of them.

The Commissioner of the General Land Office has discovered that the Indian title to about 10,000,000 acres of land in North Dakota has not been extinguished, despite Secretary Teller's order in October, 1884, opening these lands, and their subsequent settlement by inhabitants of what may comprise fourteen or fifteen counties, most of which are organized. They contain 20,000 people, included in the Devil's Lake section, the Turtle Mountain district, and the Mouse River section. Commissioner Sparks says that in view of the presumption that the question will be submitted to Congress, he has decided to suspend all surveying contracts in the district in question indefinitely.

The suit which Secretary Lamar recommended the Department of Justice to bring to test the validity of the patent held by the Bell Telephone Company has been ordered by Solicitor-General John Goode. The lawyers who will assist the Solicitor-General are A. G. Thurman, the firm of Hunton & Chandler, of Washington, Mr. Grosvenor P. Lowrey, of New York, and C. S. Whitman, a patent lawyer. The firm of Hunton & Chandler is composed of Mr. Eppa Hunton, a former member of Congress from the Virginia district, and of Mr. "Jeff" Chandler, formerly of St. Louis. The Attorney-General will have nothing to do with the suit.

The following statement regarding the telephone controversy has been obtained as the result of a diligent search by an unprejudiced investigator: "At the time when Mr. Garland acquired his interest in the Pan-Electric Company all the stockholders, himself included, were not worth $10,000 together, and they are no richer to-day. The stock was never worth anything. He gave so little attention to it that he does not know even where his certificate is at the present moment. He would cheerfully give it to anybody who thought it worth taking. Certainly at the time when he acquired it nobody could have conceived that he (Garland) would ever be Attorney-General of the United States. Before Mr. Garland went home on his vacation last year he was approached by parties seeking to have a suit instituted in the name of the United States to set aside the Bell patent on the ground of fraud in its procurement. He replied that he could have nothing to do with such a suit, because he might be charged with an interest in its determination. He dismissed the subject from his mind, and was as much surprised as anybody in the United States when he learned that such a suit had been authorized by the Solicitor-General. If it is asked why Mr. Garland does not now divest himself of his interest in the Pan-Electric Company, the answer will be that in the present temper of his assailants, the most of whom are misled by one-sided statements and imperfect knowledge, such action on his part would be construed as an acknowledgment that he had done wrong, and in that frame of mind the public would never learn that he had been innocent from the beginning and all the way through. It is understood that Mr. Garland told the President long ago that if this adventitious circumstance were an embarrassment to him, the Attorney-General's resignation would be placed in his hands without a moment's hesitation. It is believed, however, that the President will not sacrifice an innocent man to misguided clamor in any case, but will trust to the slow development of facts for the vindication of his Cabinet."

Mr. William Dorsheimer, United States District Attorney for the Southern District of New York, has placed his resignation in the hands of President Cleveland. It will take effect as soon as his successor is named. It was Mr. Dorsheimer's intention, formed some time ago, to resign as soon as he was confirmed by the Senate. He found that his editorial duties on the *Star* seriously interfered with his official work, and it became a question which position he should vacate. He decided to retain his editorship.

A report is current in Kansas that the Knights of Labor are boycotting the State militia throughout the State. Several firms have been warned against employing militiamen.

The strikers in the coke regions of Pennsylvania caused serious trouble on Monday by attacking non-union workers.

Four hundred Chinamen were driven from their homes in Seattle, Wash. Ty., on Sunday by a mob, and the passage money for 100 of them paid on a steamer for San Francisco. No physical violence was done to them. The Chinese were prevented from sailing on Sunday night by a writ of habeas corpus. On Monday they were taken into court and informed individually by the judge that they could go to San Francisco or stay, as they wished. If they took the latter course they would be protected to the full extent of the law. About 195 in all took passage on the steamer. The several hundred remaining marched back to Chinatown escorted by the Home Guard. The mob attacked them, and the militia fired, wounding five men. This increased the bitterness between the mob and the order-loving citizens, and a serious outbreak is apprehended. The President has been called on by the Government for Federal troops. On Tuesday the President issued a proclamation ordering all people assembled for unlawful purposes in Washington Territory to disperse before 6 P. M. February 10. If the proclamation is not obeyed, the military will interfere.

Governor Hill on Friday nominated P. Henry Dugro, of New York, as Commissioner of Immigration. He has been a member of the State Legislature and Congress, and is Grand Sachem of Tammany Hall.

George T. Lanigan, a bright journalist author of the *World* fables, and at one time

editor of the Rochester *Post-Express*, died on Friday in Philadelphia, at the age of forty-one. He has recently been on the Philadelphia *Record* staff.

Dr. Alfred C. Post, a noted surgeon, died in this city on Sunday at the age of eighty. In 1851 he was appointed to the professorship of surgery in the Medical Department of the University of the City of New York, a position which he held at the time of his death.

Major-General Winfield Scott Hancock died at Governor's Island, New York Harbor, on Tuesday afternoon. He had been ill for some time with a carbuncle and diabetes. He was born February 14, 1824, and was graduated at West Point in 1844. In the Mexican war he served with credit. In 1861 he was made a Brigadier-General of Volunteers. He distinguished himself at South Mountain and Antietam, and, having been made a Major-General of Volunteers, led a division of Sumner's Corps at Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville. In June, 1863, he was appointed to the command of the Second Corps of the Army of the Potomac, and at the battle of Gettysburg, in July of that year, he commanded the Union left centre and was severely wounded in the repulse of Longstreet's attack on that part of our lines. The thanks of Congress were voted to him in May, 1866, "for his gallant, meritorious, and conspicuous share in that great and decisive victory." He was also engaged in the siege of Petersburg in 1864. His commission as Brigadier-General of the United States Army was received in August, 1864, and in March of the following year he was brevetted Major-General of the Army for gallant services at the battle of Spottsylvania. On July 26, 1866, he was commissioned Major-General, and at the time of his death he was the senior officer of that rank. For a number of years he has commanded the Department of the Atlantic. In 1880 he was defeated as the Democratic candidate for President.

FOREIGN.

The new British Cabinet was officially announced on Wednesday as follows: William E. Gladstone, Prime Minister and First Lord of the Treasury; Sir Farrer Herschell, Lord High Chancellor; Earl Spencer, Lord President of the Council; H. C. E. Childers, Home Secretary; Earl Rosebery, Secretary for Foreign Affairs; Earl Granville, Secretary for the Colonies; Earl of Kimberley, Secretary for India; H. Campbell-Bannerman, Secretary for War; Sir William Vernon-Harcourt, Chancellor of the Exchequer; Marquis of Ripon, First Lord of the Admiralty; Joseph Chamberlain, President of the Local Government Board; George Otto Trevelyan, Secretary for Scotland; A. J. Mundella, President of the Board of Trade; Mr. John Morley, Chief Secretary for Ireland. The following appointments have been made under the new Administration: Earl Sydney, Lord Steward of the Queen's Household; Mr. Arnold Morley, Patronage Secretary; Mr. Charles Russell, Attorney-General. Altogether the selections meet with favorable comment, except those of Earl Granville, the Marquis of Ripon, and the Earl of Kimberley. Earl Rosebery and Mr. John Morley are the striking features of the new Ministry. Both are the best possible selections, and are very warmly received.

The Earl of Aberdeen has been appointed Viceroy of Ireland, and Baron Wolverton Postmaster-General. The office of Lord Privy Seal has not yet been filled. It is reported that Earl Granville will soon retire from the Colonial Secretaryship and be appointed Lord Privy Seal; that Earl Rosebery will be transferred to the Colonial Secretaryship, and that Sir Charles Dilke will be appointed to the Foreign Secretaryship.

The following additional appointments under the new British Ministry have been officially announced: Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, Edward Heneage; Lord Chancellor of Ireland, John Naish; Attorney-General of Ireland, Samuel Walker; Solicitor-General of Ireland, The MacDermot; Secretary to the Admiralty, John T. Hibbert; Under Foreign Secretary, James Bryce; Under Colonial Secretary, George Osborne Morgan; Under Secretary for India, Sir U. K. Shuttleworth; Under Secretary for the Home Department, Henry Broadhurst. The appointment of Mr. Broadhurst has caused a sensation in political circles, as he is the first workingman that has ever risen to the Ministry.

The Salisbury Ministry delivered their seals of office to the Queen on Saturday morning at Osborne. The Gladstone Ministry received them from her Majesty a few hours later.

Mr. Gladstone on Thursday issued an address to the electors of Midlothian. In it he says that there are three questions concerning Ireland which demand the attention of Parliament—the question of social order, the question of land reform, and the question of self-government. The desire for self-government, he says, must necessarily be subject to the law of imperial unity. The Government hope to find a safer and more effectual method than coercion to remedy the social troubles. The new Government will institute an inquiry into the entire land question in Ireland, and into the question whether there exists any necessity for the introduction of any specially coercive measures in legislation for the Irish people; but the main policy of the Government, the address declares, will be to endeavor to reach the source and seat of the mischief generally admitted existent in that country. The following sentence in the address indicates the character of the Irish policy decided upon by Mr. Gladstone: "Although the difficulties of the task make it impossible to anticipate success with confidence, we shall draw comfort from the knowledge that we are engaged in a great work of peace."

John Morley, in a speech at Newcastle on Monday, said: "This Ministry may fail. But the course upon which we are about to enter is the only course by which the problem can be solved. We may fall. We may fall soon. We may be a short-lived Government. But I hope, I am sure, when I think of the nerve and humor of the leader of the Ministry at this moment, that we shall not be a weak or wavering Government. A line will be fixed upon—has been fixed upon. Mr. Gladstone is not the man to leave it. He is not the man to take a great work in hand and then turn faint of heart. And I think he will find that some of his lieutenants are as resolute and as intent as he."

Messrs. Healy and Biggar arrived at Galway, Ireland, on Monday, to support Mr. Lynch against Mr. O'Shea, Mr. Parnell's nominee, in the Parliamentary contest in that city. Mr. Parnell went to Galway on Tuesday, and was received with disfavor. After a short conference, however, with Mr. Lynch he persuaded the latter to withdraw from the Galway contest.

Archbishop Croke has written to the London *Statist* approving the scheme of Robert Giffen to buy out the Irish landlords.

The "starving mechanics" of London met around the Nelson Monument in Trafalgar Square on Monday. About 10,000 men were present, the Socialist element predominating. Many policemen were present. Mr. Burns, the Socialist, was a conspicuous member of the crowd. He ascended the pedestal of the Nelson monument to deliver a harangue, but was forcibly removed by the police. The mob soon brushed the officers away, and Burns again ascended the pedestal and waved a red flag. A fiercely worded resolution was read, denouncing the existing order of things, and summoning Parliament to immediately relieve the distress of British workmen. The police again charged the mob and pulled the speakers from the monument. The great and increasing crowd then spread through the adjacent streets, stoning club-houses and dwellings, sacking saloons, and smashing windows. Several thousand pounds' worth of jewelry, clothing, etc., were looted. The mob dispersed during the evening of its own accord, the police, however, breaking up some of its remnants. The meeting was really started by fair-traders, but Socialists got control. A number of arrests have been made.

An extraordinary fog Thursday morning put an end for a time to the excitement caused by the riot. Later in the day the fog cleared and the mob began to assemble in Trafalgar Square. By 3 o'clock in the afternoon 10,000 ruffians had assembled. The police charged them twice without effect. Finally, at 4:30 P. M., the authorities becoming alarmed, enormously increased the police force. A vigorous charge was made and the mob driven into the side streets. Many of the rioters were arrested.

The principal landlords in Wales have combined to resist the demand of the Farmers' League for a reduction of 25 per cent. in farm rents.

At the annual meeting of the shareholders of the Anglo-American Cable Company in London on Friday it was reported that the receipts for 1885 had been reduced £93,926 as compared with those of 1884. This was explained by the cutting of rates and the competition of the Mackay-Bennett Company.

The French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday agreed that the crown jewels should be sold to provide a fund for aged workmen. The debate on the subject was attended with great excitement. Comte de Lanjuinais predicted that the Republic would be speedily overthrown. His prediction was received with a chorus of howls. It is estimated that the jewels that are to be sold will produce $40,000,000. Some that are of historic interest will go to the Louvre collection. The gems of artistic and educational interest, valued at 13,000,000 francs, will be handed to the Museum and School of Mines. The Radicals gave notice of a motion to expel princes of former reigning families.

Louise Michel will not go to Russia, but will start an Anarchist paper in Paris called *Terre et Liberté*.

Count St.-Vallier, a French diplomat and statesman, is dead at the age of fifty-three. He was sent to Stuttgart in 1868 as Minister Plenipotentiary. During the Franco-German war he was Commissioner-General of the army of occupation. In 1876 he was made a Senator, and subsequently was appointed Minister to Berlin, where he was favorably received.

The agreement between France and Germany regarding their respective possessions on the west coast of Africa and in the South Sea, has been submitted to the German Reichstag. The agreement contains an amicable understanding with respect to the rival claims of the two Powers to the territory lying on Biafra Bay; Germany surrendering her assumed sovereignty and protectorate over all that part of the country lying south of the river Campo, north latitude 3°, and France abandoning all claim to any territory north of that river.

Prince Bismarck has ordered the hauling down of the German flag on the islands of the Caroline group occupied by the Germans previous to the decision of the Pope in regard to the ownership of the islands.

It is authoritatively stated that Greece will immediately disarm, provided Turkey cedes Epirus in accordance with the Berlin treaty.

Prince Alessandro Torlonia died in Italy on Sunday, at the age of eighty-six. He was one of the greatest landowners in Italy. His princely title he received from Victor Emanuel in acknowledgment of his service to the State in draining Lake Fucino, on the border of the Neapolitan province. Many of the most important excavations and discoveries of art treasures were made by him, and his collection of antiquities ranks second only to that in the Vatican.

The notorious Russian Nihilist, Sergius Ivanoff, has been captured.

MR. GARLAND'S POSITION.

THE *Evening Post* prints in a Washington despatch what is undoubtedly the latest version furnished by Mr. Garland or his friends of the origin and nature of his relations to the now attacking party, the Pan-Electric Company. Mr. Garland now says that "he does not divest himself of his interest in the Pan-Electric Co., because, in the present temper of his assailants, most of whom are misled by one-sided statements and imperfect knowledge, such action on his part would be construed as an acknowledgment that he had done wrong." But this seems to us to show that Mr. Garland takes a mistaken view of the whole matter. The position of the Attorney-General is a quasi-judicial one—that is, he is frequently called on to perform functions, such as authorizing or bringing suits on the application of private parties, and giving opinions regulating the action of other officers of the Government, which are judicial in their nature, and which may, as in this telephone case, exercise a great influence on the value of property. Now, the world has agreed, almost ever since justice began to be administered, that it is not enough that a judge should be pure; that it is also necessary that nobody, not even the prejudiced and the ignorant, should have any reason to doubt his purity. There are hundreds of men on the bench who could with perfect fairness try a case in which they had a large personal interest, but it is nevertheless a well-settled rule of judicial decorum, as well as of judicial policy, that a judge is disqualified for trying a case by any interest, however small. If a judge is called upon to try a suit against a corporation in which he is a stockholder, he does not say that he knows he can try it fairly and does not care what captious or ill-natured persons may think. He either refuses to try it or sells his stock, and he does this for the express purpose of preventing captious or ill-natured people from doubting the integrity of the courts. The courts sit, and attorney-generals act, not for the benefit of the clear-headed, and candid, and impartial alone, but for the benefit of the ignorant, and prejudiced, and easily deluded. These latter form a large portion of every community, and they have a right to feel satisfied that when they go to the law officers of the Government for justice they get the genuine article. When John Quincy Adams sold all his stocks on entering public life, it was not because he was afraid the possession of the stocks might lead him from the paths of virtue, but because he did not wish anybody who trusted him to suspect, even, that his course on any particular question was affected by his private interest.

What makes Mr. Garland's position all the more delicate is that there is something decidedly queer about this Pan-Electric stock. The Company was formed, he told the President in his letter of October 8, 1885, about three years ago, and he, while in the Senate, was presented with some of the stock and made its attorney. Soon after he gave the Company an opinion that the Rogers patent which it was to work, did not in any way infringe the Bell patent. The Company appears, however, to have had neither capital nor credit, and during the following three years did nothing but distribute or try to distribute large blocks of its apparently worthless stock among members of Congress. Last March the new Administration came into power, and the attorney for the Company became Attorney-General of the United States Almost immediately thereafter—that is, as he says, "some time last summer"—the Company applied to him to get the United States to institute and bear the expense of a suit to attack the Bell patent, which he had advised the Company its own patent did not infringe at all.

He refused, but the Solicitor-General—the Attorney-General's "assistant" under the statute—did it for him in his absence. The President recommended that the application should be referred to the Interior Department, which contains two of the active promoters of the Company and distributers of the stock, in the persons of General Joseph E. Johnston, the Railroad Commissioner, and J. D.C. Atkins, the Indian Commissioner. The Interior Department thereupon authorized a suit assailing the Bell patent on the application of the Pan-Electric Company, which has suddenly discovered, since the new Administration came into power, not that the Rogers patent infringes the Bell, but that the Bell infringes the Rogers. This suit the Attorney-General's Office will have to carry on, and the cost of it will come out of the United States Treasury.

Now, there is not one fact in the foregoing brief narrative which convicts anybody of corruption or dishonesty, but there is hardly one which does not call for some sort of explanation from such officers of the United States as it concerns. As regards Mr. Garland, we think the situation is one which he cannot explain satisfactorily without corresponding action—and that action should consist either in divesting himself totally of his interest in a stock which he got for nothing, and the value of which may be largely increased by the action of the Government of which he forms a part, or surrendering the position he holds as legal adviser of the Government. Neither of these courses would be an acknowledgment that he had done wrong. The first and the easiest would be simply an acknowledgment that he had come into possession of a piece of property which exposed him to suspicions that interfered with his usefulness as a public officer. It is not the business of the Administration to vindicate him or any other man. The business of the Administration is to keep itself above suspicion, no matter what the cost may be to individuals. The "fire rule," which President Grant was so fond of, and which prevented him from getting rid of an officer as long as he "was under fire," *i. e.*, as long as people were accusing him of something, was a very good rule for indiscreet or dishonest officers, but it ruined the Administration.

VIRGINIA COUPON BONDS.

THE decisions of the Supreme Court delivered on the first day of this month are entirely in accordance with the construction which the *Nation*, nearly three years ago, put upon the first decisions relating to the same subject-matter. The *Nation*, in its issue of November 1, 1883, took the ground that the decision of Antoni v. Greenhow, over which the dishonest element in Virginia rejoiced as sustaining in every substantial particular the repudiation of the so-called Riddleberger laws, did in fact sustain them only to a limited extent. It was pointed out that although the Supreme Court refused to force the State of Virginia to give receipts for coupons tendered in payment of taxes, it none the less insisted upon the inviolability of the contract which made these coupons legal tender for such payment; that the meaning of this apparently paradoxical opinion of the court was clearly shown in a long course of past decisions, to the effect that while the court would not assist suitors in aggressive action against a State which had transcended its powers, neither would it permit a State in transcendence of its powers to commit aggressive actions against individuals; and that the court was driven to this position from the necessity of declaring that, while the Eleventh Amendment to the Constitution prohibiting suit against a State was valid, so was that provision in the main body of the Constitution prohibiting any State from passing a law in abrogation of contracts.

Such was taken to be the necessary, logical consequence of the opposing provisions of the Constitution, as indicated by the decisions thereon rendered; and the *Nation* felt safe to predict that the present court would advance the logic of its predecessors to its legitimate conclusion when a case directly called for it—as Antoni v. Greenhow did not—because it thought the attitude of the present majority of the court toward constitutional government was very clearly shown in the Arlington case. It was there decided that even the sovereign power of the United States exercised in confiscation of the estates of the leader of the forces of a great rebellion, at the very time of the rebellion, must proceed under the Constitution, and, therefore, according to due process of law. And it seemed sure ground to take, that if the United States could not exercise sovereign powers at such a time and on such an occasion, then with national sovereignty must fall the old and vicious nullification doctrine of State sovereignty; or else it must be declared that sovereignty does not exist in the United States, but that constitutional government is *per se* made up of many departments, each of limited powers.

The Virginia taxpayer who holds these coupons is now guaranteed the following rights, strictly confining the decisions to the facts actually involved in them: He may make tender of coupons in payment of his taxes, whether they be ordinary taxes or license fees, and after that his taxes are held as paid; and if any officer of Virginia seeks to make collection by seizure of his property he may be sued as a trespasser, or suit may be brought to recover the property; and if the officer plead the State law under which he acted, he will plead void laws, which can afford him no protection. As corollary to these general rights, whenever the seizure of property, such as the rolling stock of a railroad, is liable to do irreparable injury to the taxpayer, the State officer may be enjoined. These rights, on the other hand, belong to a taxpayer alone, and even he cannot bring direct suit against a tax-collector for simply refusing his coupons without other aggres-

sive act; nor suit which will force the collector to give a receipt except so far as a rather inadequate law of Virginia passed January 14, 1882, allows him to do so; for it appears that this act, as being an equivalent for a State law in existence when the coupons were issued, is considered part of the contract and in substance irrepealable.

Four justices, including the Chief Justice, dissent. They base their dissent upon the broad ground that the Eleventh Amendment, because it is an amendment, or is subsequent to the original Constitution, sweeps away all opposing clauses and renders an individual powerless to hold a State to its contract. Undoubtedly their reasoning is less subtle than the reasoning of the majority of the court. It is the cutting of a hard knot, because its windings and twistings, though possible to unravel, tire the patience. The reasoning would commend itself to the unlearned in law as much as they would deprecate its results, and the more unlearned the more it commends itself to them.

The importance of these new decisions can hardly be overrated. If they are accepted without resistance, they will mark the first victory of the Supreme Court over a really recalcitrant and angry State. The supremacy of the national power as represented by the Executive was of course triumphant in the civil war, and was before triumphant in lesser struggles, as in the Whiskey Rebellion and in Jackson's famous victory, through threats of force, over South Carolina; but until the present time the United States has never been victorious in its judiciary department over a State determined to defy it. Chisholm, it is true, in 1792 obtained a decree that judgment by default should go against Georgia if she did not appear before a certain day; but before that day the indignant and frightened State succeeded in pushing through Congress the Eleventh Amendment, under which Virginia has just sought shelter through devious and intricate legal paths. There have been many other cases before the Supreme Court in which acts of State Legislatures have been declared unconstitutional and void, but never when the State has used all its civil power, its intellect and obstinacy, backed finally by a united public opinion, to frustrate the constitutional demands of hated creditors. These decisions are, then, the first absolutely peaceable triumph of the Constitution and its honest principles over the narrowness, bitterness, and often dishonesty of local popular will, and as such they form an epoch in constitutional history. It is a triumph of the regular power of the national Government over the irregular power of the State, just as the Arlington case was a triumph over irregular power of the national Government.

CONNECTICUT'S WARNING AGAINST THE FEDERAL EDUCATION SCHEME.

The question of Federal aid to education in the States, with an especial view to overcoming illiteracy at the South, is so important that it merits thorough discussion. The letters that we have received, and continue to receive, since our recent article, and the comments of other journals upon the views then expressed, justify a recurrence to the subject. The great difficulty hitherto has been that the public has not given much thought to the vital issues involved, most people hastily yielding acquiescence to the scheme upon hearing the plausible surface arguments in its favor. Signs of a disposition to get at the fundamental principles underlying it are therefore welcome.

As we previously remarked, the North feels generously toward the South, and is therefore favorably disposed toward any measure that promises to dispel the cloud of ignorance which has overspread that part of the country. Moreover, many Northern people feel as though the nation was under an obligation to assume a portion of this burden. The *Christian Union* speaks for this class when it says:

"An appropriation for education in the Southern States is not a gift of charity; it is the payment of a debt due by justice. The nation shares in the responsibility for slavery. It is wholly responsible for emancipation and enfranchisement. If the South had enfranchised the blacks, we might leave the South to educate them; but in putting the ballot into one hand we obliged ourselves to put the school-book into the other."

It is also urged that the Federal Government virtually rendered educational assistance to the new States in the West by setting apart school lands for them, and that the Southern States, with the ignorance thrust upon them by emancipation, now stand in far more urgent need of assistance from the nation.

All the pleas for Federal aid proceed upon the assumption that such aid will be a good thing for the South. It is this assumption which we combat. We maintain that the worst thing which could befall the cause of education in the South would be a series of liberal appropriations from the national Treasury for a series of years. We mean, of course, the worst thing in the long run, for no judgment upon such a matter is of any value which is not based upon a long look ahead. We are ready to admit that more Southern voters might be able to read ten years hence if $100,000,000 should be appropriated by Congress for use chiefly in Southern schools than if the States were left to their own resources; but we insist that this temporary gain in intelligence would be purchased at the cost of a permanent loss in character vastly more important—the loss of self-reliance and self-respect.

One fact counts for more than a volume of theorizing, and it is therefore most fortunate that the demoralizing influence of outside school funds can be conclusively demonstrated from the experience of one of the oldest States in the Union. When Connecticut sold her Western Reserve lands, the proceeds were devoted to a school fund, in the expectation that this assistance would serve materially to elevate the standard of public education. The fund proved very productive, the income during the early part of this century varying from $70,000 to $100,000 a year, which was a large sum of money for a small State in those days, when the cost of maintaining schools was so much less than now. Before they had this outside income the people of Connecticut supported their schools entirely by taxation, just as the people of the South are doing now. What was the effect of receiving this assistance? The answer shall be furnished by Mr. C. D. Hine, Secretary of the State Board of Education, a recognized authority in the matters of which he speaks:

"The school fund derived from the sale of Western lands yielded an income last year of $120,855, which amounts to 80 cents for each person of the school age. The average expense of educating each of these persons throughout the State is $10 31, so that the fund now furnishes about 8 per cent. of the total cost. In those towns and cities where the people insist upon good schools no reliance is placed upon these permanent funds. Indeed, the history of our State shows conclusively that at the time when the fund was most productive, yielding $1 40 or $1 50 for each person of the school age, and when towns depended upon it, as they generally did, for the support of their schools, the schools themselves were poor and short. In fact, this was the darkest period of our educational experience. A very striking deterioration took place as soon as the fund became productive and the income began to be distributed. Before that period schools had been maintained at least six months, and at most nearly the whole year, according to the size of the district. After, and not long after, this new source of income was opened, the usual length of schools was reduced to only three months, or just the time that this fund would maintain the schools. The sums which came as gratuities relieved the people of responsibility and deadened their interest, until the schools were continued only so long as the charity lasted. Happily, the danger from this direction is passed and cannot return. The fund has probably reached its greatest productiveness, and the per capita will constantly decrease. The public schools must draw their sustenance from the people who are directly or indirectly benefited by them."

The Blair Bill simply proposes to do for the whole South what the Western Reserve fund did for Connecticut. Human nature is much the same everywhere, and if one were to try differentiating it, he certainly would not find the Southern character less likely to be demoralized by subsidies than the Northern. The men who had this fund set apart for the benefit of Connecticut's schools undoubtedly thought that they were doing the State a great service; but it has proved a curse, and the people are now congratulated that "the danger from this direction is passed," because the growth of population has forced them to tax themselves in order to educate their children. The *Christian Union* and the people who share its opinion that Federal appropriations for Southern education would be simply "the payment of a debt due by justice," are honest in their desire to benefit the South; but if they could accomplish their design, they would have proved its worst enemies.

The truth is that the South can educate herself, and is already beginning to do so. It will be a hard job, but her people, black and white, will be more manly, more self-reliant —more intelligent, in the long run — if they are left to work out their own salvation. The most hopeful sign for the South's future is that clear-headed Southern men are protesting against the efforts of well-meaning but short-sighted Northerners to give the South school money out of the Federal Treasury, which these Southern men see that she ought to raise and can raise herself.

GEORGE BORROW IN SPAIN.

Since reading the interesting papers on Borrow to which his death, in 1881, gave rise, I have been no little surprised to observe the resumption of the subject in the January number of *Macmillan's Magazine*, and a short Life in the fifth volume of the new 'Dictionary of National Biography.'* I interpret this as an instinctive clinging on the part of the public to the manly and independent author who has left such deep

* For the Review articles, see *Littell's Living Age*, Nos. 1945-47-54 for 1881, and No. 2171 for 1886.

impressions on his time, and who will, I venture to prophesy, long continue to stir the hearts of his readers as for thirty years he has stirred my own.

This conviction prompts me to record some of my observations during a long residence in the Peninsula, in which the traces of the campaigns of 1835–40 often drew my attention to the man and his work. The period of Borrow's activity in Spain was during the reign of the Queen Regent, Doña Christina, and not of Isabella II., as some of the articles have stated, for Isabella was not declared to be Queen till 1844, at the age of thirteen. Borrow was in St. Petersburg in the summer of 1835, and the preface to his 'Targum,' published there in that year, is dated June 1. He left about the 10th of October, and reached Lisbon November 11, commissioned by the British and Foreign Bible Society to make an entrance for the Scriptures into Spain. The political situation was one of high excitation. The Liberals had demanded a constitutional government, but obtained only the sedative called the Royal Statute of 1834, which, instead of allaying, only aroused the popular passions till the revolution of "The Grange" (La Granja), in August, 1836, put the Progresistas in power. The Moderados, to whom the Queen Mother intrusted the fortunes of her child, being defeated, a tilt was kept up between the two great parties, which lasted till the temporary triumph of the advanced party culminated in the expulsion of Christina from Spain in 1840, after Borrow's work was done.

His appearance, then, on the scene in 1835 was at a most critical and difficult juncture. The partisans of Carlism filled the land with all the horrors of civil war, and the attention of the Madrid Government was distracted from its legitimate cares by the sudden raids of Gomez, Cabrera, and other Carlist chieftains, threatening at times the very capital. Only those who know Old Spain can comprehend why Borrow, under these circumstances, began his mission *ex infimo*, with the lower orders. What would one of your sleek, solemn, black-gloved weaklings have wrought among the traditional *majos*, *manólos*, and *chulos*—"b'hoys" of the ring—the first to conciliate because they were and are the skirmishers of a foe that lurks in high places? What would kind words and Christian smiles have achieved among such men as you find crowded between the Lavapiés and the Calle de Toledo? We met them first in 1867, tamed by thirty years of modern civilization, with its whiz and whirr of steam and electricity. What must they have been in '37, with their red sashes bristling with knives, their cloaks concealing an arsenal of sinister tools, over the mufflers of which peeped coal-black eyes, and in whose breast pity never lodged!

Borrow's mission lay through the midst of these. The old words and the ancient strategy that had put him at the head of gypsydom in England were appealed to for personal insulation in the maze of hidden dangers in the Peninsula. With such "pals" he could defy the Captains-General, the night-prowling *alguaciles*, and even the lowest factotums of unscrupulous power. He set himself at work and became the *Inglesito*, "Master of the Seven Jargons," the friend of Montés, Sevilla, Poquito Pan, and all the guild of bull-baiting heroes once famous in the plazas of Madrid and Seville.

After long searching I at last found a copy of the Gypsy Gospel—'El Embéo e Majaró Lúcas'—which Borrow translated in 1836 at Badajóz, "opré a mixa de Laloró" (on the frontier of Portugal), and printed at Madrid in 1837: a remarkable work, and one which, with the 'Gypsies of Spain,' whose vocabulary and facts were soon reproduced in Spanish, has had no small influence on the popular language and even on the literature. The native vocabularies of Trujillo, Campuzano, Mayo, and others, which appeared since 1844, are simply Borrow's 'Gypsy Word-Book of 1841, concealed by false *caló* additions taken from the *Slang* Dictionary of Hidalgo. The celebrated dramatic author, Bretón de los Herréros, has several prose plays interlarded with Borrow's Gypsy words, a fact that is especially patent in the school editions by Germans, who know not what explanation to give them. See Booch-Arkossy's edition of "La Independencia" for ludicrous examples. The vulgar speech of the lowly at Madrid to-day cannot be understood without a knowledge of Mayo's (that is, Borrow's) vocabulary. At every turn you hear *gachó* for "cove"; *chavó* for "chummy"; *chachipé*, "that's so"; *parné*, money; *diquelár*, to see; *camelár*, to love, like, to flatter; *penár*, to say, to speak, etc., etc. Once it was the fashion in Spain to learn the Germania or cant language; Cervántes wrote a novel in it, and Quevedo several poems. Now Gypsy has replaced it, and an *Englishman* introduced the fancy! Borrow probably never knew it, but I can prove the statement by a volume of extracts, none of which will antedate 1842.

Borrow in his 'Bible' and 'Gypsies' has suffered at the public bar all those insinuations which a writer must undergo who thoroughly knows the country he describes. Most men who have attacked the subject have been prudent enough to limit their observations to what their eyes could fathom, carefully abstaining from a knowledge of the language whereby they might get at enough truth to jostle the prejudices of their readers, who want only to hear what they have been wont to believe. No scrupulous author likes to be included in a charge of exaggeration, and that apprehension often tones down his expressions till they reach untruth by the opposite extreme. The fact is, Borrow had an intimate knowledge of the Spanish character and language, and he gives us the most exact delineation of the plain Castilian to be found in literature. One of the best tests of such works is to translate portions of them to the natives of the district described. I have frequently done this before a group of the class he immortalizes, and never failed to elicit the most unequivocal marks of approval. One said, gravely: *El gachó e' mu' ducho* (the "cove" is an expert); another recognized the book to be profoundly Spanish—*muy español*—a decision which provoked unanimous assent, and from which there was no appeal. A third would condense his convictions into a most expressive exclamation, not intended for publication, but in the mind of all an apposite compliment.

The 'Bible' and 'Gypsies' are two extraordinary publications, worthy the adjectives "valuable and extremely interesting" which Mr. Longfellow applies to them. I do not remember to have discovered a positive error in them, and I have travelled with them all over the land, as in the sixteenth century Diego de Mendoza did with his 'Celestina' and 'Amadís de Gáula.' As to his exactness I will cite one example. In the London *Times* of 1836 are the political letters from Spain, perhaps by that correspondent to whom Borrow refers, on the Revolution of La Granja. The latter's statement of the affair seems exaggerated, but it is strictly true. The correspondent denies that General Quesada was mutilated that day by the infuriated mob. Borrow says he was, and that the Madrid roughs drank coffee from a monster bowl into which had been thrown the hands and fingers of the late Captain-General of the Province. Years after, the Spanish historian, Xavier de Búrgos, in his 'Annals of the Reign of Isabella the Second,' confirms Borrow in these words: "The masses assassinated and mutilated him (Quesada), and returned to the capital bringing in triumph the bloody members of their victim, which were received in the Café Nuevo with the howlings of savage exultation proper to cannibals in their execrable orgies" (vol. iii, p. 307). Búrgos was one of the cabinet ministers in those days, and was in Madrid at the time of the Revolution. In many other respects Borrow's account is better and more exact than the ones now held as historical; for I have often heard the details from those who were with Queen Christina at the Grange that memorable day, when she was compelled to yield to the Sergeant García and sign the promulgation of the Constitution of Cadiz (1812).

Everywhere that I met Gitanos, they all knew "the Englishman," and the words he left in his vocabulary were everywhere current coin. I visited them in the Triana and the Macaréna, famous suburbs of Seville, and in the Albaïcín of Granada on the slope where their *cuevas*, dug out of the solid earth, form the queerest of homes under the towers of the Alhambra. In Granada itself I once received a visit from the *conde*, or Gypsy chief, a tall, perfectly-formed man of middle age, who gave me his address written on a card in a fair, round hand: Señor António, Maéstro Herréro en el Salón—Mr. Anthony, Master Blacksmith on the Promenade (of the Genil)—a pure Jasper Petulengro of Spain.

Besides these Egyptian gentry, I met Borrow's blind girl of Manzanáres. His "girl" of nineteen was now a woman of fifty-five, I should judge; though age-telling is one of the mysteries of that country. I was returning from Portugal in 1876, and while the train stopped at this station which meets the through-line from Madrid to Cadiz, I heard a strong, but cheerful, pleasant voice cry out in the night: "Bon soir, messieurs, quelque chose pour la pauvre aveugle de Mançanarès." I saw the point at once and rushed out of the train to see her. She was decently dressed in the ordinary *percalina* of the country; her hair was now gray, but her form proud and erect, proper to the grave bearing of the peasant class to which she by birth belonged. She spoke to me in Spanish, Latin, and French, the latter more than passable. She remembered the *Inglés rúbio* (the blonde Englishman), she said, and recognized that to him she owed much of her celebrity, and not a few of the *pesetas* she received. No one stopped at the station without remembering the *pobre ciega*—the poor blind woman, who speaks the tongue of the stranger.

As for his New Testament of 1837, Borrow has been stoutly attacked by an English writer whose twaddle was copied and endorsed on this side of the water, for forcing on the Spaniards the *Lutheran Bible* "when they had one as good of their own." I wonder if the grumbler ever saw the Spanish Lutheran Bible or the native one either. Now the best of the joke is that Borrow printed and circulated in the Peninsula just that *Catholic* version those haters of Bibles said he ought to have introduced. Spain had no Bible, Catholic or Protestant, till 1791-3, and then it came out in ten *folio* volumes, costing even now $50 a set. Borrow simply reduced the New Testament of that Scio-Bible to one small volume, by leaving out the notes, commentary, and pictures; and Andrés Borrégo, the brave Liberal, still living at Madrid, printed it in the office of his journal, *El Español*.

What influence did Borrow's distribution of the New Testament exert on Spain from 1837? The influence that the wind has at harvest on a Spanish threshing-floor. The farmer drives his mules over the grain, then casts up the straw into the air, while the breeze carries away the chaff, leaving the pure wheat on the floor. Many a thoughtful man read the Englishman's book, gave

up the chaff of life, and fed for ever after on the golden grain. Who knows how many? We have met them in Galicia, at San Sebastian, at Madrid, at Valencia, at Seville, at Málaga. The well-known scholars, Luis de Usóz y Rio, Fermin Caballero, Brunet of Guipúzcoa, Andrés Borrégo; the printers, José Martin Alegría, José Cruzado (through Usóz), and many others, all dead save three, are the fruit of George Borrow's Bible in Spain. Of those whose names we cannot mention, two have surviving families, living on Government pensions, and to cite them by name would be, if not to deprive them of their sole support, at least to subject them to certain social ostracism. I met the venerable heads of these lovely families in 1872, and they told me that for thirty-five years they had held service at home, ignorant of collect, prayer, or form of worship. I possess the printed service they contrived to draw up, containing the prayers they daily read and extracts from the sacred book. When liberty of worship came in 1869 they took no overt part, well knowing that freedom in Spain was but nominal, or for the irresponsible poor. Usóz y Rio, the noble Castilian and Castilian nobleman, lived a retired life from 1842 to his death in 1865, secretly editing the twenty volumes of the ancient Spanish Reformers, printed in the cellar of Alegría's house in the suburbs of Madrid, during the dark days of Isabella's reign. Fermin Caballero, once a minister of the crown, devoted himself to books and learning, and was the author of the 'Conquenses Ilustres,' or Illustrious Men of Cuenca, in four volumes, a set of which he gave me with his trembling autograph a month before he died. I followed his body to the grave one summer's day in 1876.

Why did not these distinguished gentlemen stand forth when liberty of conscience was secured by the Constitution of 1869? Because liberty of conscience in Spain still means ruin to those who embrace it, unless they be too poor to have social bonds or are too lowly to attract official persecution.

W. I. Knapp.

FALL OF THE SALISBURY MINISTRY.

London, January 30, 1886.

Up to the very morning of Thursday, January 19, when the Queen opened Parliament, there were those who hoped that Lord Salisbury's Ministry would be kept in office by dissensions in the Liberal party, and exhorted that Ministry to show themselves valiant, and win by boldness and patriotism the support of the Moderate Liberals. But before the echoes of the Queen's speech had died from the ears of the crowd that had watched the brilliant scene in the House of Lords, men began to feel how vain were such hopes, how wasted such exhortations. The two parties confronted one another with their old hostility, and in the speech from the throne the Ministry had confessed the difficulty of its position, and its hesitation as to the policy to be pursued in Ireland. Those who counted on a coalition of moderate men on both sides perceived how potent an obstacle to any such arrangement was the presence of Mr. Gladstone, overtopping all his allies and opponents. And when the practical question arose, what sort of coercion bill ought to be presented for Ireland, by what evidence of the state of the country it must be supported, how it was to be passed against the resistance of the Irish members, the problem that lay before a Ministry in a minority looked far more formidable than the readers of newspapers had been led to believe. Curiosity and expectation had risen to a higher point than any one remembers; not only because the situation was critical, but because the tone and tendencies of the new Parliament, more than half of whose members did not sit in the last Parliament, were an unknown but decisive factor.

The interest of the first night's debate on the address in reply to the Queen's speech centred in Mr. Gladstone's discourse, which, according to custom, followed immediately on the morning of the address. Would he admit or repudiate the views about home rule ascribed to him? Would he attack the Ministry, or promise them a truce? Would he indicate a policy of his own? He had not spoken five minutes before one thing was certain, that his oratorical power had suffered no decline. Seldom has he been more delicately wary and skilful. He praised Lord Salisbury's policy in the Bulgarian troubles. He committed himself to no positive line of policy, either as respects home rule or coercive measures, insisting that the responsibility of making proposals lay with the Ministry, and he advised the new members to reserve their judgment on the necessary course till such proposals were laid before them. He showed that as respects home rule he had not gone an inch beyond the declaration contained in his address to the electors of Midlothian last September; that no Tory speakers had attacked or censured this declaration; that the expressions used by Lord Salisbury during the campaign went quite as far toward home rule as his own. With a sarcasm so fine that it might scarcely have been perceived but for the way in which the cheers of his supporters emphasized its point, he compared the language of the Tory leaders during the election, when they were still anxious to win the Irish vote in English constituencies, with that which they now held. And in two passages of solemn eloquence, which thrilled his auditors the more by their contrast with the easy and quiet tone of the rest of his speech, he appealed to the House of Commons to give a fair and large-minded consideration to any scheme which the Nationalist members or any other members could propose for ameliorating the state of Ireland and its relations with Great Britain.

The effect of this speech on the House, and particularly on the new Liberal members, was enormous. They had come up anxious and doubting, some opposed, some fearing their constituents would be opposed to anything savoring of home rule. They were now swept away by admiration for the prowess of their leader, and seemed to see the whole landscape with different eyes. A new feeling ran through the party, and made it feel itself again compact and hopeful. Mr. Parnell followed with words carefully chosen to maintain the impression Mr. Gladstone had created. He is always calm and collected; he was now also conciliatory, deprecating excitement, minimizing difficulties, expressing no impatience. The Tory leaders were guarded; they echoed energetically the declaration in the Queen's speech against any tampering with the Act of Union, but they did not commit themselves to measures of coercion, announcing in the debate of Friday that they were sending to Ireland as Chief Secretary one of their most prominent ministers to report on the state of the country with a view to legislation. That second night's debate was marked by a long and striking speech from Mr. Sexton, restating the Parnellite position, and a warm appeal by Mr. Elliott, an Anti-Home-Rule Liberal, to the Liberal leaders—particularly to Lord Hartington and Mr. Chamberlain—to declare themselves on the Irish question. The same line had been taken by Mr. Albert Grey on Thursday, and these speeches were significant as manifestations of the spirit of revolt in one wing of the Liberal party against the home-rule ideas attributed to Mr. Gladstone. If this so-called "Whig" wing, which has spoken out strongly through the Dukes of Bedford and Westminster, not to mention less important peers, were really to act together against Mr. Gladstone, and to find a powerful leader in Lord Hartington or Mr. Goschen, it would become a formidable factor in the situation. It might command considerable voting power in the House of Commons, and exercise a still greater influence in the country. However, Mr. Grey and Mr. Elliott were left alone in their protests, and the opinion gained ground on Friday and Saturday that the great bulk of the party would, for the present at least, cling to Mr. Gladstone.

These also were days of feverish eagerness and excitement. Among the Tories the question was, "What shall we do about Ireland?" The idea of moving toward home rule had been dropped, if it ever seriously existed, a month before. But was a coercion bill needed? Did the state of Ireland prove the necessity? Was it prudent to break finally with the Nationalists by introducing it? Might it not be better to go out of office at once, leaving the Liberals to face the question, and reserving the right of renewing, in case the latter proposed a coercion bill, the alliance of Tories and Parnellites? On the other hand, there was English opinion to consider, still irritated by the reports of boycotting and the refusal of rent. Since the Salisbury Ministry must soon die, ought it not to die with dignity, championing the cause of order, introducing its coercion bill, and throwing on Mr. Gladstone the odium of resisting such a measure side by side with the Parnellite "enemies of the Empire"? In the Tory party itself much disappointment was expressed at the hesitating timidity of the Cabinet, and their journals told them they were losing their hold on the country and sinking to the level of a Gladstone Ministry.

The perplexities of the Liberals were not less acute. It was now plain that they would turn out Lord Salisbury when and as they pleased, for the Parnellite phalanx was prepared to vote on their side. But was it prudent to turn out the Government? Why not give it more rope, force it to discredit itself still further with the country, leave it to struggle with the difficulties its Irish policy had created, let it show its weakness in Parliamentary debate, keep it in office till the time came for it to produce its Budget, and then kill it on some financial issue? Would not the Liberal party grow stronger and more united in opposition than if, in the formation of a new Cabinet, the differences of view among its leaders stood revealed? Would not opinion in the country come round to give a more favorable consideration to schemes of home rule if an interval were allowed it for reflection before a Liberal Ministry could be called on to produce a positive policy for Ireland? These were weighty arguments, and to them was added another which, though it appealed to members of the House of Commons only, appealed powerfully to them. The Tory Ministry had tabled a series of resolutions for the improvement of Parliamentary procedure. The need of some improvements, large and sweeping improvements, is undeniable, and had been strongly urged by Mr. Gladstone in his election address. Although there were parts of the Tory proposals on the subject which the House of Commons would have rejected, and though other changes were needed which the Ministry had not proposed, the fact that they had put forward these resolutions afforded an excellent opportunity, which might not soon recur, of settling the question and establishing new rules under which all future Governments would find it easier to despatch business.

While the minds of politicians hung in this state of doubt, it occurred to them that there were certain amendments put down to the address to the Crown on which it was possible for the Ministry to be defeated. The moving

of such amendments, unless for the purpose of taking a party vote of want of confidence, is a novel practice, which old Parliamentarians condemn. However, here these amendments stood, and if the practice was novel, so assuredly was such a situation as the present. On Sunday, the 24th, it began to be whispered that the Ministry might fall upon one of these amendments; and on Monday discussion was keen among the Liberals whether they ought to turn out the Government on this issue, among the Tories whether they ought to accept the opportunity of going out. The interest was heightened by an announcement which Lord Salisbury made on Monday evening, that within twenty-four, or at most forty-eight, hours he would declare his Irish policy. An incident in the House of Commons further increased the tension. The first amendment to the address was withdrawn. The second was a somewhat vague complaint that the Queen's speech held out no prospect of securing better conditions of tenure to farmers. So eager were the new Liberal members, especially those from the county divisions, to vote for this amendment that the Liberal whips were obliged to let it be known that they did not desire to carry it, and Liberal members went about trying to keep their fellows from voting against the Tory Government. Even with these exertions, the Government had a narrow escape, for the Parnellites went against them, and thus the amendment was defeated by no more than twenty-eight votes, some of which were given by Liberals. Such a result made every one realize how hard it would be to keep in power a Government which is in a minority of 170. It was like a cracked cup which cannot be handled without a risk of breaking it. If it escaped defeat to-day, it might meet defeat to-morrow. The position, in fact, was unmaintainable, and the only question that remained for each party was to choose the best occasion, the one for expelling their adversaries from power, the other for falling with dignity in a good cause.

The Tories made their choice first. On Tuesday afternoon they announced that next Thursday they would bring in a bill for suppressing the Irish National League and strengthening the criminal law in Ireland. This was a bold and hearty bid, albeit made somewhat late in the day, for the enthusiasm of English and Irish Tories and the support of moderate Liberals. It was an offer of battle on ground which they deemed favorable to themselves, and a challenge to the Opposition leaders to say what they also thought of Irish affairs. It evoked a prompt reply from the latter. The word was at once passed round that the Ministry were to be defeated on the amendment to the address which came on this same Tuesday evening. It was an amendment regretting that no pledge was given in the Queen's speech to bring in a bill facilitating the acquisition by laborers of allotments and small holdings. It had the advantage of conciliating the good will of the newly enfranchised rural voters, and of putting the Tory party in the unpleasant position of seeming to oppose what would be a benefit to them. But the chief reason for using it as the weapon wherewith to slay the Salisbury Ministry was that in this way the Liberals would escape the necessity of committing themselves either for or against coercion in Ireland, which they must have done had the Ministry brought in its bill on Thursday and asked, as they proposed then to do, that all the time of the House should be devoted to its consideration.

But though it was at once clear that the Ministry would be thrown out, because the Nationalists were known to be going to vote against them, there were still some Liberals who doubted the expediency of coming into power, and wished that the Tory Government had been forced to show its hand more distinctly, and therewith to show also its unfitness to grapple with the situation. These dissentients were, however, not the less resolved to vote with their party. It was on the action of another section that attention fixed itself—the moderate men, headed by Lord Hartington and Mr. Goschen, who were known to dislike both the allotments scheme suggested by the amendment, and the ulterior proclivities toward home rule with which Mr. Gladstone has been so persistently credited. They both spoke in the debate, Mr. Goschen warmly, Lord Hartington quietly, confining themselves to the immediate subject of the amendment, but virtually separating themselves from their party on the larger issue, which was deemed to lie behind the amendment. In voting for the Ministry and against Mr. Gladstone (who supported the amendment) they were followed by less than twenty members of the Liberal party, while a few other Liberals abstained from voting. The secession is, therefore, not numerically large, but it contains besides these two statesmen three or four other politicians of eminence, whose absence from a Liberal Government will be seriously felt.

At the moment of this writing the question is whether Mr. Gladstone, who has been sent for by the Queen, will succeed in forming a Ministry. The common belief is that he will, but that Lord Hartington will decline to join it. As this and much more will be known to you before these lines have crossed the Atlantic, I need not transmit to you the various rumors and speculations of the hour. But it is worth remarking that the most jubilant part of the majority which threw out the Government on the night of Tuesday, the 26th, was that which came from Ireland. The English and Scotch Liberals, except a few of the new members who enjoyed "tasting blood" in their first great party division, were sobered by the gravity of the occasion. Even those who were clear as to the policy of their vote saw many difficulties in store for the Liberal Cabinet they were calling into being, and wished it had been possible to leave responsibility for some time longer in their opponents' hands. Y.

A PATRICIAN OF VENICE.

PARIS, January 14, 1886.

M. YRIARTE has devoted himself chiefly to the study of Italian life and art. He has published excellent monographs on Venice, Florence, Rimini; he was (with M. Armand Baschet, the author of the 'Diplomatie vénitienne') one of the Frenchmen who first searched the precious archives of the Venetian Republic. With these State papers, he had the idea of reconstituting, so to speak, the figure of one of the great patricians of Venice. His work, entitled 'The Life of a Venetian Patrician in the Sixteenth Century, from the State Papers of the Frari,' had much success, and received a prize from the French Academy. As it had been for some time out of print, he has just issued a second edition, which has been adorned with many fine illustrations and reproductions of old prints and of the monuments of the time.

The patrician whom M. Yriarte chose as a type belonged to that important school of Venetian diplomats who have left us, in their despatches, the most important documents for the history of the sixteenth century. Marc Antonio Barbaro was one of the negotiators of the peace which followed the battle of Lepanto; he was the representative of the republic to the King of France, and the envoy of the Senate to Sixtus Quintus; he became Procurator, Reformator of the University of Padua, Proveditor of Friuli. He was a patron of art, the friend of Palladio, of Paul Veronese. He was somewhat of an artist himself, having been the pupil of Alessandro Vittoria. Born in 1517, he died in 1595, and for fifty-two years he was actively mixed up with the affairs of his country.

M. Yriarte tells us that he read the name of Barbaro for the first time on the door of a villa situated at Masera, in the province of Treviso—a villa which was built and adorned by Palladio, Veronese, and Vittoria. Having been struck by the elegance and the splendor of this habitation, he had the curiosity to consult the 'Genealogie dei nobili Veneti' of Capellari and Marco Barbaro. He found only twenty lines consecrated to his patrician. He made researches, read the inscriptions of the Rialto, of the Giant's Staircase, the sepulchral urns of San Francesco della Vigna. Then he turned his attention to the archives, and looked for all the traces of the personage whom he had chosen as a type of a great nobleman of Venice. The registers of the secretary, the deliberations of the Senate and of the Great Council, revealed to him the functions which he had occupied; in the Secret State Paper Office he found his credentials, his instructions, his despatches, his *Relazioni;* the series classed under the name "Constantinople" showed him in his diplomatic campaign after Lepanto, and he was able to follow him through all his diplomatic career. He found the citizen, the man, in his relations with the members of his family, in the *Archivio notarile.* He recognized Marc Antonio himself in a portrait which is in the gallery of the Belvedere in Vienna, signed by Paul Veronese—a portrait which had been offered as a present by the Ambassador of Constantinople to the Grand Vizier of the Sultan Selim. The patrician is represented in it with a despatch in his hand; in the background is the coast of Istria. The patrician figures also in an allegorical picture, in one of the rooms of the Ducal Palace, which represents the reception of Henri III. in Venice. Marc Antonio carries the *umbrellino* over the head of the King of France.

The personality of Barbaro partly disappears in the work of M. Yriarte before a higher aim. The patrician has furnished him a sort of *cadre* in which he has been able to introduce a complete study of the institutions of Venice. At the beginning of the sixteenth century the Venetian aristocracy was in its full ascendant, and had made a sort of monopoly of the Government of the republic. The aristocratic heredity dated from the thirteenth century, and had become the law of the country; it had found its expression in the 'Golden Book'; but it was only in 1506 that the Senate had confided to certain servants of the republic the care of inscribing the children born in the noble families, their marriages and their deaths. In the sixteenth century the *cittadini* were admitted to some offices; the rights of citizenship were extended to certain foreigners, *originarii,* under severe conditions; afterward, during the war on Candia, the Senate scandalized the old patricians by selling letters of nobility, and by giving for a hundred thousand ducats the right of inscription in the 'Golden Book' to the merchants. The republic went even further in these calamitous times, and was obliged to sell the office of Procurator of Saint-Mark.

Marc Antonio Barbaro did not see this decadence of the aristocracy. In his time the Government was purely aristocratic; it had all the defects and all the merits of the system of selection. The patrician belonged from childhood to Venice; he was in turn a lawyer, a diplomat, a soldier; he could not refuse his services in any capacity—he was obliged to do the work of Venice. The patricians formed a reserve of administrators and of political leaders. The secretaries, under the orders of the Grand Chancellor, formed a special order in the republic; they began their education at twelve and were able at eighteen to register the decrees, to copy the despatches. The

young patricians entered by right the Great Council at the age of twenty-five. All the Barbaros, from father to son, were educated at Padua. Marc Antonio, before going there, stayed for some time at Verona, which had then one of the best schools in Italy. At the age of twenty-three he became *Savio alli ordini*, a sort of attaché to the college or council of ministers, which was composed of twenty-six persons—the Doge, his six councillors, and various members divided in groups with different attributions. The Doge was a sort of constitutional king. He received almost regal honors, he presided over the Great Council, the Senate, the Council of Ten.

Yriarte's book is very discursive. When Barbaro marries the daughter of the Senator Giustiniani, he has a chapter on the condition of women at Venice in the sixteenth century. While the women in France at that time already played a part, in Venice they only appeared in the great festivities; in common times they were invisible. Read all the chronicles of the time, you never find the name of a Venetian woman. We cannot even say whether the Venetian ambassadors took their wives with them or not to France; these wives are never mentioned in the Court ceremonies. When Henri III. came to Venice, however, he was invited to a great banquet:

"'On Sunday,' says the author of the 'Feste e Trionfi fatti della Signoria di Venezia nella venuta di Henrico III.' (Roma, 1574), 'the Prince was asked to a feast given in the Hall of the Council. He arrived with the Doge, the Grand Prior, and the gentlemen of his suite. Two hundred patrician ladies of great beauty, dressed in white, and covered with pearls and diamonds, had ranged themselves along the walls of the room. . . . This enormous room, with its gilded roof, and all around the marvellous pictures of Giovanni Bellini, of Titian, of Tintoretto, and other great artists, presented a fine aspect. The King sat between the Doge, the dukes, the gentlemen, the barons, and the Signoria; all around was a crowd of elegant young women who seemed like so many nymphs and goddesses. Before sitting down, the King glanced at this magnificent *ensemble*, and, followed by a little court, advanced toward the ladies, who rose and curtsied to him. His Majesty gracefully returned this salute. Then, by degrees, two by two, group by group, at the sound of music, they began to dance, each coming in turn before the King.'"

This picture reminds one of the beautiful scenes painted by Veronese. But this was the official life; the domestic life was very different. The patrician lady was not always, as she appears in the costumes of Cesare Vecellio, or in the pictures in the Ducal Palace, clad in silks and heavy with golden ornaments, with hair dyed red, with long strings of pearls, adorned like an actress or a Madonna. A Frenchman of the seventeenth century, the Sieur de St.-Didier, wrote a curious book on Venice, 'La Ville et la République de Venise' (1680). He described in it the "gentildonnes," the patrician ladies, as leading a very retired life—so retired that "elle tient quelque chose de sauvage." If it was so in 1680, you may imagine how cloistral was feminine existence in the preceding century. The Venetians were always in contact with the East, and their wives lived like the women of the harem: they made no visits, remained always at home; the great ladies did not even go to church, as they had chapels in their palaces. The men were extremely jealous, and if they had any ground of suspicion, they sometimes kept their wives in their houses for years. The ladies were only seen at the great ceremonies, at the great marriages; they appeared then dressed with a magnificence which was often blamed by the "Proveditori alle pompe," officials who had been created in order to check luxury in the republic. These Proveditori were great enemies of the pearl, which always appears in the pictures of Veronese, but the Oriental pearl defeated all their efforts. The women of rank are not those who appear in the 'Ragionamenti' of Aretino, in the 'Novelle' of Bandello; they lived in the greatest mystery, and their charms were constantly hidden. They never went out except on enormous and noisy wooden pattens, with an immense white *fazzuolo* on their head and shoulders, when they were young. The Venice which was described by St.-Didier changed rapidly. In 1739 we have another description by the President Debrosses: nothing is concealed any more, and we become acquainted with the inner life, the pleasures, the vices of the aristocratic class.

The description of the Villa Barbaro near Treviso forms one of the most interesting chapters in Yriarte's book. He gives curious details concerning the frescoes of Veronese. This painter, who was a friend of Barbaro's, belongs to what might be called the pagan school of Venice, in contradistinction to the Christian school of the Bellinis. He begins the line of artists who were great decorators, and who ended with Tiepolo and Ricci. This pagan school, though it has left so many brilliant works, marks the slow decadence of Venice; but Veronese must be placed at the culminating point between the old times and the new. He represents Venice at the height of its power, glory, and wealth. He is, as Yriarte well says, a patrician of art; his facility, his creative power, his *maestria*, are truly wonderful. At the Villa Barbaro (a villa which is quite worth visiting) Veronese treated chiefly mythological subjects, and it is quite evident that mythology always had his preference; but on Olympus, as well as in religious subjects, he always remains a realist, and surrounds himself with episodical personages, all taken from Venice—soldiers, musicians, buffoons, children, beasts, fine ladies, and gentlemen. He covers Minerva with silks of the East, and dresses Mars like a *condottiere*. He was not a lettered man, like Rubens or like Titian; he appeared once before the Tribunal of the Inquisition, and the Inquisition found fault with the way in which he had painted the *Cenacolo* in the Convent of Saint John and Saint Paul. Veronese explained that he had painted what he had seen, and spoke exactly as a modern impressionist would do. He was obliged, however, to modify some parts of his picture.

Yriarte's work is a mine of facts and documents on the Venice of Veronese, and all the lovers of art will do well to peruse it, as well as the lovers of history.

Correspondence.

"ADVICE AND CONSENT."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The exact function of the United States Senate in the appointment of Federal officials has always been a much debated point. The Constitution provides that the President "shall nominate, and *by and with the advice and consent* of the Senate shall appoint." This, in practice, has meant that the President sends in a name and the Senate votes on it. But Senators have continually been claiming that the Constitution contemplated some manner of consultation with members of their body prior to a nomination; that the presence of the word "advice," when "consent" would otherwise have been sufficient, shows them to be in some sense a privy council, or, as they are pleased to call it, the "constitutional advisers" of the President. The proceedings of the Constitutional Convention and the writings of Madison and other subsequent expounders have been cited on one side or the other. I do not know that any one has gone back and traced to its beginning the phrase "advice and consent," in order to ascertain whether it had any accepted meaning as a phrase, apart from the meaning of its separate terms, at the time when the Convention adopted it. Curiosity has led me to collect some historical facts which seem to me to cast considerable light upon the interpretation. I shall endeavor to show you that the phrase "advice and consent" had had an accepted meaning, as a phrase, for centuries before 1787; that it meant simply "affirmative vote"; that the separate signification of "advice" had long been lost sight of; and lastly, by a review of what is known of the Convention of that year, that we have no reason to believe any new use of the phrase to have been then in mind.

The history of the phrase "advice and consent" is nothing but the history of the gradual evolution of the English Parliament from the Anglo-Saxon Witenagemot, or Assembly of the wise men of the kingdom, and the Norman Great Council of the realm. Its ancestry is traced in the oldest document preserved by Kemble, wherein Aethilberht, King of Kent, in the year 604, grants a charter of lands "with the advice of Lawrence the Bishop and of all my principal men." Even in the oldest times the theory of English government, enforced only against the weaker rulers, but formally respected by the stronger, required the consent as well as the advice of the subject; and already, in 759, we find King Sigiraed giving land to Bishop Eardwulf "with the advice and consent of my principal men." Thenceforth, in the Heptarchic Kingdoms, and in the United Kingdoms of Egbert and Alfred which succeeded them, clear down to the Roman Conquest, we find this formula in continual use to express the action of the royal council, interchangeably indeed with others, such as "consent and license." The language is indeed Latin—"consilium" and "consensus" or "assensus," the words used. The former, when French became the tongue of statutes, was at once translated into "advis," or rarely "conseil." The actual force of the formula, as I have said, varied with the relative strength of Council and King. The theoretical meaning, since the Council was more then of a cabinet than of a parliament, must have been that which many of our modern Senators seem desirous of establishing—advice by those most competent or affected, consent by the majority. This was accurately expressed by Hlodhari, of Kent, in 675, "with the advice of the venerable Archbishop Theodore and the consent of my principal men." Perhaps the phrase was used in its more modern meaning when, in 774, according to the contemporary chronicle, Alcred, King of Northumbria, "by the advice and consent of all his people, deprived of the society of the royal family and of the principal men, exchanged the majesty of empire for exile."

During the first century of despotism after the Norman conquest "assent" appears in Bishop Stubbs's 'Select Charters' but once. But the "Witenagemot," as the Great Council of the King, still exists, and that the traditions of its former dignity are handed down is shown by the reappearance of the ancient form for expressing its will when the King's misfortunes have again made its will worth expressing. Henry II. issues the Forest Assize of 1184, "by the advice and assent of the archbishops, bishops, barons, earls, and nobles of England." John acknowledges that his subjects are to be taxed "by the common advice and assent of our council." The revolutionary "Provisions" of 1259 under Henry III. are made "by the common advice and consent of the said King and the magnates." In that century these words were evidently the technically accurate description of legislative action. The greatest English mediæval lawyer, Bracton, says: "The laws of England cannot be changed or destroyed without the common advice and consent of all those by whose advice and consent they were promulgated." They are so familiar in statutes of this period

that learned jurists and historians, like Lord Campbell and Bishop Stubbs, sometimes unconsciously import them into documents where they do not belong.

A peculiarity of English struggles for progress was always that they purported to be struggles to regain privileges, real or supposed, of olden time. Under the Normans the people strove for the laws of King Alfred or King Ethelred. They stood out for the old rights and for the old formulas. Their liberties were reëstablished during the long contests of Plantagenet days, and during these the Great Council changed from a cabinet into the present Parliament. It is characteristic that when the contest was won, although the Assembly's original advisory duties had passed to its offshoot, the Privy Council or Ministry, and although the monarch no longer presided or assisted in initiating or shaping its measures, but had himself become rather the advising and consenting party, nevertheless the enacting clause of the legislative decree settled back into the ancient form which had pronounced the deposition of Alcred and the humiliation of John. The changes which had made this form delusive had been so gradual as to be unnoticed. The King, through his Chancellor, asked the "advice" of his great Council; the two houses "advised" each other, although now by the established method of first, second, and third reading and final vote; together they sent up their combined "advice" to the King, although now in the shape of a bill which must be taken whole or not at all. This last and crowning victory of the Commons, the substitution of the unalterable "bill" for the ancient "petition," which the King could mangle before signing, was achieved in the reign of Henry VI.; and simultaneously the enacting clause takes much its present shape: "De ladvis et assent des Seigneurs espirituelx et temporelx & les communes d'Engleterre esteantz en le dit Parlement, & par auctorite de mesme le Parlement." And so, except for variations between Henry VII. and Charles II., it has remained to the present year of Queen Victoria, under whom the enacting clause of every statute reads, "Be it therefore enacted and declared by the Queen's most Excellent Majesty, *by and with the advice and consent* of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same." When a lawyer familiar with British statute-books means to express the action of a legislative body in acting on a recommendation from the executive he naturally falls into the formula "*by and with the advice and consent.*" That statute-book was thumbed by every American lawyer in 1787. It has not even yet disappeared from the law of our land. Mr. Alexander, in his recent collection of British statutes still in force in the State of Maryland, indexes fifty-three of the period since the Restoration alone.

Nearly the same form had been used before the Revolution in the Parliamentary enactments of New York, Delaware, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. Thus the old statutes of North Carolina opened: "Be it enacted by His Excellency Gabriel Johnston, Esq., Governour, by and with the advice and consent of his Majesty's Council and General Assembly of this Province, and it is hereby enacted by the authority of the same." At first in South Carolina: "Be it enacted by His Excellency John Lord Granville Palatine and the rest of the true and absolute Lords and Proprietors of this Province, by and with the advice and consent of the General Assembly now met at Charleston."

The words "advice and consent" had been less familiarly used before 1787 to express the action of a council or legislative body in confirming nominations, because such action was not common. It had never become a settled right of the English Parliament. St. Dunstan was made Archbishop by the King "with the respect of God and the advice of the wise men." By the ephemeral Ordinances forced upon Edward II. in 1310 he was to appoint officers "with the advice and assent of the baronage." Earls were sometimes so created in that century. Knights of the Shire, or representatives in Parliament, were "elected" by the Sheriff with the "assent and arbitrament" of the county court. By a curious sporadic use of the term the by-laws of Belfast were to be made by the "sovereign and burgesses" of that city, with the "advice and consent" of Arthur Lord Chichester and his heirs. None of the above instances can have any bearing on our Constitution. But the words "advice and consent" were used in the Constitutions of four States—Massachusetts, New York, Maryland, and South Carolina—to express the action of the Council in confirming the appointments of the Governor. It remains to examine whether in these cases the words had any other meaning than the usual one of "affirmance by vote," and, if so, how large an element such altered meaning constituted in the mind of the Convention.

Of the practice in Maryland and South Carolina I have no information. That in New York, under the Constitution of 1777, it was the settled practice for the Governor first to nominate and the Council subsequently to vote, we have on the high authority of its early Governors Clinton and Jay. But the provision in the Federal Constitution grew probably out of a motion of Mr. Nathaniel Gorham, of Massachusetts, and it is therefore to the latter State that we must principally look. On July 18, 1787, Mr. Gorham moved "that the judges be *nominated and appointed* by the Executive, by and with the *advice and consent* of the second branch; and every such *nomination* shall be made at least —— days prior to such *appointment.*" "This mode," the mover said, "had been ratified by the experience of a hundred and forty years in Massachusetts." We shall see that no one could have been better informed than himself as to the Massachusetts practice, and that in his mind the nomination was an affair of the Governor alone.

The Massachusetts Council was established in 1644. Its part in the appointing power was first formally recognized in the charter of 1691 as follows: "And wee doe further Grant and Ordeyne that it shall and may be lawfull for the said Governour, with the *advice and consent* of the Council or assistants, from time to time to *nominate and appoint* Judges . . . *Provided alwayes* that noe such *nominacion or appointment* of officers be made without notice first given or summons yssued out seaven dayes before such *Nominacion or Appointment* vnto such of the said Councillors or Assistants as shall be at that time resideing within Our said Province." We may notice here that the present distinction between "nomination" and "appointment" was not recognized in the seventeenth century. Thus in Maryland, in 1639, the Assembly provided that certain officers should be "nominated and appointed" by the Lieutenant Governor or Chief Judge. In 1642 the Governor was authorized by Lord Baltimore to "nominate, elect, and appoint" a Lieutenant Governor. In New Hampshire, in 1680, the President and Council were together to "choose, nominate, and appoint" such officers as they should think fit and necessary. Thus, too, back in 1304, King Edward I., combining the operations of a modern political campaign, "nominated and elected" William de Hamilton to be his Lord Chancellor.

From the wording of the old charter the Massachusetts practice was not clear. But Mr. Gorham had long held high official position in colony and State, and his statement that the practice had been unvaried shows that the nomination and appointment had become regarded as separate acts. The same statement shows that the nomination had been the exclusive privilege of the Executive, for in 1780, when the colonial charter was recast into a State Constitution, the proviso above quoted had been rewritten, on the proposition, apparently unopposed, of a committee, of which Mr. Gorham himself was a prominent member, to read as follows: "*Every such nomination shall be made by the Governor,* and made at least seven days prior to such appointment." The word "advice" must therefore have been a superfluity in the Council's equipment. And although the constitutional schemes of Hamilton and Pinckney contained in their corresponding provisions the word "consent" alone, I have not found that any comment was made on the addition of "advice" in Mr. Gorham's motion, or in the clause as finally adopted. Mr. Gorham's motion was lost, however, by a tie vote, and in the draft afterward submitted to the Convention by the "Committee of Detail," some offices were to be filled by the Senate alone, some by the President alone. Consideration of these clauses was postponed, and they were finally recommitted to the eleven selected on August 31, to revise all passages not yet acted upon. The latter Committee adopted Mr. Gorham's proposal in the amended form which has now become the fundamental law of the land.

We have seen that from the formula, "The President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate," a signature by the President and a vote by the Senate, just as in the case of a legislative enactment, would naturally be inferred by the lawyers of the Convention. But the first impression would be that, as in the case of a legislative enactment, the vote would come first and the signature afterward; in other words, that the Senate would pass a resolution naming somebody, which the President might then approve or veto. It is noteworthy that the principal change made by the Committee of Eleven in Mr. Gorham's proposition was to give the President distinctly the right to nominate alone, and to make the "advice and consent," or affirmative vote of the Senate, a subsequent matter. Mr. Gouverneur Morris, the special champion of this clause, answered the objection that the Senate were given too much power by saying: "They are now to appoint judges *nominated to them* by the President"; and again, that "as the President was to *nominate*, there would be responsibility; as the Senate was to *concur*, there would be security."

The word "advice" is therefore to be treated historically, and not literally. It is interesting to note the result of past experiments at a literal treatment. The Council in New York which I have spoken of was a council of appointment exclusively. Having no other powers, it sought every means of increasing this particular power. It has the main credit in history of introducing the "spoils system" into this country. The Federalist Council of 1794 seized hold of the word "advice," and against the solemn protest of the Republican Governor, George Clinton, made the Federalist Benson a Supreme Court Judge without any previous nomination, allowing to Clinton but an equal vote with each other member of the Council. The Republican "Clinton-Spencer Council" of 1801, which marks an epoch in the development of the spoils system, turned the tables on the Federalist Governor, John Jay. It refused to vote on his nominations. Jay refused to put to vote any nomination by a councilman. To break the deadlock a convention was called, of which Aaron Burr was the presiding officer, and which, as the politicians of both parties were now committed, passed a declaratory act in the

Council's favor. The working was such that the Constitutional Convention of 1821 resolved unanimously, without debate, to abolish the Council altogether.

We may, perhaps, give social standing to the word "advice" in constitutions and enacting clauses by considering it to be used in its reflexive or intransitive sense, referring to the mature deliberation of the parliamentary action. In this sense it appears in the now disused English royal veto, "*le roy s'avisera*"; and in the note made on the English court records when decision after an argument is reserved, "*Curia advisari vult*"; and in the exclamation of a famous Gentleman of Verona,

> "How shall I dote on her with more advice
> That thus without advice begin to love her?"

In a few constitutions the word advice is used of the Council, standing alone. This is the case in New Hampshire and Massachusetts. It would be interesting to learn whether the Council's prerogative of advice has any practical value. I do not know that the question has ever been mooted in this country. It would be hard to find a remedy for a snubbed majority of councillors. They are an Advisory Board of Pardons in Massachusetts; but, as a disrespectful delegate said of them in the last Constitutional Convention, "they have not got the consenting power, and if they have not got that they have not got the forbidding power." In Canada the Council has similar advisory powers by the Dominion Constitution or "British North America Act, 1867." The Governor-General has always claimed the right to decide on his own responsibility, and this right was endorsed by the home Government in its instructions to Lord Dufferin and the Marquis of Lorne. The same practice holds throughout the British colonies. Their privy councils are modelled after that of the mother country, by and with whose advice her Majesty does business; like it, they are composed for executive purposes of the Ministry for the time being; like it, they consider their advice in no way legally binding; but like it, when their advice is not taken, they think it proper immediately to retire into private life. Perhaps it was merely in the logical sequence of their privy-council theory of their own position that those unfortunate New York Senators acted, whose resignation because their unasked advice was not respected by President Garfield will be, from the sad event which followed, so long remembered by this nation.

EDWARD B. WHITNEY.

NEW YORK, January 29.

REALISM AND IDEALISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Kenyon Cox's challenge of my position as to the above subject is one which it gives me unusual pleasure to take up, for it is not often that one can find a disputant on art matters who is at once practically learned and theoretically wise enough to make a discussion really fruitful, and because the objections of a man who, like Mr. Cox, is both, enable me to see my own system of art philosophy more clearly. But to cover the ground so completely as to answer all the objections that I myself can foresee, would require a treatise, and I will try only to answer those which Mr. Cox has raised.

He admits that music is the most purely ideal of the arts, and that no relation to the real can be found in it. But if art in any form is governed by the same law and the same abstract definition, then plastic art, like music, must abide by the law as to the relation of nature with art. The whole difficulty lies in the determining exactly what in any art-production is due to nature and what to art. In music this is easy. If a composer should write, say, a pastorale, in which the songs of birds and the bleating of sheep came in, he would inevitably isolate them, for the most uneducated ear would reject them from a harmony, and see that in a musical sense they do not wed with any melody—they are natural, and the reproduction of them will not be art but artifice, *i. e.*, imitation, which is the more successful as it is more deceptive, or, in other words, the more it resembles nature the less it partakes of the ideal.

I have not used the word naturalistic, the meaning of which Mr. Cox makes crucial, in any exact sense, but as indicating a general tendency to receive inspiration from nature rather than from the ideal, the source of pure art. The antithesis I make is realism and idealism, and in the three cases of the occurrence of the word "naturalistic" I might have used "realistic" without affecting my argument: it means simply a larger kind of realism, not necessarily illusive, as all pure and successful realism must be. The true meaning of naturalism is, of course, that which looks to nature, and so may be used of the art of painting as opposed to that of music, or the art of Greece as opposed to that of Assyria.

Mr. Cox's "contribution to the desired solution" will help me to answer more fully all his objections to mine. "[The art of] painting has two distinct sides: a purely ideal side, corresponding to music, and a purely realistic or imitative side. A work of absolute idealism would have to be confined to the mere *musical* arrangement of colors and lines. . . . On the contrary, a work of pure realism would be the literal imitation, as closely as possible, of natural objects without any choice, arrangement, or composition. *This we should recognize as painting.but not as art.*" Here, and not in the meaning of naturalism, is the crux of the problem. "The art of painting" is, accurately speaking, a misnomer, though so universally used as to make it seem scientific as it may be indispensable; but in an investigation like the present the proper term would be "art *in* painting," because art is a constant term which combines with various elements, and makes what we loosely call the art of painting, of music, of dancing, of poetry, etc., but in every case the art is to be separated from the variable element—which may be thought, as in poetry; motion, as in dancing; external nature, the visible creation, as in painting; or sound, as in music. In every case art must have material to work with, in default of which it remains not merely ideal but incommunicable, like pictures conceived or music thought over to one's self, of which we cannot judge and can say nothing. But as music may avoid all naturalistic suggestion, so may painting avoid all natural form, as when Turner painted an illustration of Goethe's theory of colors, which I have never seen, but which I am told was "very beautiful" in color, and, *pace* Mr. Cox, it was painting, and any such work in pigment would be nothing but painting, though a Turkish rug would not.

Now idealism (in painting) is that form of color-art in which the materials, whether in harmonies of line or color, or of the arrangements in light and dark, are objects existing in nature, possibly, and possibly purely fantastic, but in the production of which the reproduction of nature is not the object, but in which the expression of ideal qualities or conceptions is aimed at alone, nature being only a means. Naturalism is simply the acceptation of nature as the dominant but not necessarily exclusive source of inspiration; while realism is the negation of art, devotion to the reproduction of Nature as they see and know her generally who have correct vision: its extreme expression is illusion. Now painting may be either of these, or, as Mr. Cox puts it, "we have in the art of painting these two elements constantly combined in constantly varying degrees"; but I do not agree with him in his succeeding statement about "*pure* realism and *pure* idealism being almost impossible to find," because they are perfectly easy to find, though for obvious reasons not common; few people caring to have pictures like Turner's illustration of Goethe, or those merely realistic, *i. e.*, illusive—work which is possible only with ignoble objects and pleases only ignoble tastes People will accept music which is purely ideal, but they will not look at pictures of which they do not recognize some element of nature, because they have not yet learned to dissociate art and nature in painting as they have in music. But if ever the time should come when the public taste should be so highly cultivated that we might recognize synchromies as we now do symphonies, and enjoy passages of color as we do movements in a sonata, we should find that color-art was quite as ideal as sound-art—*i. e.*, quite as capable of existence dissociated from nature.

I do not accept Mr. Cox's definition of naturalism—viz., "the reconciliation and presence, in the same work of art, of the two elements, realism and idealism"—because I should maintain that naturalism has not necessarily any relation whatever to idealism, but is, on the contrary, the parent of realism; and Mr. Cox admits this logically when he goes on to say that a perfect work of art should be idealistic and yet "carried out with an almost [why not quite?] deceptive realism." In this case the ideal, and the strain of the imagination, would be to reproduce nature, which is not the end of art. Anything approaching deceptive color cannot be art color. It may be more pleasing to the mind of the observer, it *may be* better, but it is not the same or mistakable for it. A nature without the possibility of an accidental imperfection, and free from the encumbrance of matter, may be ideal, but we do not know of any such, and so we must fall back on that we are familiar with. I regard naturalism as a tendency of the mind which must underlie all plastic art, simply because nature is the aggregate of what we see and from which we derive our impressions; but I can conceive no great art limited by nature, much less as realistic. The color of Turner in its highest artistic development is distinctly non-natural; it would be impossible for nature, dealing with the laws of matter, to produce the color which Turner developed from his ideal world. Nor would Titian's color be consistent with a realistic landscape. He might have painted a Venus which, both in form and color, should be realistic, but it could not have been Titianesque at the same time. The glow of his flesh color is distinctly non-naturalistic—much more, then, unreal; and in my judgment Turner and Titian are the highest reaches of ideal color we know of. Mr. Cox might differ with me in this, but it would be a difference of illustration, not of principle, I believe.

It is only possible to treat such questions in the abstract. We may use concrete examples as illustrations, but not as arguments, since no two men will agree in the way of looking at any artist or work of art. Mr. Cox speaks of Pheidias as "having attained a resemblance to the actual quality of flesh never equalled before or since in sculpture," though we know of no piece of work from the hand of Pheidias by which we can judge; but, according to the evidence of Greek critics, this was not the attribute of his work, but of that of later artists, Praxiteles and Scopas; and certainly, of the statues remaining to us, the "Venus of Milo" surpasses in this quality all others. Giotto, again, did not return to nature in the sense of drawing from nature, for to my mind there is abundant internal evidence that he never studied direct from nature. But the idea that he was separated from the Byzantine school

by being less "ideal" is one which is inconsistent with the history of the arts. The Byzantine school was not ideal, but conventional and prescriptive. The artists had set types to follow, for all sacred themes, and Giotto conceived them independently and otherwise than the set types; but the distinction does not touch the question of realism and idealism. However, I do not admit to Mr. Cox "that the succeeding artists were constantly approaching nearer and nearer to realistic truth," because their method was purely and simply ideal, according to the distinction which Mr. Cox accepts between the actual and the ideal. We see no internal evidence of a realistic method of study until Titian, and with him only in portraiture. The artists after Giotto became more intellectual, and art had much greater vitality, but did not change its method. What "made possible" the great ideal work of the Cinquecento was the gradual development of higher technical excellence than Italian art had ever known, and a quite unprecedented encouragement of art in all directions, bringing in many more artists and of a higher intellectual power than ever before. It was, as in the time of Pericles in Greece, collective effort, vigorous emulation, and cumulative triumphs—a live movement of a real school, in which men were inspired by a common enthusiasm. These are what "made possible" Titian and Raphael as well as a sound ideal method of study.

I have trespassed too far on the number of the *Nation* which may contain this to follow out all the suggestions and questions of Mr. Cox's thoughtful letter; but one more point I cannot leave unnoticed in justice to my own views. I consider the *best* period of Italian ideal art that from Masaccio to Raphael, but not at all *because* of the "lack of expression and individuality of head," but because these are the indications of a pure idealistic method and noble ideal types. The Greek sculptors of the best period show the same characteristics, and I should therefore go back further even than Cimabue; but Giotto is far enough, and he marks the advent of the distinctively Italian school of painting, and is generally considered, incorrectly, a naturalistic painter. For that reason I singled him out as purely idealistic. W. J. STILLMAN.

LONDON, January 23, 1886.

SOUTHERN OPPOSITION TO THE BLAIR BILL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While renewing my subscription to the *Nation* for the ensuing year, permit me, a native of the South and a resident of New Orleans for twenty years, to express my earnest approval of your editorial in No. 1073 on "Federal Aid to Education." I withdrew from the Louisiana Educational Society because its directors persisted in clamoring for an appropriation from the Federal Treasury and advocated the passage of the Blair Bill. More than a year ago I maintained, in a public session of the Society, that if we could have free trade and free ships, and could teach the people of Louisiana to rely on themselves, instead of looking to the Federal Government as a *deus ex machina*, from whom all blessings flow, we could easily raise at home all the money we needed for schools, with the immense advantage of having the people realize that the money comes out of their own pockets, and have them look after its expenditure themselves.

There are thousands of Southern people heartily with you in your efforts for (1) civil-service reform, (2) elimination of the "protective" features of the tariff, *i. e.*, a tariff only for revenue, and (3) a repeal of the Bland silver-coinage act of 1878. Many of your subscribers here would be glad to see more discussion of the tariff, synthetic and constructive, as well as analytic and destructive. When the free-traders, Professor Sumner, Mr. Philpott, and others, appeared before the Tariff Commission in 1882, they had admirable criticisms of the existing tariff, destructive of the arguments of the protectionists; but when asked to propose a system of revenue to substitute for it, they, with the exception of Mr. Thomas G. Shearman, of New York, had no plan to offer.

In closing, I venture to protest against the injurious remarks you make in No. 1073 about the trade of New Orleans. In many directions New Orleans has advanced during the last seven years. The city never exported 70 per cent. of the cotton, and now exports more than 26 per cent. including through-trade—that is, cotton compressed in the interior and transferred direct from cars to ships. It never imported 80 per cent. of the coffee. It is not going down hill relatively nor absolutely. Not one-tenth of the sums spent upon the harbor of New York has been spent upon the harbor of New Orleans. You say: "The badness of the soil and climate and the harbor are killing New Orleans by inches." The soil for one hundred miles down and many hundred miles up the river is of the most inexhaustible fertility. I was brought up in the blue-grass region of Kentucky, and know what good soil is, and after wide observation I think that no soil is of such deep and inexhaustible fertility as that of the country tributary to New Orleans. The harbor here is very fine—deep and perfectly safe, and is fuller of ships than ever.

The greatest drawback to our port is the high war tariff, which compels the ships to come here in ballast for outward cargo. As to the climate, it is cool in summer, fanned by the Gulf breezes, temperature often never rising above 87° during the summer, and rarely above 90°; no sunstrokes; usually warm in winter. In no city in the United States are the variations of temperature so small. The death-rate among the whites is only 22 per 1,000 per annum. The proportion of people past eighty years is very large. I have brought up a family of six children, usually staying here all the year round, and never had a case of malarial or other fever.

I do not ask you to publish this letter, but in view of your wide circulation and immense influence, I do ask you to correct the injustice you have done our city.

Respectfully, your obedient servant,

B. P. FORMAN.

NEW ORLEANS, January 25, 1886.

A GREEK PLAY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I wish to call the attention of those readers of the *Nation* who are interested in the study of the Greek language and life, to the efforts which are being made at the University of Pennsylvania to diffuse the knowledge of Hellenic life and character by bringing out a Greek play in Philadelphia. This project was first mooted among the students before the last summer vacation. The professor of Comparative Philology, Dr. Morton W. Easton, immediately set about the preliminary arrangements. It was at once decided that the play to be performed should be a comedy of Aristophanes, and after some discussion the play selected was "The Acharnians." Mr. Hugh A. Clarke, the Professor of Music, devoted his summer vacation to the composition of suitable music for the choruses. It was understood that the principal parts in the cast would be filled by competition, and some of the students therefore spent the summer in preparing themselves for it.

Early in the winter a large meeting was held of the alumni interested in the matter, together with some of the professors and the principal competitors among the students. At this meeting the selection of the play was ratified; and it was decided to give two performances, the first on the evening of Friday, May 14th, and the second—a matinée—on the following day. Various sub-committees to aid in the work were appointed by Provost Pepper, who presided. A short time afterwards the first competition took place, and those students who were the most promising were assigned to the principal speaking characters. Since then the entire cast has been filled from a list of over seventy competitors. A chorus of twenty-four voices has been selected in like manner, but inasmuch as this number would hardly give a sufficient volume of sound to fill the Academy of Music, where the performance is to take place, it is proposed to have a supplementary chorus of about fifty voices seated in front of the stage. The training of the orchestra will begin in due time. Those having the play in charge have endeavored to be beforehand in their preparations; and as far as the actors and chorus are concerned, no effort has been spared to give to the inexperienced amateurs who take part all the time they need for preparation. The costumes and properties are now being made. The scenery, which is now being painted by Mr. Russell Smith, will give a perfect representation of an Athenian street, and will include some of the best examples of plain Doric and Ionic buildings, such as the Theseion, the Erechtheion, and the Temple of Ilyssus, with a distant view of the Acropolis. The selection of a comedy is of course of the nature of an experiment. Representations of the Greek tragedies have been given in England; but comedies have not been by any means so frequently produced, and even in Germany such performances are comparatively rare. So far as my knowledge goes a Greek comedy has never been given in America.

Among the comedies of Aristophanes, "The Acharnians" is beyond all question the best for a modern audience. It is comparatively free from coarseness, and not more than twenty lines will have to be omitted on that account. There is great variety of action; there are no long dialogues, as in other comedies of Aristophanes. Historically, it is extremely interesting, although "The Clouds" is more frequently read in colleges because of its interest for students of philosophy. I believe that "The Acharnians" is a better educator for a nineteenth-century audience composed of people who, if they take any interest in the matter at all, are likely to take more in the thirty years' struggle between Athens and Sparta than in the estimate placed upon Socrates and his philosophy by the Athenian rabble.

The committee in charge of the play will be extremely happy to receive suggestions from those who take an interest in the performance; and they will gladly furnish any information to those who desire to witness the play.

Respectfully yours,

THOMAS ROBINS, jr.

729 WALNUT ST., PHILADELPHIA, February 2, 1886.

A SWARTHMORE CONGRESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You have given much of your valuable space to the subject of the Johns Hopkins House of Commons. I hope you will find room for a short account of an institution we have here at Swarthmore College that we consider more American and practicable. It is a Congress, composed of a Senate and House of Representatives, chosen in the following manner: Each of the four classes elects a certain number of delegates to the Electoral College. This body elects a Presi-

dent, who writes a message, and signs or vetoes bills, from the Faculty. Then the delegations from the different classes ballot separately for members of the upper chamber, the Freshman class electing two, Sophomores three, Juniors four, and Seniors five. This makes fourteen Senators. The remaining delegates, numbering twenty-five, compose the House of Representatives. Each Congressman is assigned to a certain State, whose interests it is his duty to look after. The States are fairly distributed geographically. The rules of the national House and Senate, slightly modified, govern the two bodies. The roll of States is called for the introduction of bills on the first meeting in each month, and all bills are referred to the appropriate committees. We meet about once a week in the large study hall, where the galleries are set apart for visitors. The President, Senators, and Representatives hold their office for one year. Among other bills passed was one "To Suspend the Coinage of Silver," "To Improve the Civil Service," "To Regulate the Salaries of United States Deputy Marshals," and to appropriate money to build a monument to General Grant. W.

SWARTHMORE COLLEGE.

THE SILVER FRAUD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Please pardon me the egotism of opening this letter with some words about myself. I do so because my case is typical of many belonging to my class, and serves to place in a strong light the helplessness of non-voting taxpayers against fraud of every description, especially a great national fraud such as the champions of silver are seeking to perpetrate.

I have been supporting myself for thirteen years, and during that time have made, by my own labor, without speculation of any sort, near $12,000; yet to-day I am still a working woman, with barely $3,000 between me and utter poverty should sickness put a stop to my activity. This, you may say, is the result of my own bad management; but the only mistake committed in any of my investments, so far as I can see, is due to the fact that they were all based upon the necessary assumption that somebody or something could be trusted.

My first loss was in an Alabama cotton mill, whose president speculated with the funds, and contrived, through some legal sleight of hand which I never understood, to shift his losses upon the stockholders. I next invested in railroad stock of one of the oldest and solidest corporations in the State. I bought at 96, and in a few months the stock had dropped to 66. I afterward tried bank stock, with results akin to my cotton-mill experiment.

I now determined to invest in land, as the only absolutely safe thing. I accordingly purchased, for $3,000, one hundred and forty acres on the outskirts of a pretty village, intending there to establish a dairy farm. After laying out several hundred dollars in improvements, I suddenly lost my health, and spent the better part of fourteen months in bed, supporting myself by writing with my hands propped on a pillow, and by having pupils come and recite at my bedside. In the meantime, my land was uncultivated, my fences burnt by negroes for fire-wood, and one hundred choice fruit trees I had planted trampled down by other people's cattle, so that I was glad to sell out at a loss of $500. The purchaser paid $500 cash, giving for the remainder his notes secured by the land. I have not collected these notes as they fell due, because good notes, secured by real estate, seemed to me a safer investment than the land itself, and, like women generally, I care more for safety than for large returns from capital. Now, if our Solons at Washington decree that eighty cents shall be a dollar, will some friend of silver explain to me the equity of taking from a sick woman twenty per cent. of what she has worked for, and giving it to a man who has not worked for it? or what ultimate benefit would accrue to the country thereby? I do not know that my debtor would defraud me under any circumstances, but, in the light of past experience, I should prefer to know that he *could* not.

I have spoken of myself only, but I am one of thousands like me who are interested in having an honest dollar. It is the flattest demagogism to talk about a conspiracy of bondholders and bankers against silver. For one "bloated bondholder" who would be injured by a depreciated currency, thousands of women and children and thrifty laborers who have invested their little all in bonds and mortgages for safety would be robbed. All this outcry about the poor debtor is mere political clap-trap—as if debt could be wiped out by merely transferring the deficiency to somebody else's pocket! It is an absolute mathematical truth that every debt will assuredly be paid to the uttermost farthing, the only question being whether by the one who justly owes it or by somebody else. A LABORING WOMAN.

MACON, GA., February 4, 1886.

MITHRA THE MEDIATOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If no one else has answered the question of your correspondent "H. C. L.," in No. 1071 of your issue, respecting the character of Mithra as a mediator between Hormazd and Ahriman, may I be allowed to refer him to cap. 46 of Plutarch's 'Isis and Osiris'? He is there called a μεσίτης; and I think he was undoubtedly so regarded by Manes, who speaks of him as *Christ.*—Yours faithfully, S. B.

WARK, NORTHUMBERLAND, ENGLAND, January 22, 1886.

THE COLD IN FLORIDA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is fair to say that the full effects of the late freeze in Florida are now known. There has been a loss in income, but practically no loss in capital. The greater part of the oranges on the trees were frozen, except along the Indian River and to a certain extent in the high pine groves. From fifteen to fifty per cent. of the young nursery stock was killed. Bearing trees and those coming into bearing were practically uninjured. Some vegetables were lost, but there is time to grow another crop this season. The first feeling of alarm has passed away, and every day the injury done grows less.—Yours respectfully,

ALFRED BISHOP MASON.

JACKSONVILLE, TAMPA AND KEY WEST RAILWAY CO., JACKSONVILLE, FLA., February 1, 1886.

RADISSON'S VOYAGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It may be of interest to some readers of the *Nation* to know that in Radisson's 'Voyages'—the latest publication of the Prince Society—are references to aboriginal occupation of some places on the Richelieu River and Lake Champlain, hitherto supposed prehistoric. In 1652 Radisson was taken prisoner by some "Irokoits." While being carried by them up the "River of Richelieu," he says: "At 3 of the clock in the afternoone we came into a rappid streame, where we weare forced to land and carry our Equipages and boats thorough a dangerous place." This was evidently the rapids at and below St. Johns. "Att night, where we found Cottages ready made," reasonably points to an aboriginal village site found by me in 1883, about twelve miles above St. Johns, near Isle aux Noix. "The morning early following we marched. . . . Sejourning awhile, we came to a lake 6 leagues wide. . . . Wee arrived to a fine sandy bancke, where not long before many Cabbanes weare errected and places made where Prisoners weare tyed." This "fine sandy bancke," it seems to me, was no other than that on the bay in Plattsburgh, about thirty miles from Isle aux Noix. During the last seven years, on this bank, thousands of stone implements and weapons and bushels of fragments of pottery have been found. This sand ridge has no equal in size, location, and evidence of aboriginal occupation between St. Johns and Plattsburgh. In the night "our wild people sweated" themselves, and caroused and feasted on two bears they had killed during the day. Then they were frightened, and "embarked themselves speedily." Radisson was made to lie down "whilst they rowed very hard. I slept securely till the morning, where I found meselfe in great high rushes." He probably was in the marsh between the mouths of the Au Sable rivers, about ten miles from the "fine sandy bancke."

Radisson's different voyages and experiences are quaintly and graphically described, and may be considered fairly reliable. He twice went to the country of the "Irokoits," visited the great lakes, and also Hudson's Bay.

Yours truly, D. S. KELLOGG.

PLATTSBURGH, N. Y., February 1, 1886.

Notes.

A MEMOIR of the Rev. Manasseh Cutter, the patron saint of Ohio and the Northwest, as he might be called, is in preparation at the hands of descendants living in Marietta. In the October proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society, from which we learn this, there is a curious revelation of Sparks's apotheosis of Washington, in suppressing a sentence from a letter showing his interest in a certain Philadelphia lottery. According to the Rev. E. E. Hale, he held tickets in it; and the Rev. A. P. Peabody tells, in a report read before the Society, of Washington having been the manager of a Mountain Road lottery in 1768.

According to No. 2 of the Johns Hopkins *Modern Language Notes*, Prof. James Morgan Hart, of the University of Cincinnati, is making an exhaustive collection of Anglo-Saxon words from all existing separate lexicons, special glossaries, grammars, scientific periodicals, reviews, etc., to form ultimately a complete Anglo-Saxon lexicon.

Besides writing the life of Izaak Walton for his own series of 'English Worthies,' Mr. Andrew Lang will write the volume on St. Andrew's for the new series of 'Historic Towns.' A French translation of his sketch of Mythology, by M. Léon Parmentier, has just been published in Paris (A. Dupret; New York: F. W. Christern), with an introduction and notes by M. Charles Michel.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have in press an unabridged edition of 'Guy Mannering,' annotated for schools.

Archdeacon Farrar's new book, containing Sermons and Addresses delivered in America, a Lecture on Dante, and Farewell Thoughts on America, will be published in London on February 20, and simultaneously in New York by E. P. Dutton & Co.

Ten years ago the 'Canterbury Tales' of Harriet and Sophia Lee, revived in the edition of 1866 published by Hurd & Houghton, were already out of print, so far as the editors of the 'American Catalogue' could discover. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., the successors of that firm, have reprinted the three volumes from the plates, and whether or not the Tales will be found to have "come into fashion again," as the publish-

ers hoped and predicted in 1866, they can be read with pleasure either for their own sakes or for the light they throw on the times in which they first appeared. There is a fashion in the making as well as in the writing and reading of books, and the typography of the Tales, though only two decades old, has a certain antiquity of taste not unsuited to a revival.

The title of Dr. Henry M. Field's latest book of travels, 'The Greek Islands, and Turkey After the War,' has disappointment for readers who take a special interest in the Greek Islands, seeing that his description of them occupies scarcely a dozen pages. Of their present condition and prospects he says not a word, nor does he attempt to picture their scenery except in the case of Mitylene, which, he inadvertently says, "lies midway between the shores of Asia Minor and the mainland of Greece," the fact being that it is only eight miles from the coast of Asia Minor at its nearest point. Dr. Field's impressions of Constantinople in 1882 are interesting, as he not only is a good observer, but had unusually favorable opportunities for forming an intelligent opinion. The closing chapters relate briefly the causes and principal events in the war of 1877, and a few unimportant incidents and impressions during his ride across Bulgaria and Rumania.

The huge memorial volume, 'One Hundred Years of Temperance, 1785-1885' (National Temperance Society), is a haystack of facts which cannot be called readable in their present form, and which ought to be worked over by one mind into something distinct and impressive. No editor's name is attached to the book, and there is little evidence of editing except in the mere arrangement. We will give one example of the imperfection of the present scheme. A chapter on the temperance press might naturally have been looked for, but it is lacking, and where shall one turn to find the first temperance paper? There is no index, and one must know that the name of that paper was the *National Philanthropist*, and its editor William Collier, a Baptist clergyman, to seek the desired information under "A Century of Church Work—The Baptist Church."

The Earl of Iddesleigh has published (New York: Scribner & Welford) a discourse on 'The Pleasures, the Dangers, and the Uses of Desultory Reading,' which he read as Lord Rector to the students of the University of Edinburgh last November. The newly-ennobled lecturer dwelt on the advantages of varying the kind of books one should read, citing Dr. Johnson, Bacon, Carlyle, and Arnold, of Rugby, as to the absolute utility of desultory reading, and its indisputable advantage over reading rigidly restricted to the main work of a man's life. Incidentally he gave interesting evidence as to his own actions: "I never read so many novels in succession as during the months that I was working for my degree at the rate of ten or twelve hours a day; and in the week when I was actually under examination I read through the 'Arabian Nights' in the evening." Sir Stafford urges again the sound advice that the student should "master at least one subject of study by sheer hard work, without the aid of any of the ingenious inventions for saving time and trouble which are so dangerously tempting." As to the mass of new books of more or less value, his suggestions are equally sound, if not more novel; he does not quote Emerson's advice, not to read anything not a year old; but he does quote Lowell's kindred epigram: "For reading new books is like eating new bread: one can bear it at first, but by gradual steps he is brought to death's door by mental dyspepsy."

The bound volumes of the *Critic* for last year are numbered III. and IV. of the new series. The chief feature of our weekly contemporary, apart from its reviews and its selections from other periodicals, is a leading article, generally signed, and generally on a literary subject. The papers called "Authors at Home" have been extended from five to fifteen, and with them may be classed one on Bret Harte's estimation in Germany, a celebration of Mark Twain's fiftieth birthday, Mr. Gosse's notes on America, a talk with Froude on his arrival, etc. Sometimes the article becomes an obituary, as in the case of Richard Grant White, Victor Hugo, Grant, McClellan, and "H. H." Sometimes it touches on politics, as when treating of the Riel rebellion, the Anglo-Russian crisis last spring, the Caroline Islands dispute, the abolition of duties on works of art, etc. Arbor Day forms another topic, and Francis Parkman commemorates the 200th anniversary of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.

Two volumes of the *Sanitarian*, also, the 14th and 15th (New York: A. N. Bell), are on our table. The contents consist to a large extent of papers by professional men, which are at least suggestive when not authoritative. We cannot well summarize the topics, but we have been especially interested in a paper on "The Ultimate of Sanitation by Fire."

Mr. Francis Rawle's paper on "Car Trust Securities" (Philadelphia: Thos. S. Dando & Co.), read at the meeting of the American Bar Association last August, has been reprinted from the transactions of that body, in a fair pamphlet of nearly fifty pages. It is a clear and valuable presentation of the law on a novel and useful but perilous form of security. There are some remarks, near the end, "as to the commercial aspect" of this sort of investment, which will have a bitter but wholesome interest for many investors; for it is certain that car trusts have in particular instances proved to be an engine for hoisting money out of the investor hardly inferior to the mock auction itself. That the analogy here suggested is not a necessary one, Mr. Rawle plainly shows. Indeed, the victims themselves would probably confess it; and after reserving, perhaps, a certain quantity of peculiar damnation for their advisers, even they would allow that the fault was not (if we may be pardoned the expression) in their cars, but in themselves, that they were taken in. Very interesting questions as to the law of conditional sales and chattel mortgages are illustrated in this pamphlet, and we commend its brief and intelligent discussion to the legal reader.

The second edition of the 'Random Recollections' of Mr. Henry B. Stanton has been considerably enlarged, and repairs to some extent the most noticeable defect in the first edition, viz.: its slurring over the author's connection with the anti-slavery agitation. In this portion we remark an erroneous date, on page 37—"1839" for "1836." But our octogenarian's mind, unlike that of old people in general, prefers to linger on his later experience, as a lawyer, a politician, or journalist, and no one will deny that he has much that is entertaining to recall. He attended the most epoch-making party conventions; he saw John Quincy Adams stricken with death in the House of Representatives; he has written the obituaries of many famous men and women—he enumerates them with a survivor's satisfaction. Gerrit Smith's was one of these. Mr. Stanton took the risk of printing it in the *Sun* on the morning of the day when (as it proved) the venerable philanthropist breathed his last. "Mr. Stanton," said the night editor that afternoon, "that was one of the grandest newspaper beats that ever happened in New York! And how fortunate it is for us that Mr. Smith died to-day! It would have been very embarrassing if he had recovered." Alas for the truth of history! As we have heard Mr. Stanton relate the story, the words were: "Glorious old Gerrit Smith! he never went back on us!"

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, send us an outline map of the United States, in four sections and as many sheets, the joint product of Dr. Albert B. Hart and Mr. Edward Channing. The size is large, each sheet measuring 29 by 42 inches, with the intent to be tacked to a wall and colored or inscribed according to the lecturer's needs. In this way history, geography, and geology can be taught progressively, by a liberal use of sheets. The idea is an excellent one, and the publication deserves the support of teachers.

From D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, we have two more examples of their series of "*Wide Awake* Art Prints"—"Wild Ducks," by Charles Volkmar, and "In Holland," by F. Childe Hassam. These, like their predecessors, are a reproduction in photogravure by the Lewis Co. of original designs in color for *Wide Awake;* and as the latter have already been engraved on wood, a very interesting comparison is afforded.

"But why this talk about 'compulsory' prayers?" asks the *Unitarian*, the new sectarian monthly of Chicago, apropos of "the annual movement against morning prayers at Harvard." "No! Let the question be argued fairly—simply of 'prayers.'" But why "annual" movement (we ask in turn), and not daily or perennial movement? We cite this absurd language merely because the *Unitarian* purports to offer (in the words of Channing displayed at its head) "a purer, higher form of Christianity, . . . such as will approve itself to men of profound *thinking* and feeling."

We have received from David G. Francis the January number of the *Antiquary*, containing at least two articles of first-rate importance. The opening article is by Hubert Hall, and is entitled "Notes on the History of the Crown-Lands." The present article, "Part I., Introduction," treats of the external history of these lands—that is, their origin (principally in the conversion of Folk-land into *Terra Regis*), and their disposition—the gradual misappropriation of this property by being bestowed upon courtiers and favorites, until its alienation was prohibited by an act passed after the Revolution. The crown-lands, he thinks it probable, reached their greatest extent in the reign of Henry II. The other principal article is one of Mr. Bickley's upon "Celebrated Birth-places," this being a visit to Fenny Drayton, the birth-place of George Fox. It is a very interesting description of this out-of-the-way Leicestershire village, accompanied with a number of personal incidents and memorials of Fox. Mr. Brailsford's paper, "The Wyatts of Allington Castle, Kent," is also of value, especially in the account of the poet Sir Thomas Wyatt. Other articles are: "Glimpses of Old London," "Quaint Conceits in Pottery," both well illustrated; "An Unpublished Letter from Baron Wainwright to Lady Sundon," "Wandering Englishmen," by J. Theodore Bent, and part of a series by Mr. Round, upon "Municipal Offices"; the present article being the conclusion of Colchester, and treating only of certain inferior and generally unimportant offices.

Mr. Alfred E. T. Watson ("Rapier" of the *Illustrated Sporting and Dramatic News* of which he is the editor), and the assistant editor of the "Badminton Library of Sports and Pastimes," has prepared for Messrs. Longman 'The Year's Sport: A Review of British Sports and Pastimes for the Year 1885,' a year-book which will appear regularly hereafter. In view of the enormous interest which the Englishman at home and the Briton abroad take in sport of all kinds, it is curious that such a work has not been undertaken long ago.

Curious also is it, considering the very important place held by the theatre in French life, that hitherto there has been no weekly or monthly periodical in France devoted to the drama. The

Revue des Deux Mondes, the *Nouvelle Revue*, the *Revue Bleue*, and the other leading reviews give careful consideration to the stage. But while there were many journals of art, pictorial and plastic, and of music, there was none for the theatre. To fill this want M. Edmond Stoullig, the energetic editor of the ten-year-old 'Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique,' has now undertaken the *Revue d'Art Dramatique* (Paris: A. Dupret; New York: F.W. Christern), which is to appear on the first and fifteenth of every month. The monthly parts contain each sixty-four pages; and in make-up the new review is not unlike the *Revue des Deux Mondes* or the *Nouvelle Revue*. It is intended to discuss in its pages everything relating to the theatre, ancient and modern, in France and throughout the world. In addition to the contributed magazine essays there is a review of the current French stage, and a department for the criticism of new books about the stage. To the first two numbers M. Sarcey contributes an acute study of the actor, his peculiar qualifications and his position in society. Among the other regular contributors are M. Vitu, M. Thierry, M. Mézières, M. Charles Garnier, and M. Camille Saint-Saëns.

The custom of offering a dinner to all the persons engaged in a play on its one hundredth performance is going out in Paris; hundredth performances are too common. Dumas is thought to have given it the *coup de grâce* by substituting the gift of a copy of the play, well bound, and made precious by a copy in the author's own hand of the most striking lines of the actor to whom it is given. But M. Courtois asks how those unfortunate actors are pleased whose only speech was "Madame la baronne est servie," or "La voiture de M. le comte est avancée." Will their descendants be likely to preserve the volume as a proof of their ancestor's glory? Probably such monologists would prefer the good supper which they have lost to the best bound copy of a play in which they had so little part.

Dickens and Dumas furnish the subjects of the two leading papers in *Le Livre* for January. M. R. Du Pontavice de Heussey treats of Dickens's first visit to Paris, ingeniously piecing together, in the form of a diary or connected letters, extracts from the novelist's correspondence with Lady Blessington, Count d'Orsay, John Forster, Landor, etc. The period was 1846–'47. Among Dickens's observations, which seldom go below the surface, his impressions of persons are the most noteworthy, as in the case of Victor Hugo and the elder Dumas. The latter was already a "colossus," yet, as it happens, the portrait of him fourteen years earlier, by Déveria, accompanying the succeeding paper on his "Tour de Nesles," shows a quite slender figure and a face in which intellect predominates over sensuousness. There are two portraits of Dickens—one anonymous, at eighteen, as alleged, and the other after D'Orsay's pen sketch in 1845. His present eulogistic biographer annotates his letters intelligently for the most part, but when Dickens writes Lady Blessington of having met "Bruffum," we are told that this was the surname (*surnom*) of Lord Brougham. For surname read nickname, as a late member of the New York bar was sometimes disrespectfully called "Stufton" for Stoughton.

We have received the first issue of a *Bollettino* proceeding from the Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale of Florence. It records the accessions to that library of Italian publications derived from the copyright obligation to deposit copies (*diritto di stampo*). On the last page is an index of authors, a convenient innovation. The Victor Emanuel Library will publish periodically a complementary list of foreign works acquired by the libraries of the kingdom.

The invaluable Index of Articles upon American Local History now publishing in the Bulletin of the Boston Public Library is carried as far as the letter M in No. 72. The same number contains a classified index to the maps in the publications of the London Geological Society; an index to the pictures and plans of library buildings in the possession of the Boston Public Library; and a selected list of the subjects treated in the Parliamentary sessional papers of 1884. The gifts to this noble institution continue to be numerous and princely.

"Reference Notes on Journalism" are to be found in No. 13 of the Library Bulletin of Cornell University, which concludes, by the way, the first volume.

The commercial statistics for Chili for the year 1884, just published by the proper department, show a falling off in importations from Great Britain and France, but an increase from Germany, the United States, and Italy respectively. Though Germany exports to the republic just one-half what Great Britain does, her traders are making prodigious advances in competition with the English. They have quadrupled their exports to Chili in five years (1879-1884). In the same period the United States has tripled her exports, which are still less than half those of Germany. By far the greatest amount (about two-thirds) of Chili's exports goes to England.

Among the numerous tributes to Bismarck on his seventieth birthday was a Latin poem, recounting his various services to Germany. The following stanza celebrates the latest:

> "Prosperent Imperii
> Nunc intratæ viæ;
> Valeat tellus amoena
> Camerun, Angra-Pequena;
> Vivant coloniæ."

The last German expedition into the interior of Eastern Africa, by the way, has taken six libraries for the stations, which have been specially selected and given for that purpose by a German publishing house.

—The second number of *Modern Language Notes* (Baltimore) opens with an article on native and foreign words in De Quincey, by Professor Albert S. Cook, of the University of California. Mr. Todd, one of the associate editors, writes pleasantly about Tilley's 'Literature of the French Renaissance,' a very weak book, which the reviewer is generous enough to praise without dwelling upon its slightness. Then follows a discriminating notice of Gummere's 'Handbook of Poetics,' by Professor Hart, of the University of Cincinnati. The review by Dr. Goebel of Paulsen's 'Geschichte des gelehrten Unterrichts,' as it deals with a work of the highest excellence, is more ambitious in its tone than other articles in the present number. Professor Bancroft has an interesting notice of Mr. Gosse's 'From Shakespeare to Pope.' There are, besides, philological notes and personal items giving information acceptable to those who are engaged in the teaching of modern languages. The six columns headed "Brief Mention" contain very short notices of new books, mostly German, all of a pedagogical character. There is a very good select list of recent publications, which will be found useful even to instructors who have access to the special periodicals of France or Germany. On the whole, the second number is a decided improvement upon the first. We hope the editors will not overlook the literary part of their work; the philological seems to take care of itself. There is a tendency in special journals to neglect the language in which they are written. In this respect the Germans are the greatest sinners. There is no harder, no more repulsive reading than is to be found in some of the philological journals of Germany, particularly those whose specialty is Romance languages. Let us trust that this new American monthly, devoted to the modern languages, will recognize the claims of the native speech by presenting in clear and correct English whatever subject is treated in its pages. The general appearance of the *Notes* is not as good as the contents. The typography is, to say the least, unattractive: what is gained by departing from the custom of distinguishing titles at the head of the notices by italics?

—In the notes to his recently published edition of selections from Sainte-Beuve Mr. Saintsbury translates *ne s'était trouvée à pareille fête* 'had had such a glorious time of it'; and adds, "in good old English, which some people probably think to be American." The last sentence is pleasantly ambiguous, but as Mr. Saintsbury's own English in his "George Borrow" article has recently had a severe rasping, it may be a comfort to some other foolish people to know that such a master of modern English as Dr. Jowett says, in his 'Politics of Aristotle,' page ciii: "Both women and slaves are partial to tyrannies and democracies because *they have a good time* under them." In any case, Americans are too pervasive to be kept out of the English language. The Americanism of yesterday becomes conversational English to-day and classic to-morrow. Of course this irritates people of a certain sort on both sides of the water, and an unreasonable suspicion is engendered as to every unusual word. So "aloofness" was some time since picked out for animadversion as an American coinage, whereas a reference to the Philological Society's Dictionary would have shown the critic that it is used by Coleridge among other high English authorities—Coleridge, who had no patience with the American coinage of words, and declaimed against the injury Americans were doing the language.

—An interesting addition to Shakspere literature is a beautifully printed volume, 'The Merry Wives of Windsor, a Comedy. By William Shakespeare. Edited, with Notes from the Collections of the late John Frederick Stanford, M.A., F.R.S., by Henry B. Wheatley, F.S.A.' (London: George Bell & Sons. 1886). This play is one of those which most need and best reward illustration, as the single comedy of contemporary manners from Shakspere's hand; and it was to be hoped that Mr. Stanford, who had especially devoted himself to collecting material for this purpose, had made some curious if not important finds. The result only shows that the field is too thoroughly traversed to make it worth while for any amateur to enter it. The editor of this volume found it necessary to avail himself freely of previous work, and the consequence is an excellent edition, but distinguished only by its completeness. The part which Mr. Stanford's collections play in it is not very visible or notable. The text, however, which is in a very bad state, has been treated with rare judiciousness, and the Introduction is to be praised as a fully-informed study of the play itself, without criticism, and just what it should be. The editor differs from Mr. Daniel, the latest scholar who has written with authority on the subject, in believing that in the vague and apparently compressed misadventure of the *Host* with his horses, reference is had to the visit of Count Mümpelgart to England, and makes out an excellent case for his own view. The discussions of the opinion that *Fenton* is Shakspere's self, and of the topography of Windsor, are in the highest degree excellent. But in the very full notes one looks in vain for those "illustrations" which he is led to expect. They are usually sensible, but not often original or fresh with instruction. Sometimes the fatuity that seems to attend all commentators is to be found, as in the suggested emendation which, in the line, "half-stewed in grease, like a Dutch dish," would read *fish*. The interest shown in the puns is superfluous, as is the school-boy slang de-

scribing one of them as "tolerably bad"; and here and there, as so often happens, attention is attracted by explanation of words still common in America, as, for example, *taking*, both in the sense of *worry* and of *infectious*. The work, notwithstanding small defects, is the most complete, intelligent, and "up-to-date" edition of the play.

—In war history we have in this month's *Century* another instalment of General Grant's memoirs, in advance of the publication of the book, an article by General Longstreet on the campaign against Pope, with a lively paper by Mr. Redwood on a private soldier's experience in Stonewall Jackson's "foot cavalry." In addition to these formal articles, the "Memoranda" contain a number of comments and corrections of former papers, among which are two of considerable importance, viz.: Gen. W. F. Smith's statement regarding the maturing of plans for the reopening of communication with Chattanooga before General Grant assumed command there, and General Keyes's explanation of the actual organization and work of the rear guard of the Army of the Potomac, which he commanded on the retreat from Malvern Hill to Harrison's Landing. General Grant's chapter relates to his assumption of command as Lieutenant-General at the beginning of the Wilderness campaign in 1864. It is sharply and strongly characteristic, as everything from his pen has been. General Longstreet's paper is admirably written, making it hard to see how a more attractive presentation of the campaign of the "second Bull Run" could be made in the space assigned him. It contains some interesting revisions of statements formerly made by him, while maintaining in substance the views he expressed in the Porter investigation. His point of view is, of course, the Confederate one, and is based upon incomplete knowledge of Halleck's relations to Pope's movements, but is strikingly clear and unquestionably candid.

—A correspondent writes that in 1871 he went with an army paymaster on his tour of duty. An ambulance with soldiers met them in Nebraska at Grand Island Station and escorted them forty miles through an uninhabited country to Camp Ruggles on the Loup fork of the Platte. In paying the troops, the officer induced some of the men to accept certificates of deposit, with promise of interest, from the most reputable banker in Omaha, for something of their pay. He told his civilian companion that unless the privates laid up their money in some such way, it would directly burn a hole through their pockets. Safeguards against dissipation seemed absurd in such a wilderness, and in a camp where the severest penalties would be sure to smite a sutler who should sell anything stronger than boiled cider. Yet the very next morning most of the men who had made no deposits, and were not on duty, were discovered to be more or less dead drunk, and, of course, moneyless. Wherever the carcass is eagles gather; and so whiskey venders, dogging the steps of the paymaster, had broached their kegs in some neighboring lurking-place, and through sneaking go-betweens had enticed their victims from the camp. The paymaster, while glad that he had prevented something of that wilful waste which is mother of woful want, lamented that he had long labored in vain for organizing a soldiers' savings bank. The next winter that officer, Gen. Benjamin Alvord, became Paymaster-General, promoted to that position because Grant knew him to be, as Sherman had said, "as honest as God." He said that his advancement pleased him best because it would help him carry out his pet plan for the profit of private soldiers. His banking bill, disguised as "An act to prevent desertion, and to elevate the condition of the rank and file of the army," was passed, May 15, 1872. It provided that any sum from five dollars upwards should be received by paymasters, and receipted for, to be repaid on the depositor's discharge, with four per cent. interest for all sums amounting to fifty dollars—not liable for the soldier's debts, and only forfeitable in case of his desertion. It was added that, if he drew less than his allowance of clothing, its money value should be paid him with his deposit.

—After the lapse of six years Alvord, still Paymaster-General, reported the soldiers' deposits for the year ending June 30, 1878, as $346,243.94. This sum had been laid up by 5,524 men, or about one-fourth of all the enlisted men. The average for that year, which was $62 68 for each depositor, was greater by eleven dollars than that for the whole six years since the act passed. The number of desertions, also (1,672), in that year was less than in any previous year since the close of the war. Up to that time the deposits and interest had aggregated more than two millions. Three-fourths of a million remained on interest, and the rest had been disbursed to discharged soldiers, giving them a good start in civil life. Four years later, says the Secretary of War, "the enlisted men continue to a large extent to avail themselves of the deposit system, which it is believed encourages habits of economy and checks desertion." During the ten years it had been in operation the deposits had amounted to well-nigh four millions, more than one-fourth of which was still drawing interest. On the whole, Secretary Lincoln declared the experiment a signal success, and begged Congress to allow the officers to share in its benefits with enlisted men. Holding it good policy to encourage small deposits, he recommended that interest be allowed from its date on the minimum deposit, which is $5. Alvord saw the desire of his heart before going to his final rest.

—The death, in 1879, of that profound scholar and clear-headed statesman, Jón Sigurdsson, apparently left no one capable of filling his place as head of the Copenhagen section of the Icelandic Literary Society (Bókmentafèlag), an organization which, under his direction, became a centre of intellectual activity, and gave to the limited public which it served a continuous and carefully edited (if somewhat restricted) series of useful publications. The chauvinistic debates which followed his demise, relative to the transfer of the funds and collections of the Copenhagen section to Reykjavík, as well as the lack of efficacious executive control, have contributed to the cessation of the Society's old energy. Meanwhile a younger generation of Icelandic writers is coming on, and is seeking new avenues of publicity. The most prominent and promising of these are perhaps Björn Magnússen Ólsen and Thorvaldur Thoroddsen, both professors in the flourishing college at Reykjavík. The former was born in 1850, graduated at the college in 1869, and spent the next ten years at the University of Copenhagen and in travel, visiting even the countries of the Mediterranean. In 1879 he was appointed to his present chair, and by universal accord is regarded as the ultimate successor of the college's venerated rector, Dr. Jón Thorkelsson. Ólsen's first notable publication was in Danish, appearing as a separate reprint from the *Aarböger* of the Royal Society of Northern Antiquaries of Copenhagen in 1878. It comprised some acute observations on the chronology of Olaf Tryggvason's reign ('Kronologiske Bemærkninger om Olaf Tryggvason's Regeringshistorie'), and attracted the general notice of Scandinavian historical students. Soon after his return to Reykjavík he began to contribute to various periodicals, such as the *Árbók* of the Icelandic Archæological Society, the *Timarit*, a quarterly issued by the Reykjavík section of the Literary Society, Karl Bartsch's *Germania*, and the Norwegian *Archiv for nordisk Filologi*—his articles being either of an antiquarian or of a linguistic character, and always evincing mature scholarship. In 1883 the Arna-magnæan Commission published his 'Runerne i den oldislandske Literatur,' an exhaustive inquiry into the use of the Runic letters in Iceland during the saga period and before the introduction of the Latin alphabet. It was an ingenious effort, and showed, as do all of Ólsen's writings, an easy, fresh, and limpid style, and a logical and lucid arrangement of his material. To this succeeded, a year later, his best and largest work, likewise in Danish, brought out by the Copenhagen "Samfund til vdgivelse af gammel nordisk Literatur." It is an edition of the last two of the four ancient grammatical treatises which have come down to us as a part of that singular manual of skaldic verse known as the younger or prose Edda—Snorri Sturluson's Edda. The introduction is a systematic account of the grammatical literature of the 12th–14th centuries, Icelandic and foreign, so far as either illustrates the works under consideration. The texts of the two essays—the author of the first being Thórdr Sturluson (born about 1212), a member of Iceland's most illustrious family and nephew of Snorri, while the second is ascribed to Bergr Sokkason, who became abbot of the convent of Thverá in 1325—are based upon all the existing codices, and are accompanied by notes citing the sources consulted by the writers. These are principally the institutes of Priscian and the rudimentary syntactical rules which bear the name of Donatus, and, for the later treatise, the 'Doctrinale' of Alexander de Villa Dei and the 'Græcismus' of Ebrardus. Careful interpretations of the skaldic verses quoted as examples by the grammarians, and valuable indexes, complete what may be characterized as a model of text-editing. The same "Samfund" has now in press a similar edition by Ólsen of the 'Reykholtsmáldagi,' a valuable cartulary of the thirteenth century. Professor Ólsen has utilized the last two long vacations of summer in making excursions into various portions of Iceland for the purpose of collecting words and studying dialectic variations, with a view to the compilation of a complete grammar and lexicon of the new Icelandic. This field, in consequence of the engrossing interest of the old language and its literature, has hitherto been lamentably neglected.

—Thorvaldur Thoroddsen is a novel apparition in the literature of his native country—the first Icelandic scientist; for the title, in its broadest sense, can hardly be applied to either Björn Gunnlaugsson or the Hjaltalíns, who were virtually his sole predecessors. Born in 1855, he is a son of Jón Thoroddsen, author of 'Piltur og Stúlka,' the only strikingly original work of fiction yet produced in the island—a half-idyllic, half-humorous, but wholly faithful picture of Icelandic manners, which is constantly read and reread at home, and has been translated into Danish, Swedish, and German. Young Thoroddsen passed in 1875 from the Reykjavík College to the University of Copenhagen, where he devoted himself with great ardor to the natural sciences. Inheriting his father's literary facility, he became as early as 1878 a fertile contributor to various periodicals, among them the Icelandic *Andvari* and *Timarit*, the Danish *Geografisk Tidskrift*, the Swedish *Ymer*, and the proceedings of the Stockholm "Geologisk Forening," the London *Nature*, and the German Petermann's *Mittheilungen*. In these he has treated of the recent volcanic eruptions in Iceland, the lakes, mountains, and lava plains of the island, the effects of the Gulf Stream upon its coast-

line, vegetation and climate, the Greenlandic drift-ice, and many similar topics, always with the same astonishing thoroughness. Appointed in 1880 teacher of natural history in the technical school at Mödruvellir, he published in 1881 his 'Lysing Íslands,' which, though designed to be merely an elementary handbook to accompany a map prepared by a popular printing-club, is actually the best compact scientific description of Iceland. In the following year appeared at Copenhagen his 'Oversigt over de islandske Vulkaners Historie,' with maps, a bibliography, and a résumé in French, which threw a flood of light on the story of Iceland's thermal activity, and was reproduced in abstract by many of the geological and geographical journals of Europe. The Icelandic Althing, in the same year, made an appropriation for a natural history survey of the country, and intrusted its expenditure wholly to Thoroddsen. He accordingly spent the three following summers at work in different provinces, measuring heights, examining the endless heaths and tracts of lava, visiting glaciers and geysers, collecting plants, insects, geological specimens, correcting the maps of Iceland in innumerable particulars, discovering unknown valleys, lakes, and streams, and largely increasing the known flora, fauna, and mineral productions. As the results of his successive expeditions were partially made public, they aroused a general interest among European scientists, and Professor Lange and Count Strömfelt, of Copenhagen, Doctor Schierlitz, of Naples, and Doctor Schuster, of Vienna, with others, volunteered to relieve him in great part of the necessary laboratory work. His toilsome examination, in the warm months of 1884, of the immense lava desert (Ódádahraun) of Southern Iceland, possibly the most extensive in the world, and about which so much mystery and so many legends cluster, was a task rewarded by constantly occurring surprises. In a monograph of less than a hundred pages he has given a preliminary sketch of this land of black mists and gloomy tarns, of caverns and whitening bones, of whirlwinds of snow and storms of sand, of yawning craters and sulphurous morasses—the home of the *útilegumenn*, the fabled outlaws of the desert. The spring months of 1885 were passed in Leipsic, deducing and classifying his observations, and preparing for new journeys. During the summer he made a trip to Southern Italy to compare the volcanic structure, the sulphur-yielding *fumaroli*, and the hot springs of that region with those of Iceland, writing by the way a series of descriptive letters for a Reykjavík journal. In the meantime he had been transferred from the Mödruvellir School to the National College, and the Althing of this year had voted a liberal sum for the continuance of his investigations, which are ultimately to be embodied in a work embracing several volumes.

LOWE'S BISMARCK.

Prince Bismarck: An Historical Biography. By Charles Lowe, M.A. Vol. I. From Waterloo to Versailles. Vol. II. The German Empire. Cassell & Co. 1886.

It would not be easy to find an historic character whose career, superficially regarded, displays more inconsistencies than that of Prince Bismarck. When he first appears in public life, at the age of thirty-two, he is a Tory of the Tories, a champion of the divine right of kings, strenuous in his opposition to every grant of political power to the people. He is the admirer and defender of Austria, because Austria is the chief bulwark of European conservatism. Within less than twenty years, this Austrophil forces a reluctant king and a protesting people into war with Austria; this advocate of *jure divino* sovereignty despoils three German princes of their crowns; this enemy of popular liberty establishes a German Parliament based upon manhood suffrage. Not less striking is his change of front upon numerous minor questions. In 1847, for example, Bismarck is opposed, upon religious grounds, to the emancipation of the Jews and to civil marriage; upon economic grounds, to artificially stimulating the industries of the nation. In 1869 he accepts a law abolishing all religious disabilities; in 1873 he supports a law establishing compulsory civil marriages; and in 1879 he carries through Parliament a protective tariff.

But, given the true point of view, the careful student of Bismarck's career will find it thoroughly consistent. Every act of Bismarck's official life, from his appointment in 1851 to represent Prussia at Frankfort, has been in perfect accord with a single dominant motive—the establishment of a strong Germany under the hegemony of Prussia. With him all other purposes have been secondary to this; and to this supreme end all inconsistent secondary aims, however dear to him, have been sacrificed. His minor aims have never influenced even the choice of the means by which his chief end was to be accomplished. Bismarck entered public life with as many and as firmly-rooted opinions and prejudices as any educated man of his time. There is no evidence that he has changed his opinions or abandoned his prejudices upon any important matter. There is abundant evidence to the contrary. But, however strong his predisposition, it seems never to have colored his view of any practical question. Given a thing to do, he has always seen and chosen the best—*i. e.*, the most efficient—means of doing it. Such perfect mental achromatism arouses in the ordinary mind a mixed feeling of admiration and repulsion. The latter emotion finds expression in charges of inconsistency and unscrupulousness; both feelings are blended in the French reproach of Bismarck as a "realist."

The history of such a man should be written objectively, without zeal and without hate, as the plans and achievements of Cæsar Borgia—no comparison between Bismarck and Borgia being intended—were described by Machiavelli. To praise or to blame is alike dangerous, particularly when the man whose deeds are described stands so near the historian. It cannot be said that Mr. Lowe has written such a biography. He is visibly under the charm of Bismarck's genius. But he has come nearer to writing such a book than any of the Chancellor's previous biographers; for these have written either from a German or from an anti-German point of view—*i. e.*, either with unbounded zeal or ill-disguised hate. Mr. Lowe has the advantage of his nationality. An Englishman is less touched by the warring political interests of Europe than any other European, and is to just that extent better able to describe impartially the career of the man who has changed the face of the Continent.

But however impartial the writer, a wholly satisfactory life of Bismarck cannot be written until the historian obtains the original material which is still secreted in the state-archives of Germany and its neighbors. It is probable that the greater part of this material will remain inaccessible for half a century. The recent publication of Bismarck's despatches from Frankfort (1851–59) was generally regarded as a breach of diplomatic usage, although the events of 1866 had made the affairs of the old Federal Diet ancient history. For the period since 1859 we have only isolated state papers, made public by chance or for special purposes. Fortunately for the historian, Bismarck has always regarded the publication of his own and his enemies' correspondence as a most efficient instrument of diplomatic warfare, and has availed himself of such arms more freely than the traditions of diplomacy authorize. To this we owe the publication of Benedetti's notes and drafts of treaties (1866–67), of Bismarck's notes to the Curia in 1880, and of the English-German correspondence on colonial matters in 1884. In his speeches, also, Bismarck has frequently astonished the German Diet and the European courts with disclosures of singular frankness. Finally, Bismarck's publications and speeches have regularly called forth counter-revelations of a more or less interesting character. Mr. Lowe has made diligent study and excellent use of all this material, and, so far as we can see, of all other sources of information; and has given, on the whole, a clearer and more intelligible history of Bismarck's public life than any of the Prince's other biographers.

Bismarck's youth and early manhood (chapter i), and his parliamentary career (chapters ii and iii) are described with judiciously sparing use of the numerous anecdote-biographies produced by German admirers. His diplomatic activity at Frankfort (chapter iv) and at St. Petersburg and Paris (chapter v) is set forth with due subordination of the minor details to the point of central importance—his growing hostility to Austria, and his preparations for an anti-Austrian policy. With his acceptance of the Minister-Presidency of Prussia (1862) begins the "conflict-time" (chapters vi and vii). The author employs this phrase in a wider sense than the accepted usage justifies. By the "Conflictzeit" Germans mean the period during which Bismarck, confronted by a parliamentary majority which did not understand his aims and to which he could not explain them, governed, in defiance of the spirit and intent of the Constitution, without a budget. The fact that the Danish and Austrian wars fall in the same period does not, according to the accepted meaning of the word, make these wars a part of the (constitutional) "Conflikt."

Mr. Lowe's description of the Schleswig-Holstein imbroglio is clear and accurate, but he fails to see, or at least to make the reader see, how much of the darkness surrounding this famous question is due to the tortuous policy of the Prussian Minister-President, and in particular to the way in which he played fast and loose with the London Treaty of 1852. His object, of course, was to get possession of the duchies, and to do this he had to shut out both the Danish and Augustenburg claimants. To exclude Denmark, it was necessary to repudiate the London Treaty; to exclude the Augustenburg prince, it was necessary to recognize it. The London settlement was therefore recognized at the beginning of the war, repudiated during the negotiations for peace, and set up again, after the cession of the duchies to Prussia and Austria, as the legal basis of their (derivative) title.

In describing the attitude of Napoleon III. before and during the Austrian war of 1866, our author fails to recognize that the French Emperor was actuated by any but the most practical and materialistic considerations. It is doubtless true that Napoleon thought Austria stronger than Prussia, and believed that the extension of Prussian influence in Germany would create a more perfect balance of power. It is doubtless true that he expected some reward from Prussia for his support—something in the way of a German Savoy. But it is also true that Napoleon was in part controlled by more idealistic motives. The author of the 'Idées Napoléoniennes' believed in the reorganization of Europe according to the "principle of nationality," and thought that it would be better for France to help on this inevitable result than to oppose it. This side of the Emperor's policy has been most clearly brought out by Leroy-Beaulieu, in his 'L'Empereur Napoléon III. et la Politique du Second Empire.' The fact that the two sides of Napoleon's policy were absolutely and fatally antago-

nistic—that the attempt to gain territorial cessions from a unified Germany would bring him into immediate conflict with the "principle of nationality" and the new nation—this fact does not make it any the less true that Napoleon remained half politician and half dreamer until roughly awakened by Sadowa, and that the Napoleonic dreams formed an important element in Bismarck's calculations.

In Mr. Lowe's account of the Prussian negotiations with France and the South-German States after Sadowa, he misses one of the cleverest and most characteristic points of Bismarck's diplomacy. France demanded the improvement of her eastern frontier by the cession of Prussian and South-German territory. Benedetti put the French propositions into writing on the 5th of August. Bismarck negotiated with the South-German States with Benedetti's propositions in his pocket. He demanded at first not only heavy war-indemnities but considerable cessions of territory. The South-German States appealed to France for protection, and the French Government directed Benedetti to use his good offices in their behalf. Bismarck thereupon revealed to the Bavarian plenipotentiary (Von der Pfordten) the fact that Benedetti had asked Prussia to consent to the seizure by France of the entire Bavarian palatinate. This revelation was accompanied by the offer of an offensive and defensive alliance, and a great reduction of Prussia's previous demands. Confronted with conclusive evidence of France's perfidy, the South-German States had no alternative; they accepted the Prussian terms (August 22). Mr. Lowe entirely confounds cause and effect in his account of these negotiations. He makes it appear that Bismarck, alarmed by the French demands, sought alliances with the South-German States, and to obtain these alliances materially modified his terms of peace. But that these alliances were obtained by the revelation of the French demands—this he does not seem to know.

In the remaining chapters of the first volume the author describes the organization of the North-German Confederation, the increasing tension between Prussia and France, and the Franco-German war. The second volume treats of the foreign and domestic policy of the Chancellor from the establishment of the Empire to the spring of 1885. The events described are of less dramatic interest than those narrated in the first volume, but not of less importance; and this part of Mr. Lowe's work is the more valuable because no other English book covers the same ground. In this, as in the preceding volume, the author shows a familiarity with German politics which can have been acquired only by long residence in Germany, and which greatly increases the value of his book. Very naïve, however, is the remark made in the preface, that "when any constitutional controversy is agitating the Parliaments of Berlin," English readers need only turn to the translations of the Prussian and Imperial Constitutions (printed in the appendix) in order to "at once perceive on which side lies the balance of right and wrong." Were Mr. Lowe's nationality otherwise in doubt, this sentence would reveal it. Only in a land governed by unwritten usage is such faith to be found in the certainty of written law.

The author seems to be perfectly familiar with the German language. We have found him at fault but once; and then the German idiom is veiled in dog-Latin:

"'The King,' said Bismarck one day, 'still has his difficulties between "German Emperor" and "Emperor of Germany," but he rather inclines to the latter. I cannot see much difference between the two. It is a little like the question of the Homousians and the Homoioousians, in the days of the Councils.' On another occasion, when the conversation drifted into a learned discussion on the same subject, Bismarck asked: 'Does any gentleman know the Latin for sausage?' '*Farcimentum*,' replied one. '*Farcimen*,' said another. '*Farcimentum* or *farcimen*, whichever you please,' said the chief, smiling; '*nescio quid mihi magis farcimentum esset*' (I don't know which of the two I should consider the more made-up name)" (Vol. I., p. 613.)

If Mr. Lowe had first translated Bismarck's Latin back into the German in which Bismarck was thinking, he would then, doubtless, have seen the meaning of the sentence. "Ich weiss nicht welches (von den Beiden) mir mehr Wurst wäre" means "I don't know which of the two is more indifferent to me."

Mr. Lowe's familiarity with the German language is in fact so great that it has bred in him an apparent contempt for his own, which he disfigures with numerous Teutonisms; *e. g.*, "had the *brow* to argue," "all but opening a *pulse-vein*," and other similar expressions. The author's English is often exceedingly faulty, and his style is at times turgid and at other times overcolloquial. Occasionally he shows that he can express himself tersely and clearly, and that the prevailing viciousness of his style is due to carelessness. It can be nothing but carelessness when Bismarck is described as quoting "*Wheatstone* and Kent." "Wheatstone" appears to be a composite mental photograph of Wheaton and Story. Mr. Lowe's carelessness about his diction and about such little matters as the name of a great American jurist is the more unfortunate because the reader is always inclined to infer that a carelessly written book is not likely to have been carefully prepared. In this case the inference would be unjust. Mr. Lowe has studied the sources of information at present available with great care; has arranged and presented the results of his investigation with no little art and skill; and has written not merely a very readable book, but a very creditable history of Bismarck and his times.

BANCROFT'S ALASKA.

The Works of Hubert Howe Bancroft. History of Alaska. 1730-1885. Vol. xxxiii, 8vo, xxxviii, 773 pp. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.; New York: J. C. Derby & Son. 1886.

THE task set himself by Mr. Bancroft, beginning with his 'Native Races' and continued in the historical series of which this volume forms a part, is truly prodigious. His methods are not concealed, and, whether they be deemed adequate to the production of the best type of historical work or not, it would be difficult to devise other methods by which his desired result could be attained within the compass of a lifetime. The elimination of the personal equation of subordinate compilers must always be a task of difficulty, and upon success in this particular the homogeneity and literary quality of the product must depend. When, as in the present instance, the rough-hewing of much of the material has necessarily been confided to one pair of hands, a Russian translator, the personal equation becomes an element which fairly forces itself upon the analytical reviewer. Its effect upon the work, beneficial, or otherwise, will be considered later. Putting this aside, there can be no question as to the value and importance of the volume for all engaged in historical studies, and especially when the lapse of time shall have given an historical perspective to the later scenes of its panorama.

Mr. Bancroft remarks in the preface—"Almost untenanted except by savages, can a country without a people furnish material for a history?" a question which he answers: "This America of the Russians has its little century or two of history, . . . interesting to the story of future life and progress on its borders, as to every nation its infancy should be." Can we paint in a few bold strokes the initiation and the impact of the premonitory groundswell of civilization on these rock-bound shores? It began, like the earthquake waves of Krakatoa, in a far-distant land. The interests and passions involved in the conquest of Siberia, the flood of patriotism, avarice, ambition, duty, lust, and the spirit of adventure—embodied in a horde of coarse and sturdy Cossacks—its sluices shattered by the sword of Yermak, swept eastward across half a world of tundra, and only culminated on the further borders of the North Pacific. Arrived at the Kamtchatkan seaboard, the return of the enfeebled remnants of Bering's expedition gave the signal to which the Siberian traders responded like an advancing column of predatory ants. In frail shallops, tied together with strips of raw hide and calked with moss, they pushed out into the almost unknown sea to the islands of the sea otter and fur seal. Blood and rapine marked their tracks. Individuals or whole companies bit the dust beneath the darts of the savage, hurled in desperate but ineffectual resistance. But the progress of the column was not stayed. Fortunes were grasped, of which ocean, by shipwreck, took toll. With success came internal conflict; as the supply of fur animals became precarious, different expeditions fought for territory. The craft of the merchant took up its rôle of conciliator, or monopolizer, and the power of law, the influence of rulers, began to make itself felt. Exploring expeditions were organized, information reached high places, the Russian American Company came into existence by imperial will. This great monopoly, like its counterparts in Hudson Bay or the East Indies, represented another stage of the tide, with myriad fluctuations. It found its Warren Hastings in Alexander Baranoff, a bankrupt Siberian trader, who for thirty years controlled its destinies. Shrewd, far-sighted, energetic, unsparing of himself in service, liberal in potations, coarse of life, but of unshaken probity, this man raised towns and villages, fought savages and mutinous Russians, built a fleet of sea-going ships, established stations from Bering Sea to California; would, but for mishaps, have annexed the Sandwich Islands; laid a basis for trade with American and Asiatic ports, enabled the regular payment of dividends by his company, and died at Batavia on his way to Russia, poor and superseded, in his seventy-second year.

To the natural difficulties of his position were added the scarcity of supplies, often cut off by shipwreck; innumerable quarrels of subordinates; difficulties with imperial officials bent on reforms, or with missionary priests hardly less coarse-fibred than himself, and the insulting conduct of naval officers to him as a man not ennobled. Foreign traders came upon the coast, largely from the United States, and carried off cargoes of valuable furs, besides raising prices. In the main, this indomitable man conquered his way, and, rude and brutal as he was at times, must be acknowledged to have been of no ordinary calibre. After Baranoff's reign the internal affairs of the company were much after the usual rule of great monopolies. Reforms were instituted; a better class of officers improved the colonial direction. Explorations of a rude sort were carried far and wide. A saint, large-hearted and of mighty frame, appeared in the person of the missionary Veniaminoff. Naval officers and naturalists enlarged the boundaries of knowledge. The scientific Wrangell governed wisely and investigated widely. Annual ships circumnavigated the globe, and, after a fashion, the pulse of Cronstadt was felt at New Archangel. Politics concerned with the northwest coast

were discussed in Europe and reacted on colonial affairs. Foreign exploring expeditions followed the lead of Cook and Vancouver. An impracticable boundary line was devised by treaty. Trade fluctuated; charges of mismanagement were frequent at court. In brief, after investigations and recriminations, terms offered and declined, the charter of the Company lapsed in 1862 and was not renewed. Business was carried on for a few more years, and in 1867 the Territory became the property of the United States.

The list of authorities preceding the text of this volume, though bibliographically somewhat slovenly, is full enough for most purposes, and is especially rich in MS. titles. From these, and from a host of original Russian sources, the history of the early adventurers has been extracted with remarkable fulness. There is not in any European language so thorough and minute a record of this period, and it is never likely to be much improved upon. There may be inaccuracies, but the original sources are frequently inaccurate. Moreover, with rare exceptions, the story is well told, and one does not need a microscope to perceive that the compiler has felt a personal pride in the sturdy endurance of his countrymen. For any one not interested in the region, the annals of these multitudinous petty expeditions soon become tedious; but the spirit shown in the narration has made readable even this chronicle of misery, adventure, and crime. The struggles of Baranoff with adverse fortune enlist the sympathies of the reader, but at last the small details of the Company's business become almost repellant. Nevertheless, it is a task on the whole well accomplished, and that this storehouse of facts should have been gathered and presented in a readable tongue is highly creditable to the historian and his staff.

It would seem, from the manner in which the work has been done, that Mr. Bancroft's plan did not contemplate a comprehensive history of the exploration of Alaska, or at least not in this volume. Only on this hypothesis can we account for the omission or barely casual mention of some of the more important voyages of discovery and exploring expeditions by land. The North Pacific exploring expedition under Rodgers, the long series of Franklin search expeditions, which added so much to our knowledge of the region, are only referred to where they touch upon Russian affairs, if at all. The Western Union Telegraph expedition, so important in its results, not only for its relation to exploration, but its bearing on the subsequent purchase and development of the Territory, is dismissed in three pages—a space less than that assigned to the discussion of some petty blackmailers of the Alaska Commercial Company. Many later explorers fare still worse.

That part of the work referring to the history of the Territory since the American occupation is treated in a most unsatisfactory manner and with evident bias. It is in any event rather too near the present time for successful treatment, and had better have been omitted. A large mass of facts has been collected, but their sequence and relation to each other and to the circumstances of the time are not indicated in a satisfactory way, and there are many important omissions and not a few errors. Of the latter we indicate a portion. The naturalist, Robert Kennicott, in charge of the Yukon explorations, did not die before the expedition set out (p. 576), but in May, 1866, after it had been in the field some nine months. A statement by W. G. Morris, to the effect that in 1868 there were four or five companies engaged in sealing on the Pribiloff Islands, that the commander of one of them would not work his men on Sunday, etc., is ridiculed (p. 637, note 14), and it is stated that there were but two companies in the business. The truth is, that in August, 1868, the Pioneer Fur Co., Taylor & Bendel, and Hutchinson, Kohl & Co., together with parties left by a fourth expedition, were sealing on St. George, represented severally by Messrs. Fisher, Adams, Liuneffski, and Howes; while on the island of St. Paul, Hutchinson, Kohl & Co. and E. Morgan, the latter assisted by Mr. Pfluger, of Petropavlovsk, were in operation. Captain Morgan was the person who would not work his men on Sunday. A number of these parties subsequently united their interests, but this did not take place until later, and they all landed on the islands as independent expeditions in the spring of 1868. The first paper printed in Alaska was called the *Alaska Times*, and not (p. 677) the *Sitka Times*. No new island rose from the sea north of Umnak in 1820, or thereabouts (p. 684), and the statement, by Peter Kostromittinoff, "an octogenarian," in 1880, that he witnessed an event which took place in 1796, was doubtless due to a failure of memory on his part, which, as stated in the footnote (No. 28), "will not bear quoting." No mention is made of the Territorial Convention of August 16, 1881, followed by the election, September 5, of a delegate, Col. M. D. Ball, to represent the interests of the Territory at Washington, which, as the first united action of the white inhabitants of Alaska, has certainly an historic interest.

On page 732 we read as follows: "The middle Yukon, as far as the junction of that river with the Porcupine and the Lower Yukon, extending from this point to the delta, had already been explored, as we have seen (*sic*), by the servants of the Russian American Company, who occasionally ascended above Fort Yukon, and only one, a half-breed (Ivan Lukeen), ever ascended above the junction of the Yukon and the Tananah. The uncivil allusion to Lieutenant Schwatka in this connection is entirely unwarranted by any Russian explorations. The intimation that the liquor commonly called "hoochinoo" was introduced by the Americans, is also an error. It was well known to the Russians long before the sale of the Territory, and a regulation of the Russian American Company imposed a penalty on any one of their servants who should make it.

A rock of difficulty for any one dealing with Alaskan matters exists in the transliteration of the Russian nomenclature. In the present case, Mr. Bancroft is to be congratulated for the, on the whole, very satisfactory manner in which this task has been accomplished. The only constant error we have noticed is the omission of the *h* in Unalashka. Occasional lapses are found, as on p. 684, where we have *Oumnak*, *Unalaska*, and *Oonimak* in the course of six lines, but these are creditably rare. The endeavor to transliterate exactly, which adopts Petr for Peter and Pavel for Paul, should hardly admit Wrangell for Vrangel on the same basis.

The maps in the text are fairly good, but the general Alaskan map is not worthy of the text; its nomenclature is discrepant; it contains several glaring blunders; in omitting the Diomede Islands, the Kowak River, and all the later explorations, it is lamentably out of date. This is probably due in part to its having been engraved some years before the text was completed.

DR. F. E. ABBOT'S PHILOSOPHY.

Organic Scientific Philosophy: Scientific Theism. By Francis Ellingwood Abbot, Ph.D. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1885.

Dr. Abbot is one of the many thinkers who believe that science is destined to produce a theism, and he belongs also to the smaller number who think that it is already possible to say what that doctrine shall be. Considerably more than half of his 'Scientific Theism' is taken up with the proof that the world is intelligible; but this lengthy and metaphysical argumentation will convince nobody for whom very simple considerations would not have sufficed. How is it that one who believes he has the message of a new religion to announce to humanity should choose so roundabout a way of setting it forth? The following is one of the author's own summaries of his line of argument:

"1. Because the universe is in some measure actually known in human science, it must be in itself both absolutely self-existent and infinitely intelligible: that is, it must be a noumenon because it is a phenomenon.

"2. Because it is infinitely intelligible, it must be likewise infinitely intelligent.

"3. Because it is at the same time both infinitely intelligible and infinitely intelligent, it must be an infinite subject-object or self-conscious intellect.

"4. Because it is an infinitely intelligible object, it must possess throughout an immanent relational constitution.

"5. Because it possesses an infinitely intelligible relational constitution, it must be an absolutely perfect system.

"6. Because it is an absolutely perfect system, it cannot be an infinite machine, but must be an infinite organism.

"7. Because it is an infinite organism, its life principle must be an infinite immanent Power, acting everywhere and always by organic means for organic ends, and subordinating every event to its own infinite life: in other words, it must be infinite Will directed by infinite Wisdom.

"8. Because it is an infinite organism, its existent organic end disappears as such, but reappears as infinite Love of itself and infinite Love of the finite.

"9. Because it is an infinite organism, its immanent organic end appears as the eternal realization of the ideal, and therefore as infinite Holiness.

"10. Because, as an infinite organism, it thus manifests infinite Wisdom, Power, and Goodness, or thought, feeling, and will in their infinite fulness, and because these three constitute the essential manifestations of personality, it must be conceived as Infinite Person, Absolute Spirit, Creative Source, and Eternal Home of the derivative finite personalities which depend upon it, but are no less real than itself."

If this last conclusion really follows from the original premise, why need the proof have been so long? It is not like a geometrical demonstration, where there is a complicated diagram, every part of which has to be separately considered. In this case the premise is as simple a fact as can be—that something is known; the conclusion that the universe is an infinite person is also not very complex, and the intricacy of the argument to connect them affords ground for a suspicion that there is a fallacy somewhere. It would be a flattery of metaphysics to say that its history gives any warrant for holding that no more than one deduction in ten as plausible as the above turns out to be fallacious; and therefore the probability that there is no fallacy in the whole of the above chain of ten consequences is only 9-10ths to the tenth power, which is about 1-3. In advance of the verdict of posterity, then, the odds are two to one against Dr. Abbot's argument being sound. The subtlety of Nature, as Bacon says, far exceeds that of the human mind, and has a way of eluding our *must-bes*. To look no further than Dr. Abbot's first consequence, may it not be that nature is sufficiently intelligible to account for the degree of success that natural science has met with, without being necessarily *infinitely* intelligible?

The religion of the book seems to be only an appendage to a system of metaphysics. Whether true or false, this system is certainly valuable as presenting Objectivism, or the doctrine of an existence over against thought, in its extremest form. Its most striking philosophical charac-

teristic is an energetic dualism. It makes the fundamental doctrines of philosophy consist in distinctions, crystalline, sharp, and unyielding; and the oppositions of things to which these distinctions refer go down to the bottom of being. The appearance and the thing are sundered by an impassable gulf, and the element of concrete outward reaction in sense and volition is much more emphasized than in other philosophical theories. The same spirit affects the author's whole style of thought and writing, which is clear and hard, and impels him to destroy every opposing tendency of thought "root and branch," instead of imitating other recent revolutionizers of philosophy in wishing to show that the error need only to receive complete development in order to be turned to the truth. Everything like uniting the members of his main distinctions by insensible gradations, by a deeper underlying unity, or by any mediating cause, except the Divine Mind which creates the relations but not the related things, is foreign to his idea.

Dr. Abbot holds that things, as they are known to physical science, possess absolute existence in themselves, not relative to or dependent upon thought of any kind. He holds that the relations of these things are hard facts, equally independent of all thought. There seems, however, to be some vagueness in his theory of relations, for on page 28 he seems to say that relations are something over and above the related things—"things and relations constitute two great distinct orders of objective reality"; while on page 63 we are told that "the affirmation of the objectivity of the relation [must not be misconceived] as an affirmation that the relation is an entity apart from the things it relates." He holds that relations inhere in groups; but whether the existence of these groups consists in the existence of the relations, or the existence of the relations consists in that of the groups, or whether groups form a third order of reality distinct alike from things and relations, he does not inform us. And it will be one of his difficulties that his system, from the nature of it, at once opens a multitude of questions of this sort, the consideration of which cannot be shirked. The author is so remarkably loath to admit mediation that he will not admit there is any such thing as a symbolical conception (p. 139):

"The universal notion, or concept proper, is a pure thought-system of relations, reproducing only the objective system of relations of resemblance among many individuals—never the image or mental picture of one individual."

The doctrine seems to be that the relations are reproduced, without being embodied in any diagram, as "concepts of relations, dropping out of consideration the things related." The knowledge of relations depends upon a special "perceptive use of the understanding." This view, although it is not adequately set forth, is the centre of all that is original in the book, and is sure to excite a fruitful discussion of the question of the mode of our discernment of relations. Of all the sciences—at least of those whose reality no one disputes—mathematics is the one which deals with relations in the abstractest form; and it never deals with them except as embodied in a diagram or construction, geometrical or algebraical. The mathematical study of a construction consists in experimenting with it; after a number of such experiments, their separate results suddenly become united in one rule, and our immediate consciousness of this rule is our discernment of the relation. It is a strong secondary sensation, like the sense of beauty. To call it a perception may perhaps be understood as implying that to discern each special relation requires a special faculty, or determination of our nature. But it should not be overlooked that we come to it by a process analogous to induction.

The one great argument which Doctor Abbot uses to support his "noumenism," as he calls it, is that the existence of natural science supposes it. But the physicist always talks and thinks of phenomena or appearances, and makes not the slightest pretension to have anywhere got down to the noumena, bottom facts, or ultimate subjects of appearances. He discovers, for instance, that air is viscous, and viscosity is a non-conservative force. It is a reality; but yet, according to the physicist, only a phenomenal reality. Matter in itself is not viscous: but this phenomenon is due to the air being composed of countless molecules moving very rapidly in nearly rectilinear paths. These molecules themselves are not necessarily the bottom subjects; they may be mere systems of atoms, which in turn may be merely phenomena due to the vortex-motions of an underlying fluid. This fluid may come to be studied in time, and physicists will be quite prepared to learn that it again is only phenomenal. The physicist certainly holds that he reaches real facts, which no more depend upon anybody's thought of them for their existence than the coach in the fable depended on the fly for its motion. For example, he holds this to be true of the laws of the mixture of colors. These laws are realities, which remain what they are whatever our opinions about them may be. But to say this, is not to say that the colors themselves are anything more than appearances. Further, altho gh science must hold the facts it discovers to be independent of the opinion of any person or persons, it by no means follows that it need insist on their being independent of the final upshot of sufficient investigation, nor that it need hold them to be independent of the creative thought of the Deity. As yet, science does not decide either for or against any of the current systems of philosophy. Some are undoubtedly more in harmony with its spirit than others; but we can hardly reckon among the former a theory so averse to the conceptions of the differential calculus, and so prone to hard and discrete distinctions, as the one we have noticed. It is, however, a strongly characterized and scholarly piece of work, doing honor to American thought; and it is much to be desired that the world should see the system developed in its entirety.

Myrtilla Miner: a Memoir. By Ellen M. O'Connor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885.

The Story of Archer Alexander: From Slavery to Freedom, March 30, 1863. By William G. Eliot. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. 1885.

THESE two monographs may be read where larger histories of the anti-slavery epoch would pass unheeded, and each will serve to excite the reader's wonder and pity, and to strengthen his humane instincts. Miss Miner was a native of this State—a New Englander "once removed," as we may say, her father having been born in Norwich, Conn. She educated herself with the greatest resolution and the greatest difficulty, both on account of her poverty and of her frail physique, and began to teach, first at the North and afterward, for a short time, at the South, where she imbibed a horror of slavery. Mrs. O'Connor leaves much to be desired (by herself as well as by her readers, we dare say) in precision of dates, but, as well as we can make out, an interval of seventeen years elapsed between her return from Mississippi and her first steps toward setting up a school in 1851 in the District of Columbia for free colored children. The hardihood of this attempt can be realized only by those who have paid some attention to anti-slavery history, and Miss Miner necessarily encountered bitter opposition and no little persecution. Her case has been likened to Prudence Crandall's, and there was some similarity in their treatment, though Miss Miner's was the milder, and in place of a Quaker non-resistance she was prepared to defend herself with arms, and let herself be "seen practising shooting with a pistol," and again at an open window with a pointed revolver. In time, the benevolent came to her support and gave her enterprise a solid backing, and in 1863 the school was made an incorporated institution, and is now the flourishing Miner Normal School and a part of the colored school system of the District. It marks the gain to Washington which the war and freedom brought, that the square of ground purchased by Miss Miner in 1853 for $4,000 was sold in 1872 by the corporators for $40,000. Unhappily an accident on the Pacific coast in 1864 proved fatal to the heroic founder.

Dr. Eliot, a revered clergyman of St. Louis, bases his narrative, at once charming and pathetic, on the bronze group in Washington representing Lincoln emancipating a kneeling slave, of which a replica is set up in Boston. This slave is a portrait of Archer Alexander, "as correct as that of Mr. Lincoln himself," and Archer was "the last fugitive slave captured under civil law in Missouri." Dr. Eliot's narrative possesses absorbing interest, and in a literary point of view merits high praise. He closes it with chapters on slavery in the Border States and on Elijah P. Lovejoy, illustrating his general statement that, "notwithstanding the comparative humanity of slavery as an institution in Missouri, I can truthfully say that there is nothing in all the scenes of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' as given by Mrs. Stowe, to which I cannot find a parallel in what I have myself seen and known in St. Louis itself, previously to the war of secession." An appendix recalls the declarations of Methodist, Baptist, and Presbyterian churches "that the separation of husband and wife under the laws of slavery, by the removal of either party, was to be regarded as 'civil death,' sundering the bonds, and leaving both parties free to make another marriage contract." On the irregular authorization of the Western Sanitary Commission by General Frémont, Dr. Eliot remarks: "It is my confident opinion, from familiarity with all the facts at the time, that it his emancipation order had been equally sustained, notwithstanding its alleged irregularity, instead of being countermanded with censure, the State of Missouri would have been saved from more than two years of destructive guerilla warfare."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Amiel's Journal. Translated by Mrs. Humphry Ward. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Armstrong's Primer of English History, for School and Family Use. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
A Crimson Stain. Cassell & Co. 25 cents.
Bates, C. R. The Diacritical Speller. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 50 cents.
Butler, F. G. History of Farmington, Me., from the Earliest Explorations to the Present Time. 1776-1885. Farmington: Knowlton, McLeary & Co.
Caron, P. French Dishes for American Tables. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Clarke, J. F. Ten Great Religions. New ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 2 vols. $4.
Davidson, J. W. The Correspondent. D. Appleton & Co. 60 cents.
Froude, J. A. Oceana: or, England and her Colonies. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Genone, H. Inquirendo Island. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Greene, B. Reflections and Modern Maxims. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Gillespie, Rev. C. G. K. Revision Reasons. I. The Pentateuch. London: John Heywood.
Gillig, C. A. New Guide to London. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Gneist, Dr. R. The History of the English Constitution. Translated by Philip A. Ashworth. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $8.
Gréville, H. Markof the Russian Violinist. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers.
Harley, Rev. T. Moon Lore. London: Sonnenschein: Philadelphia; J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.75.
Jacob Schuyler's Millions: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Lee, S. L. Stories of Provence. From the French of Alphonse Daudet. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Lord, A. M. A Book of Verses. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Lotze, H. Outlines of Psychology. Translated by G. T. Ladd. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Lyman, H. M. Insomnia and Other Disorders of Sleep. Chicago: W. T. Keener.
Mother's Songs, Games, and Stories. Translated from Froebel by Frances and Emily Lord. London: William Rice & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 18, 1886.

The Week.

THE Republican majority in the Senate are still backing and filling about the confirmation of nominations made to fill vacancies caused by the removal of the previous incumbents. It is now two months and a half since Congress met, and yet the Senate has reached no decision. The trouble appears to be that the Republicans want to score a partisan advantage by insisting upon publicity on the President's part regarding the causes for which he made the changes, and yet fear that they would lose more than they would gain as a party by thorough-going publicity, with the consideration of everything bearing upon the subject in open session which that involves. The Republican Senators might as well understand that the public will be satisfied with no half-way business in the matter. It may support them in insisting upon knowing what the public records show in any case where an official has been removed; but when they call for these facts as something to which, as representatives of the people, they are entitled, they are bound to keep the facts before the people when they get them. It will not do for them to claim that the President must send them the papers, and yet announce that they will conceal the papers in executive session.

Meanwhile it is interesting and encouraging to note that the standard of appointments by the President is raised rather than lowered, as the months pass by. Mr. Cleveland is a man who is not ashamed to learn wisdom from his mistakes. Take his course with reference to the chief offices in New England as an illustration. A few weeks after his inauguration he was persuaded by Democratic politicians who abused his confidence to appoint Pillsbury, Chase, and Troup as internal-revenue collectors in Massachusetts, Maine, and Connecticut. The protests of the better class of citizens showed their effect when the President came to fill such important offices as the Boston Collectorship and the Massachusetts District-Attorneyship; his selections of Leverett Saltonstall for the former position and of George M. Stearns for the latter having been so excellent as to extort hearty commendation from even the most narrow-minded Republican organs. The same thing holds true throughout the country. The average level of appointments during the second half-year of the Administration is distinctly higher than during the first six months. This is shown by the fact that whenever the Republican organs set out to make a list of the bad appointments, they fill it up chiefly from the first few weeks after the 4th of last March, and always cite Pillsbury and Higgins as the worst cases. The Congressional canvass of the fall of 1886 is approaching, and the chief ammunition in the way of appointments which the Republican organs find available consists of a few bad selections in the spring of 1885.

Mr. Morrison's new tariff bill is a much less radical measure than that recommended by the Hayes-Oliver Commission three years ago, but it promises some relief to oppressed industries and burdened taxpayers. It will not meet the approval of Professor Thompson, of the University of Pennsylvania, because it removes the taxes from a number of raw materials instead of increasing them. The same objection was raised against the Hayes-Oliver Commission. The Morrison bill does not put so many articles on the free list as the Hayes-Oliver bill did, but it puts in more important ones—such, for instance, as salt, timber, and iron, copper and lead ores. The other changes in the bill do not make an average reduction equal to that proposed by the Hayes-Oliver Commission, which recommended knocking off 20 to 25 per cent., but Mr. Morrison's are very carefully made with a view to relieving manufacturing industry of its more manifest burdens. It is an extremely conservative measure, the most radical feature being the reduction of 25 per cent. on sugar and molasses. This is a feature which cannot be altogether commended, since it cuts $10,000,000 out of the revenue at once, and at a time when expenditures, especially for pensions, are on the increase. The margin between revenue and expenditure is now very narrow, and it happens at a time when the House of Representatives are bullying the Secretary of the Treasury in reference to what they call the surplus, pressing him to pour it out as fast as possible.

The reply of the Secretary of the Treasury to the inquiry of the Committee of Ways and Means, asking his opinion on the proposed joint resolution directing the payment of the "surplus or balance" in the Treasury in excess of $100,000,000 on the public debt, is a very clear and very dignified statement of the financial conditions which constrain him to be cautious in lowering his reserve fund. It is humiliating in the extreme that he should be called upon to answer any such question. No other finance minister in the world is so harried with ignorant questioning and impertinent public gossip. The Bland resolution, passed the other day, asking him what policy he intended to pursue with reference to the payment of silver on the public debt, might justly be considered insulting, and was probably intended to be so by Bland, although not by the majority of those who voted for it. The Secretary's policy in regard to silver was amply stated and defined in his annual report, and Bland understood it well, but the majority of those who voted with him either would not take the trouble to understand it, or were moved to vote for the resolution because it had something to do with silver, and they were oblivious equally of the fact that it imposed a new and burdensome task on the head of the Treasury and his assistants in the preparation of statistical information already sufficiently presented, and of the fact that it carried an implied censure upon the Secretary.

There appears to be some misapprehension regarding the change in the time for the meeting of Congress proposed by Senator Hoar. The Boston *Herald*, for example, propounds this inquiry: "How much business does Senator Hoar think Congress would be likely to do in the month of October, with political campaigns progressing in two-thirds of the States?" The *Herald* has probably not observed that Mr. Hoar's scheme contemplates the meeting of Congress in October only in the "odd" years, the date selected for the "even" years being the second Monday in November. In the odd years, so far from "two-thirds of the States" having political campaigns in progress in October, not one-third elect State officers of any sort in November. In 1885 only eleven States held such elections, and of these, Colorado chose only a Judge of the Supreme Court; Pennsylvania, a State Treasurer; Nebraska, a Supreme Judge and two University Regents; Maryland, a Comptroller, Clerk of the Appeals Court, and Legislature; Connecticut and New Jersey, Legislatures; and only New York, Massachusetts, Iowa, Mississippi, and Virginia, Governors and other State officers and Legislatures. It is evident, therefore, that but few Congressmen would have been kept at home by the engrossing character of the political canvasses in their States last October, and there is good reason to hope that the number of State elections in the odd years will be still further diminished before long. Connecticut will hereafter choose all State officers and Legislatures in the even years; Massachusetts seems likely to adopt the biennial plan, which would take her out of the list; we hope here in New York to change our system so that all State elections will be held in the even years; and there is a drift in the same direction elsewhere. Indeed, there is good reason for confidence that at no distant period the country will enjoy complete repose from the stress of national and State contests every other year.

There is still a disposition, we observe, although it is not as strong as it was, to assail the Bell Telephone patent because the charges of the company are extortionate. The answer of the company might be that every great and notably useful and valuable patent has to be defended at heavy expense against infringers, and sometimes even against the Government that granted it, and that the company has no means to pay these expenses except the revenues derived from the use of its instruments. It is perhaps a defect of the patent laws that they contain no provision restricting the granting of patents to good, unselfish men. Why does not the *Times* take advantage of the present opportunity, while the public mind is alive to this evil, to urge the passage of a bill requiring all caveators to prove that they are not of a grasping and wicked nature? If this should be thought to be going too far, it might be sufficient to require every patentee to enter into a written agreement that his charges should not be high. The patentee might say that if anybody thought his charges too high, they need not use his invention, but that would be clearly a subterfuge.

The *Times* supplies fresh evidence of the defects of our patent system and of the necessity of amending it so as to confine the granting of patents to good men. The fact that the Bell

Telephone Company made a contract with the Western Union Co. by which "the development of the art of telephony has been checked," and by which the two have agreed not to compete with each other beyond twenty-five miles from any common centre, discloses a sad state of things. Evidently the patent law is in an extremely disordered and unscientific state. Not only should it be changed so as to secure that all patents shall be kept under the control of liberal-minded corporations, but special provision should be made to prevent them from falling under the influence of the Western Union Company and Jay Gould. That provision which restricts competition to twenty-five miles is most reprehensible, because everybody can see, although the *Times* does not point it out, that a contract might have been made under our present lax system to prevent all competition between the two companies. "There are other features of this remarkable agreement," says the *Times*, "which deserve attention. . . . Gould and his company practically control telephone rates." It is painful to reflect that Congress cannot repeal this remarkable agreement, the Supreme Court having decided recently that the provision of the Constitution which prohibits the State Legislatures from impairing the obligation of contracts is equally binding upon the National Legislature. But we can easily make provision for the future by an act providing that patentees shall not make contracts with "Gould and his company." Perhaps it would be more comprehensive and satisfactory to provide that Gould should not make any contracts at all.

The declaration of the Hartford *Courant* against the Blair bill is of unusual significance and importance, not only because the *Courant* is the leading newspaper of Connecticut, but also because its editor, General Hawley, is a colleague and party associate of Mr. Blair's. Our Hartford contemporary lays great stress upon the fact that the fundamental principle of the measure really offers a premium on ignorance. The money is to be distributed out of the Federal Treasury in proportion to illiteracy, and this is the way it would work:

> "If two States get each, say, the same large slice on the first year, and if one State squanders the money and teaches nobody, and the other State really does encourage education and begins the good work of instructing, then, at the second distribution, the State which has begun the good work will get less money to carry it on with, while the State which has gone backward will get even more than at first. This is simply paying a premium for delay, malfeasance, and neglect of work. The less got for the money, the more money to be got for that."

General Hawley did himself great credit by voting, alone among New England Senators, against the Blair bill when it passed the Senate two years ago, and we trust that the present attitude of his paper foreshadows his purpose to make active opposition to the ill-considered scheme, now that it is again before the body.

The great question of the "tariff on dirt" has come up again, this time most appropriately in Philadelphia, where the *Press* can look after it. It is charged that carpet manufacturers in that city have been buying wool in Russia, getting it invoiced as wool merely, then surreptitiously removing the dirt (or, as the *Press* prefers, the "grease and dirt") and entering it here at a duty of 2½ cents instead of 7½ cents per pound that clean wool ought to pay. In this way it is "claimed," by the wool-growers and others, that 6,000,000 pounds of wool have been fraudulently entered without the corresponding amount of dirt. Testimony is offered to show that Russian Donskoi wool in its natural state contains 50 per cent. of dirt and grease. Consequently, 6,000,000 pounds of refuse matter, upon which freight and duty ought to have been paid, have been left in the valley of the Don, instead of being brought to the wharves of Philadelphia. The indignation produced by this discovery was of course intense, and the Secretary of the Treasury was appealed to. He referred the matter to a commission of experts to decide whether the wool was dirty enough to come in at a duty of 2½ cents per pound. They decided that it was. But the National Wool Growers' Association were not to be headed off in that way. They took an appeal from the Secretary to the Assistant Secretary, and hired "two Philadelphia tariff lawyers" to help them prove that the wool is clean enough to be taxed 7½ cents per pound. The country will await the result with bated breath.

The doctrine of protection to native industry as now understood has received its scientific statement at the hands of Professor Thompson, of the University of Pennsylvania, in a lecture which he was invited to deliver to the students of Yale College. It is summed up in two sentences: "The tariff is not for manufactures, but for industrial independence. We should increase the raw materials in the tariff list instead of decreasing them." In other words, protection has boxed the compass since the death of Henry Clay. Both Clay and Greeley would be heterodox and out of the pale if they were alive to-day. Protection to home industry and protection to home manufactures were identical and corresponding terms in their time. We have gone a long way beyond them, but we cannot say that Mr. Thompson's ideas are not logically deduced from theirs. Digging iron ore is industry just as much as melting it in a furnace or rolling it in a mill. The Knights of Labor understand all this just as well as the smelters and the mill-owners, and perhaps better. They understand, too, the significance of the wage theory as it stands related to the protective theory. They have been told so often that protection is for their benefit and not for the benefit of the manufacturers, that they have determined to get the whole of it, whether in the production of raw materials or of finished products. They have learned their lesson none too well. Their intention is to get *all* that the protective tariff gives. We hope they may succeed, and we have little doubt that they will succeed. We expect to see all the manufacturers, in the course of a few years, working on small salaries for the benefit of their employees, giving to the latter the profits of the good years and bearing themselves the losses of the bad ones. This is an ideal system of industry, but it is what we are coming to, and coming all the faster in proportion as the market for our manufactures is limited, by duties on raw materials, to our own territory.

The Hennepin Canal scheme, which is now in the nursing-room of the River and Harbor Committee, is an impudent and unconstitutional job and swindle. It is simply the forerunner of a long line of canal jobs, which will eventually bankrupt the National Treasury. If it is passed by Congress, we hope that the President will veto it upon the clearest constitutional and business considerations. The Hennepin Canal is neither a river nor a harbor. It has no more claims upon the nation than any other ditch or sewer that can be drawn upon the map by private speculators. The State of Illinois would no more think of putting a dollar of her own money into it than she would of tunnelling Lake Michigan. Nor would the State of Iowa or the State of Minnesota.

The "valued policy" law which the New Hampshire Legislature passed last summer has had a curious and unexpected sequel. This law forbade any outside insurance company to apply for the removal of a suit to which it was a party from the State to the Federal courts, on penalty of a revocation of its license, and provided that in any suit brought in the State courts against an insurance company to recover for a total loss sustained by fire or other casualty to real estate or to buildings on the land of another, the amount of the damage should be the amount expressed in the contract as the sum insured, and no other evidence should be admitted on trial as to the value of the property insured. The outside insurance companies claimed, as they always have done, when similar legislation was proposed in other States, that the result of the law would be a great increase of incendiarism, since, they maintained, it puts a premium upon over-insurance, with a view to fraudulent profit by incendiarism. They threatened to leave the State if the measure should become a law, and promptly executed the threat when the Legislature enacted it. Several months have passed, and it is now found that the number of fires in New Hampshire has decreased by 60 per cent. as compared with the corresponding period of previous years. The withdrawal of the outside companies left the State without any effective local system of insurance, and business men were thrown into a condition of great alarm and uncertainty by the general impossibility of renewing their old policies in outside companies, or getting new ones in home companies. Some progress has been made in organizing new companies within the State, but it is, of course, impracticable for New Hampshire to insure her own citizens generally. The State manifests no intention of repealing the law, nor the outside companies of returning, but the situation has this unexpectedly hopeful element, that the number of fires has fallen off more than one-half since the difficulty of getting insurance has forced people to exercise unaccustomed precautions against fire, while the dismal predictions of wholesale incendiarism have happily not come true.

Mr. Blaine's great scheme of issuing a series of stirring campaign documents and calling

them "History" is made exceedingly comical by Senator's Logan's close imitation. A fortnight ago we were favored with a two-column instalment from the advance sheets of Mr. Blaine's work; and last week along came a similar instalment from Logan's advance sheets. Just at present Blaine is showing the statesmanlike grasp of his mind by discussing the fisheries question, while Logan is giving us, in his own vivid colors, a fresh picture of the awfulness of the secession movement. The strain upon the space of the loyal Republican organs which feel bound to print all this amusing stuff is very severe, but they bear it with commendable complacency. We may be in error, but we seem to detect a slight bias against Logan on the part of some of the organs. They give the Blaine instalments a more conspicuous position, and refer to them editorially in the sort of article which usually goes with paid "reading matter," and is known as a "favorable notice." Perhaps both historians or their publishers are paying to have the matter published, and if they are, Logan should see to it that he gets the usual editorial mention.

The death in the same week of two men who were prominent during the era of the rebellion, and who were the chosen leaders of the Democratic party in Presidential contests after the close of the war, would of itself be a noteworthy circumstance. Following within a few months the death of the first and of the last Commander-in-Chief of the Union Army, the country could hardly have a more striking reminder that a generation which has left an ineffaceable impress upon our history is so rapidly passing away that it is already almost gone. The death-roll which records within the short space of about half a year the names of Grant, McClellan, Hancock, Seymour, all of them Presidential candidates, three of them famous Generals, one of them President for eight years, thins out our great men at an almost unprecedented pace. Beginning with the canvass of 1856 and ending with that of 1880, fifteen candidates contested for the Presidency, who belonged to the generation which brought on or carried through the war. Buchanan and Fillmore; Lincoln, his three rivals in 1860, Douglas, Breckinridge, and Bell, and his sole opponent in 1864, McClellan; Grant, and the men whom he defeated in 1868 and 1872, Seymour and Greeley; Garfield and Hancock, the candidates in 1880, are all dead. There remain of the whole list only Frémont, no longer a "pathfinder," Tilden, and Hayes. The conspicuous men of Lincoln's Cabinet are mostly dead, like Seward, Chase, and Stanton, or in the retirement of old age, like Simon Cameron; "the war Governors" are nearly all gone, or where a stray one, like Curtin, of Pennsylvania, lingers, no longer powerful; the great leaders in Congress before, during, and immediately after the war are either dead, like Charles Sumner, Henry Wilson, William Pitt Fessenden, "Ben" Wade, Oliver P. Morton, Thomas F. Hendricks, "Thad" Stevens, and Schuyler Colfax, or remain only as political relics, like N. P. Banks and Lyman Trumbull. In Congress to-day sit but a few men who sat in that body before the war, and of these few John Sherman and John A. Logan alone retain a commanding position, while Secretary Lamar is the only man in the Cabinet whose political record dates back of 1861.

Imperceptibly, but hardly less surely, the humbler members of the war generation are departing along with its famous heroes. Many men will help to elect the next Congress in the fall of 1886 who were not born when Lee surrendered, and many more who retain only boyish memories of the war which that event ended. The few surviving politicians of that age have lost their old audiences. The great majority of the men whom they now address never shared in the emotions and the prejudices of the rebellion epoch, and cannot be stirred by the most fervid appeals to passions which, unlike their fathers, they have never known. The passing of the generation which fought the war involves the dropping of war politics. The election of Grover Cleveland, the first man ever nominated for the Presidency by either party whose public career did not begin until long after the rebellion, marked the end of an era in our history as clearly as have the deaths since his inauguration of Grant, Hendricks, McClellan, Hancock, and Seymour. The nation has entered upon another epoch as distinct from the last as that which began with the inauguration of John Quincy Adams, the first President who was not of the Revolutionary day, in 1825, and which ended in the organization of parties upon new lines.

It will be a surprise to most people to learn that American capital invested in the cattle industry has already pushed its way across the Rio Grande, and is seeking investment in the northern States of Mexico. The advantages of this region over even the southern portion of Texas are obvious, in the superior winter pasturage and milder climate, and great ranches have been recently purchased by New Yorkers, who count with reasonable assurance upon securing large returns. The *Mexican Financier* considers the movement so important that it regards the cattle interest as destined soon to equal, if not surpass, in importance the mining interest in the Northern States of the Republic, and it demands a repeal of the old law which prohibits the holding of real estate by foreigners within twenty leagues of the frontier, together with other encouragements to the coming of outside capital. It may prove an interesting question how our tariff will affect American investors in Mexican cattle ranges. The law permits the free importation of cattle for breeding purposes, but imposes a 20 per cent. duty on all others. It would hardly be held, however, that a man who drove an animal from Texas across the Rio Grande for pasturage must pay duty on the same animal when he drove it back, and it would be difficult to figure out the exact sum which ought to be paid as a tariff upon the Mexican grass which it had consumed.

M. de Lesseps's present journey to the scene of the Panama Canal enterprise, and his invitation, accepted by the New York Chamber of Commerce, to send a representative of the Chamber with his party of inspection, gives peculiar interest to an article just published in the *Pall Mall Gazette*, "written by one who probably knows as much about the subject [of the Canal] as anybody, M. de Lesseps himself alone excepted." This writer says that in July, 1880, M. de Lesseps announced that £44,000,000 for the supposed cost of the Canal, as the Paris Congress had suggested, was ridiculously too high; that a celebrated contracting firm would willingly undertake to cut a sea-level canal for £20,480,000, so that, including all accessories, the total cost could never exceed £28,000,000. The "International Technical Committee" early in that year had reported that instead of 46,000,000 cubic metres, which the Congress had estimated to cost £44,000,000, there were really 75,000,000 metres. The Lesseps estimate of cost, therefore, while 36 per cent. less than that of the Congress, was based upon an estimate of excavation 63 per cent. greater. What has happened to date is that £6,000,000 (50 per cent.) has been called from shareholders, and £24,600,000 has been raised by debentures—altogether £30,600,000, or, deducting discount, £23,227,000 net; and this sum has been exhausted. A call of 25 per cent. more on shares, or £3,000,000, has been made, and it is said will soon be followed by a further and final call for £3,000,000. The £6,000,000 added to the £30,600,000 make £36,600,000. That is already £8,600,000 beyond M. de Lesseps's estimated cost.

Now for the work accomplished. Besides the Panama Railway a vast amount of material has been acquired. But, says the *Pall Mall* writer, "much of this material cannot be used, for it has been badly selected. Any traveller in the Isthmus may have seen new locomotives turned over on the side of the road, and covered with detritus. Many excavators cannot work at all. There has been untold extravagance and waste." M. Bonaparte-Wyse, one of the *fondateurs* of the company, in his 'Le Canal de Panama,' just published in Paris by Hachette, accuses the company not only of a loss in interest of £4,000,000 through waste of time, but of wasting outright some £14,000,000 "en travaux inutiles ou trop payés et en contrats absurdes," and of over-payment for the Panama Railway. Of actual digging it is stated that though "£30,600,000 have been raised and spent (£23,000,000 in cash), yet only 16,000,000 cubic metres have been excavated, and that, too, from the easiest section, nearer to the Atlantic, where there are hardly any rocks." Three years ago M. de Lesseps estimated that from 1884 onward the average excavation would be at the monthly rate of 2,000,000 cubic metres. The number of the *Économiste Français* for January 23 states that in November, 1885, it was 687,000 cubic metres, and the writer of the article under mention asserts that it has never reached 850,000 in a single month, much less 2,000,000. It only remains to add, that according to the same authority, M. de Lesseps's present estimate of the total excavation is neither 46,000,000 nor 75,000,000, but 120,000,000, cubic metres; so the question of to-day is, if 16,000,000 cubic metres of easy digging cost £30,600,000, what will be the cost of 120,000,000 metres of all kinds, including much that is very difficult, and excluding the problem of the control of the Chagres River?

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 10, to TUESDAY, February 16, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President on Wednesday afternoon nominated Stephen A. Walker to succeed Mr. Dorsheimer as United States District Attorney at New York city. Mr. Walker is now Superintendent of the Board of Education in New York, and is a lawyer.

Senator Mitchell (Rep., Ore.) on Thursday introduced a new anti-Chinese bill. It provides that all treaties between the United States and the Chinese Empire, in so far as they permit the coming of Chinese to the United States and inhibit the Government of the United States from absolutely prohibiting their coming, and all acts of Congress which in any manner permit the coming of Chinese, whether subjects of the Chinese Empire or otherwise, shall be abrogated. And it shall be unlawful for any Chinese, including those who are now within the limits of the United States, and who may hereafter leave the United States and attempt to return, excepting diplomatic representatives and other officers of the Chinese or other Governments travelling upon the business of that Government with their body and household servants, to come to or land at any port or place within the United States.

The Chair laid before the Senate on Monday a letter from the Secretary of the Interior, in reply to Mr. Dawes's recent resolution, adopted by the Senate, which called for all information in the Interior Department relating to Henry Ward, late Indian Inspector. The Secretary in his letter says: "I transmit all the official papers on file in the Department which I understand to be embraced by the resolution. The official reports made to this Department by Henry Ward, as United States Indian Inspector, are voluminous, and as the clerical force of this Department is limited and otherwise fully employed, I have deemed it best to transmit the original reports. As they are frequently consulted in the transaction of the business of the Department, I have the honor to request that they be returned to its files as soon as they are no longer required by the Senate. I am directed by the President to say that if the object of the resolution is to inquire into the reasons for the suspension of Mr. Ward, these papers are not to be considered as constituting all the evidence submitted to him in relation thereto. I am also directed by the President to say that he does not consider it consistent with the public interests to transmit copies of unofficial papers from private citizens held in my custody for him, which relate exclusively to the suspension of incumbents."

The House on Thursday afternoon passed the bill authorizing the Comptroller of the Currency to increase the stock of national banks and to change their names without the intervention of Congress—129 yeas to 120 nays. The Greenbackers moved to reconder and indicated a disposition to filibuster, when the morning hour expired and the bill went over. The vote is so close that the anti-national-bank men may possibly be able to defeat the bill.

Mr. Belmont, of New York, presented in the House on Friday petitions signed by over 1,247 art societies and artists throughout the United States, asking for the enactment of a law to admit works of art free of duty. They state that the law passed in 1883, by which duties were raised from 10 to 30 per cent., was not called for by artists, and was not advocated by the public press or demanded by the people, nor was the measure justified on the plea of public necessity; that the law has proved a failure, has restricted trade, and has diminished the public revenue.

Mr. Morrison introduced his tariff bill in the House of Representatives on Monday. It is expected that it will reduce the revenues $20,000,000 a year. Of this amount probably one-half is taken off of sugar, a little more than one-fourth is taken off by additions to the free list, and a little less than a fourth comes from various items scattered through the list. All wood and lumber not dressed is put on the free list, with this provision, that the abolition of the duty is not to apply to any wood or lumber imported from a country which imposes an export duty on those articles, as Canada now does. Among the other additions to the free list are hemp, jute, jute butts, sisal and other fibre grasses, coal, salt, iron, lead, copper, and other ores, unmanufactured stone; chicory, and other substitutes for coffee; corn, oats, hay, potatoes, extract of hemlock and other barks, crude glycerine, indigo extracts, sulphate of barytes, unmanufactured crude borax, saltpetre, logwood and other dye woods, ochery earths and unwrought clays. On the various grades of sugars there is a general reduction of 20 per cent., but, as in the case of the abolition of the lumber duty, this reduction does not apply to any sugars on which an export duty is levied, as is now the case in Cuba. On the finer grades of cotton goods, the duties on which are ad valorem, no changes are made. The duty on coarse cottons is reduced from 40 to 35 per cent. The duty on pig-iron is reduced from $6 72 to $5 60 per ton. The rate on steel and iron rails is reduced from about $17 to $12 50. The reduction on common window glass is about 20 per cent. There is little change in woollen goods.

In the House on Monday Mr. Hanback (Rep., Kan.) introduced a resolution for a sweeping investigation of the whole telephone scandal. It was referred.

The House Committee on Shipping on Monday substituted the original bill of Mr. Dunn to grant American registry to all vessels owned wholly in the United States, no matter where purchased or constructed, for the Beck bill on the same subject.

The House Coinage Committee at its meeting on Monday evening defeated—4 to 8—a motion to report in favor of Mr. Bland's bill providing for free coinage, the affirmative votes being thrown by Lanham, McCreary, Bynum, and Felton. On a motion that an adverse report be made on Mr. Wait's bill calling for the immediate suspension of the coinage of the silver dollar, Lanham, Norwood, McCreary, Bynum, Fuller, and Bland voted yea, and Seymour, Hemphill, Scott, James, Rockwell, and Little, no. Mr. Felton could not be found. The proposition was declared lost by a tie vote of 6 to 6. Mr. James moved to make an adverse report on Mr. Bland's bill for free coinage. Mr. Norwood voted with the six members who had opposed an adverse report on the Wait bill, and thus it was decided by 7 to 5 to reject the Bland bill. It was so reported on Tuesday.

Secretary Manning on Monday sent to Colonel Morrison, Chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means, a reply to a letter from that Committee asking his opinion of the resolution which provides that whenever the surplus or balance in the Treasury, including the amount held for redemption of United States notes, shall exceed the sum of $100,000,000, it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to apply such excess, in sums of not less than $10,000,000 per month during the existence of such surplus, to the payment of the interest-bearing indebtedness of the United States, payable at the option of the Government. Secretary Manning does not approve this scheme, saying: "I cannot now foresee a state of things which will make it prudent to limit the surplus reserve in the Treasury to a sum ranging from nothing to a maximum of $10,000,000. The legislation now before Congress relating to pensions will, if perfected, increase the demands upon the Treasury to an amount which it is impossible to exactly estimate, and a late decision of the Supreme Court subjects the Government to the repayment of duties collected, the aggregate of which is large but altogether indefinite. These things are mentioned to remind the Committee that neither the calls upon the Treasury nor the exact time that such demands must be met can be precisely foreseen."

The House Committee on Public Lands on Tuesday decided to forfeit the grant to the California and Oregon and the Oregon and California Roads, except as to the lands to which patents issued to these companies prior to the date, in 1880, when the road should have been completed.

The House Committee will report favorably the Hennepin Canal scheme.

The Commissioner of Pensions has prepared a statement showing the amount called for by the Arrears of Pensions Act and by the bills now under consideration. He fixes the amount at the enormous sum of $482,242,073.

Minister Cox, at Constantinople, has obtained a furlough on account of poor health, and has gone to Egypt with his wife.

The anti-Chinese Congress at Portland, Oregon, Saturday, at which about 150 delegates were present, adopted resolutions calling upon "the citizens of every locality to peaceably assemble and politely request said Mongolian race to remove from this State and Territory to the city of San Francisco or any other place where they are desired by the people, and this within thirty days from the date of said meetings"; and appointing an executive committee in every community to carry out the spirit and intent of these resolutions.

The resolve abolishing the poll-tax as a prerequisite to voting was agreed to in the Massachusetts House on Thursday by a vote of 177 to 50.

Senator Reilly introduced in the New York Senate on Thursday a bill to reduce the price of gas in New York to $1 25 per 1,000 feet.

It is officially announced that Archbishop Gibbons, of Baltimore, will be made a Cardinal.

General Hancock died poor and a fund has been started for the benefit of his widow. S. J. Tilden headed the subscription with $1,000. The funeral of the dead General took place on Saturday. Unostentatious services were held in Trinity Church, in this city, and the body was then taken to Norristown, Pa., and interred in the family vault.

John B. Gough, the temperance orator, was stricken with apoplexy while lecturing on Monday night in Philadelphia. There is little hope of his recovery.

Henry Watterson, editor of the Louisville *Courier-Journal*, is critically ill.

John G. Thompson, formerly prominent in Ohio Democratic politics and ex-Sergeant-at-Arms of the House at Washington, died of heart disease on Wednesday at Seattle, Washington Territory, where he was appointed Land Claim Agent last August.

Laura Don, once a prominent actress and author of the play "A Daughter of the Nile," died at her home in Greenwich, N. Y., on Wednesday, at the age of thirty-four.

Horatio Seymour, ex-Governor of New York, died in Utica on Friday evening. He was born in Pompey, N. Y., May 31, 1810, educated at several good academies and Hobart College, and studied law. In 1842 he was elected to the New York Assembly, and was Speaker of that body in 1845. He was the Democratic candidate for Governor in 1850, but was defeated by Washington Hunt, whose majority was only 262. Two years later Mr. Seymour was elected Governor over Hunt and Tompkins. From that time he was considered an almost invincible leader of his party in this State. In 1854 he was defeated for Governor by Myron H. Clark, Prohibitionist, by 309 votes, there being four candidates in the field. Just before the outbreak of the war Governor Seymour for a time adhered to the Southern wing of the Democratic party, but when war was declared he became a strong Union Democrat. In 1862 he was elected Governor over the Union General Wadsworth by a majority of 10,000. His inaugural address

was reassuring to the Federal Government, but his course throughout the draft riots in this city has been severely criticised. The Democrats nominated Governor Seymour for President in 1868, but he was defeated by General Grant. His friends nominated him for Governor in 1876, but he declined the honor, and Lucius Robinson was substituted. Since then he has lived in honorable retirement, taking considerable interest in literary, political, and historical subjects. His last public appearance was in July, 1885, when he presided at the Utica Canal Conference. Mr. Seymour's funeral took place at Utica on Tuesday, and was attended by a large and distinguished assemblage.

Ex-State Senator Dennis McCarthy died at his home in Syracuse on Sunday at the age of seventy-two. Originally he was a Free-Soil Democrat, but became a Republican in 1862. He went to Congress in 1866, serving one term. In 1875 he entered the State Senate, and remained in it until last year. He was President pro tem. from 1881 to '85. Last year he was an unsuccessful candidate for the nomination for Lieutenant-Governor on the Republican ticket.

FOREIGN.

London was again excited on Wednesday when it was reported that a mob of ruffians was marching from Deptford toward the city. The mob was said to have been enormously increased on its march. They sacked, it was reported, several small shops and one large establishment. The police were ordered to take possession of all bridges and prevent the ruffians crossing into the city. Later in the day it became known that the reports were false. The city was quiet throughout the day and has since remained so.

Police summonses have been issued against the Socialist leaders who are blamed for inciting the riots.

The hosiery operatives at Leicester, Eng., are on a strike. On Thursday night they paraded the streets and smashed factory windows. The police charged, but were unable to disperse them. Four arrests were made. They continued their riotous demonstrations until a late hour on Friday night. Twenty-seven were arrested. The relief fund for the unemployed workingmen of London amounts to £20,000.

A meeting of unemployed workingmen held in Birmingham, England, on Monday was attended by 8,000 persons. The addresses delivered were of the most inflammatory nature, and the assemblage degenerated into a mob, which attempted to run riot in the streets and pillage the shops. The police, however, were prepared, and succeeded in suppressing rioting and preventing any acts of pillage.

A meeting of Englishmen, Scotchmen, and Irishmen favorable to the principle of the establishment of an Irish Parliament in Dublin, to deal with Irish affairs, was held at the Westminster Palace Hotel, in London, on Wednesday evening. Speeches were made by Lord Ashburnham, Mr. Justin McCarthy, and Mr. Joseph Cowen. The meeting formed the British Home-Rule Association, and passed a resolution supporting the Irish people in their demand for self-government. An executive committee was appointed to draft a constitution; it included the names of Lord Ashburnham, Lord Clifton, Mr. Joseph Cowen, M.P.; Mr. Justin McCarthy, M.P.; Sir James Marshall, Mr. W. Thompson, Q.C., and Mr. Wilfrid S. Blunt.

The Earl of Fife, the President of the Scotch Liberal Association, and hitherto a stanch friend and colleague of Mr. Gladstone, writes to the Secretary of that Association that he cannot hand over his political conscience to a Cabinet whose policy, so far as it is definable at all, is only a policy of surrender. He says he is strongly opposed to tampering with the Union, and must resign the Presidency.

The election in Galway, which took place on Thursday, resulted in the return of Captain O'Shea, who received 1,017 votes to 65 for Mr. Lynch. At a meeting in the evening Mr. Parnell congratulated the electors upon the unity they had displayed, and thanked them for the confidence they had shown in him. Mr. O'Connor also spoke, and predicted that an Irish Parliament would sit in Dublin within two years. It is said that a number of the Irish members of Parliament will refuse to recognize O'Shea.

Mr. Healy, in the course of an address delivered on Saturday at Mountrath on Home Rule, ridiculed the proposition to allow the Irish people a native Parliament without the control of the police of the country. He said: "An Irish Parliament without the control of the police would require police protection itself."

Mr. Gladstone is said to be preparing a bill providing for the expropriation of land in Ireland by means of state funds.

At a meeting of the British Cabinet on Monday it was decided that the first business of the Parliamentary session should be a scheme to reform the rules of procedure. Mr. Chamberlain urged the early consideration of a local government bill, but Mr. Gladstone overruled him, giving precedence to home-rule proposals, and postponing dealing with the Irish land question. Mr. Gladstone is sending letters of inquiry to all sorts and conditions of Irishmen in order to accumulate accurate knowledge on the Irish question.

A meeting of the Conservative leaders has been called for February 18 at the Carlton Club. The Marquis of Salisbury will preside. The meeting will be in the nature of a caucus to determine what policy the Conservatives shall pursue in Parliament. The principal question to be considered will be, What stand are the Conservatives to take in regard to Ireland and the proposed Irish legislation of the Liberals?

Lord Rosebery, the new Minister for Foreign Affairs, has reiterated to the Greek Government that England is firm in her resolution to oppose a war between Greece and Turkey.

The Porte has been informed that Lord Rosebery will maintain Lord Salisbury's Balkan policy.

It is rumored in well-informed circles that the Greek question has been temporarily settled by an agreement between Mr. Gladstone, the Earl of Rosebery, and Mr. Delyannis, the Greek Prime Minister, that Greece shall keep quiet now, on condition of securing the execution of the Berlin Treaty in a short time.

Mr. John Morley has been reëlected to Parliament, receiving 1,010 more votes than before. This is considered a popular endorsement of home rule.

The trial of the divorce case of Mr. Donald Crawford against his wife, in which Sir Charles Dilke is co-respondent, was held in London on Friday. The Court granted Mr. Crawford a divorce from his wife, and dismissed the charges against Sir Charles Dilke. The London press comment indignantly on the peculiar decision of the Court.

Sir Charles Dilke has decided to persevere in the policy of silence and to make no explanation to the Chelsea electors. It is certain that he will not receive a place in Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet.

The Chelsea Liberal Association has decided to permit Sir Charles Dilke to continue undisturbed as the representative of that constituency in Parliament.

Viscount Cardwell is dead. He was a Liberal, and was a member of several ministries. In 1859–61 he was Chief Secretary for Ireland, and later held office as Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, Colonial Secretary, and War Secretary. Viscount Cardwell was in his seventy-third year.

The Rev. John Tulloch, D.D., Principal of St. Mary's College, St. Andrew's University, Scotland, is dead. He was born in 1823.

The Rev. Henry Burgess, of Glasgow, Scotland, author of many religious works, is dead at the age of seventy-eight. Among his works are: 'Truth or Orthodoxy, to which shall we sacrifice?' (1848), 'Poems' (1850), 'Disestablishment and Disendowment' (1875), and the 'Art of Preaching and Composition of Sermons' (1881). He was editor of the *Clerical Journal* for fourteen years, retiring in 1868.

The London Missionary Society has received advices from Zanzibar that two men who have returned to that place from Uganda report that they saw Bishop Hannington, with fifty men of his expedition, taken out for execution.

The rebellion in Kordofan is assuming large proportions. The French Prime Minister has radically changed that Government's policy, and will support the demands of the Porte for the formation of a Turco-Egyptian army to replace the British troops in Egypt, and urges the early evacuation of the country by the latter.

Lord Dufferin, Viceroy of India, has decided to garrison Burmah with 16,000 troops, under command of General Prendergast. The military occupation and martial law will be continued until November, as Lord Dufferin does not think the country is ripe yet for the establishment of civil law.

Bulgaria and Turkey, on the advice of the Powers, will forego their demands of an indemnity from Servia.

It is reported that King Milan has resolved to sign a treaty of peace with Bulgaria, no matter what action the Greek Government may decide to take. Servia will hereafter enter into a stronger agreement with Austria Hungary.

A conspiracy has been discovered in Belgrade, Servia, to overthrow King Milan, and place upon the throne Prince Karageorgevitch.

The Madrid *Progresso*, a Zorillist newspaper, says that when the Cortes meets it will be to receive the announcement of the abdication of the Queen Regent.

Twelve men were arrested in Madrid on Sunday charged with being members of a dynamite association and an anarchist committee. Dynamite bombs, cartridges, and red flags were found.

There is great excitement in Berlin over apparently well-authenticated reports that Prince Bismarck is preparing to yield entirely to the Vatican in the religious dispute which has been waged by Prussia against the Papacy for the past fifteen years. A bill has been deposited by the Government with the Upper House of the Landtag, revoking, with a few trivial exceptions, all the features of the May laws which have been so odious to the Catholics of Germany.

The German Reichstag has passed the motion, urged by the Conservatives, for a new and searching inquiry into the currency question, to ascertain whether it would be better to adhere to monometallism or return to the double standard. The vote was 145 to 119.

Since the recent riots in London the Russian Government has renewed negotiations with England, with the object of inducing that country to join the international league for the extradition of political criminals.

An excited crowd of French Canadians raided several stores in Paspebiac, Quebec, on Monday, and carried off 260 barrels of flour. The Government grant of one-half barrel each of flour and potatoes was offered them, but was indignantly rejected. The rioters helped themselves to whatever they wanted. It is feared that this is only the beginning of the trouble.

A BILL TO PROMOTE MENDICANCY.

MR. BLAIR, of New Hampshire, has succeeded in having his bill for Federal aid to education in the South made the regular order in the Senate, and this most important proposition is thus again before Congress for discussion. At the same time the press of the country manifests signs of giving the subject more careful attention than it has previously received, and there is evidence that many journals which have hastily endorsed the scheme in past years are now abating their confidence that it will prove a good thing in the long run. The Boston *Herald* is a newspaper which has hitherto favored the Blair bill, in the belief that it would stimulate the cause of common-school education, but which now says, "If it will not, let the aid be withheld," and scarcely conceals a growing doubt whether the scheme would not hinder rather than help. Its chief reason for still hoping that Federal aid to Southern schools might prove beneficial is based upon certain statements made by a Northern gentleman who has paid much attention to this question, and who strongly advocates the Blair bill. We quote his argument, as summarized by the *Herald*:

"Emancipation, the act of the nation, added one-third or more to the school population of the former slave States, and that after two-thirds of the property of that region, reckoning the slaves as part of it, had been destroyed by war. The freedmen and their children had been kept in compulsory ignorance under the authority of the National Constitution which recognized and protected slavery. It was, therefore, physically impossible for the people of the Southern States to assume the task of educating this mass of ignorance. The Rev. Mr. Mayo, an excellent authority on this question, says that 'There are now, in sixteen Southern States, 4,000,000 white and 2,000,000 colored children and youth of school age, of whom not one-third can be said to be in any effective school.' Seventy per cent. of the negroes over ten years of age are illiterate, and the ratio of illiteracy for blacks and whites alike is increasing. And this in spite of the fact, to which Mr. Mayo bears testimony, that 'no people in human history has made an effort so remarkable, all circumstances considered, as the people of the South have done during the past fifteen years, in what they have already done for the schooling of their children.' Last year the Southern States raised no less than $17,000,000 for school purposes, of which nearly one-third was for the education of the children of their former slaves. In many of the States the school tax is higher in proportion to the property than in Northern States that maintain a splendid school system. And yet more than one-half the children of school age are growing up illiterate, or without primary instruction that is worthy of the name."

The Rev. Dr. Mayo is a gentleman of the highest character, a clergyman of excellent standing in the Unitarian Church, and a life-long friend of education, who abandoned regular church work to devote himself to the cause of education in the South, and in that cause has labored with great zeal and entire unselfishness. He has thus enjoyed unusual opportunities for learning the state of things at the South, and he is entitled to be heard with great respect. But it is evident that the influence of his former environment causes him to view Southern schools through glasses which distort the situation. Dr. Mayo lived for a number of years, while his children were going to school, in Cincinnati, and for a number of years more in Springfield, Mass.—both cities with excellent systems of graded schools in session nine or ten months out of every twelve. He went down South, and found that in the rural districts the common schools were open only three or four months a year. He was naturally shocked, and jumped to the conclusion that the nation must go to the aid of the Southern States, or their children would never get a decent education. His radical mistake was in supposing that the situation in the rural regions of the South was much different from the situation in the rural regions of the North, or much worse. If he had gone from Springfield through the hill towns of western Massachusetts, and then journeyed through the mountain regions of Vermont, he would have found schools which are but little more "effective" than exist in the South and are in session but little longer. Less than 5 per cent. of all Vermont's inhabitants above the age of ten years in 1880 were unable to read, and yet an official report of 1870 shows that the schools in most towns were open only seventeen weeks in the year, which does not much exceed the present limit in the South.

When the *Herald* and other believers in Dr. Mayo quote his dictum that not one-third of the children in the South can be said to be in any "effective" schools, they must remember that it is the testimony of a man who would undoubtedly have pronounced the schools of 1870 in many Vermont towns ineffective, and yet that those schools kept the ratio of illiteracy in the State below one in twenty. The *Herald* does not make it quite plain whether the statement that "the ratio of illiteracy for blacks and whites alike [in the South] is increasing," was made by Dr. Mayo or is its own, but, whoever its author, it is obviously a gross and inexcusable misrepresentation. The official reports of the Superintendents of Education in every Southern State show that the number of attendants upon the public schools is increasing steadily and largely year by year, mounting in South Carolina from 110,416 in 1874 to 185,619 in 1884, and in Mississippi from 166,204 to 266,996 in the eight years ending with 1883. If illiteracy is really increasing with such extensions of school advantages, national aid would only aggravate the evil by enlarging the number of pupils, and the true thing to do would be to shut up the schools. But it is not true, and the census of 1890 will undoubtedly show a great diminution in the illiteracy of every Southern State. It is a scarcely less flagrant misrepresentation to give the impression, as Dr. Mayo does, that "not one-third" of the children in the South are getting a decent education. The truth, as shown by the reports of State Superintendents, is that the percentage of attendance to the whole population of the school age, even in States with so large a negro preponderance as Mississippi and South Carolina, has already reached as high a point as in thinly settled States at the North.

There remains only the plea that the schools are not as good as they ought to be, and still the Southern people cannot raise any more money for education, so that they must have help from the Federal Treasury if there is to be any further improvement, which everybody concedes is essential. It is a perfectly conclusive answer to this plea of Dr. Mayo's that it is now several years since he began telling the Southern people that they could not raise any more money for schools, and yet they have gone on raising more money all this while. For example, South Carolina increased the amount devoted to this purpose between 1880 and 1884 by nearly 33 per cent., Georgia, Alabama, and Virginia by almost 40 per cent., and North Carolina and Florida by more than 50 per cent.

If anything more were needed to show that the South is capable of "paddling her own canoe," it is furnished by the voluntary testimony of Southern men who are devoted to the cause of education in those States where the load is heaviest by reason of the large proportion of negroes in the population. In Mississippi almost 60 per cent. of the people are colored, yet this is what Governor Lowry of Mississippi said about education in that State in his message to the Legislature last month:

"It is a source of no little gratification to be able to state that the common-school system is in a healthier condition, and that the complicated machinery of the department is working more smoothly and satisfactorily than at any previous time in its history. My information from various sources satisfies me that the interest in favor of our system of public education as established and maintained by law is steadily increasing, and assuming a more intelligent and well-defined form of action. I learn from the able School Superintendent, General Smith, that the attendance of 1884 was largely in excess of that of any previous year, and will, he supposes, be greater for 1885. Especially is this increase marked among the colored people, showing more attention and concern about the education of their children than manifested heretofore. It may be truthfully said that the educational outlook of the State is hopeful, and the object of every one connected with legislation should be to revise, improve, and perfect our school system."

The proportion of negroes to whites is even larger in South Carolina than in Mississippi, more than two-thirds of all the people being colored, yet Governor Thompson—himself for years the State's efficient Superintendent of Education, and one of the most devoted friends of public schools in the whole South—was able to make this encouraging showing in his message to the Legislature last November:

"The report of the Superintendent of Education shows a most gratifying progress in the work of the public schools, and in the healthy growth of popular sentiment on the subject of education. Year by year the friction that attended the operation of the free public-school system in the earlier period of its establishment has been reduced, and in all particulars controllable by the school officers it has almost disappeared. The number of pupils enrolled in the public schools during the year just closed was 178,023, of which 78,458 were white and 99,565 were colored; the number of teachers employed was 3,773, being an increase of 89 over the number employed during the preceding year; and the number of schools was 3,462, being an increase of 80 over the number in operation during the year 1883-84. The length of the school-term was three and a half months. It was shown in the annual report for 1884 that the limit of ratio of enrolment to the school population of the State had been nearly reached, and that the increase in this respect would, in the absence of unfavorable conditions, only keep pace with the natural increase of population. This indicates that the schools have been brought within the reach of the people and are generally used by them. The average attendance of pupils for the school term shows an increase of 7,949, and has now reached nearly 69 per centum of the enrolment. That this percentage should be so high among a people mainly rural is highly encouraging, because it demonstrates that the work of the schools has become more effective and better appreciated."

We do not see how any candid person, who will take the trouble to investigate the facts, can avoid the conclusion that the work of public education in the South is now in a most

hopeful condition, and that the worst thing which could possibly befall the cause would be an assumption by the nation of a burden which the South has shown herself able to carry alone, and will be all the stronger in the end for having carried alone. There was a time when an appeal for national help might have been urged with force. Just after the war, when the South was plunged in poverty, when, as in South Carolina in 1869, not one child in ten attended public schools, it might have been fairly urged that Congress should come to the rescue. But half a generation has passed since that time, and the South, by her own confession, is now able to do the work, and will be able to do it better every year as she grows richer. The short-sighted Northern philanthropists who try to persuade her that she is too poor are her worst enemies. Mr. Blair's bill only needs to be seen in its true light, as a bill to promote educational mendicancy, to be sure to be rejected.

BROOKLYN AND PHILADELPHIA.

By a rather striking coincidence there has just been presented in two of our chief cities convincing evidence of the bitter hostility to civil-service reform which is entertained by the professional politicians of both parties. Brooklyn has long been a Democratic city in national politics, and has suffered from one of the worst systems of boss rule ever known in the country, except for the brief periods when the taxpayers, without regard to party, have joined in electing non-partisan officials, as notably during the recent Low régime. Philadelphia, on the other hand, has long been a Republican "stronghold" in national politics, and has been cursed with a ring second in corruption only to Tammany in New York, which has for years absolutely ruled the city, except when some peculiarly cynical abuse of power aroused the public for a brief season to a spasmodic revolt. The Democratic Machine is now in good running order in Brooklyn and the Republican Machine in Philadelphia, so that each party is able to manifest its attitude toward municipal reform with the utmost clearness.

Last fall the Brooklyn Democrats nominated for Mayor one of those well-meaning but weak-backed "business men," whom the party managers have found by long experience the most taking candidates to masquerade behind during a canvass, and the most subservient officials after election. Boss McLaughlin's dummy in this instance conclusively demonstrated his unfitness for responsibility by writing a letter of acceptance which sneered at the competitive system, that had long been in successful operation in his city, as an unpractical device, and virtually assured the "boys" that the examinations should be so changed, if the Democrats came into power, that the questions would not bother them. The dummy was elected, and his administration is already justifying the Machine's confidence in him. He turned over the departments which control the most "patronage" to Democrats distinguished more for partisan activity than for business qualifications, and these men have been quick to prove that they intended to run their departments primarily for the benefit of party strikers.

Last week the City Works Commissioner, who has several hundred subordinates, insisted upon their handing him their resignations for his acceptance at any time he may insist upon them. The law expressly gives the Commissioner the right to remove any subordinate during the first month of his incumbency without assigning any reason, and after that period upon filing a statement of the cause. The Department has been placed upon a good business footing under Mayor Low, and the interests of the public service would require or justify very few changes among the large force of subordinates. But the Commissioner scarcely veils his intention to be governed solely by partisan considerations in deciding whether or not to retain a man, and his almost openly avowed object, in asking wholesale resignations in blank, is to be able to get rid of employees from time to time, as places must be made for importunate "workers," without the check which the necessity of giving a sound reason after the expiration of the first month would impose. Meanwhile the new officials are making a desperate effort to secure the consent of the State Civil-Service Commissioners to changes in the system of examinations for filling the vacancies thus created, so that the competition will be a mere farce and "the right man" will be able to pull through every time. In short, the object of the new Democratic administration in Brooklyn is to break down, so far as possible, the system of conducting municipal affairs upon business principles which has been so successfully built up under Mr. Low.

The Republicans have an overwhelming majority in the City Council of Philadelphia. The term of the Chief Engineer of the Water Department is about expiring, and the City Council was called upon on Thursday to elect his successor. The incumbent, Col. William Ludlow, is a graduate of West Point, an accomplished civil engineer, an executive officer of rare ability, an official who has served for three years absolutely without reproach. He came very near to being the ideal man for the place, when the Council, in deference to an aroused public sentiment, originally elected him, and he now adds to natural qualifications the notable advantage of long experience with the Department and entire familiarity with its needs. Great improvements in the water service which are in immediate contemplation render his retention peculiarly desirable, as a complete assurance that the large amounts to be expended will be honestly applied. In the whole history of city government in this country there has seldom been a case where the reëlection of a competent and faithful official was more imperatively demanded by every consideration of the public interest.

There was but one possible pretext which could be advanced by Colonel Ludlow's most bitter enemy as a ground for rejecting him. He is personally a Democrat in national politics, and votes the Democratic ticket. It was not pretended that he had used his power to promote the interests of the Democratic party; or, rather, when such a charge was vaguely made, a careful investigation showed that it was absolutely without foundation, while a scrutiny of the political affiliations of all employees of the Department, after he had been for three years its head, showed that only 5 of the whole 326 were Democrats. He had simply conducted the Department upon business principles, and the most stalwart Republican could cite no case where he had done anything to help the Democratic party. Yet the Republican Councilmen met in caucus not long ago and decided to refuse Colonel Ludlow reëlection, solely because they were unwilling to have the Department run upon business principles, and were resolved to have it run as a part of the Republican Machine. Public sentiment protested against the movement. Even such a thorough-going Blaine organ as the *Press* joined in the outcry, and called upon Republican Councilmen to turn Mugwumps and reject the regular nominee. But it was all of no avail. When the Councilmen met, only two of the Republican members had independence enough to vote with the Democrats for Colonel Ludlow's reëlection; the other ninety-three supported the candidate of the Republican Machine. They did it, as one of them frankly confessed, "because he is a Republican," and because they believed in this speaker's patronage platform: "I say, let us keep the cake for ourselves, and if the Democrats get on top, we will turn it over to them." As the *Press* has the frankness to admit, Colonel Ludlow, "the most efficient and competent officer the Department has ever had," is "thrown overboard because he *is* a good officer, and because his office is administered strictly on business principles."

These Brooklyn and Philadelphia incidents are full of instruction. We have had a great deal of dispute the past year as to whether Republican or Democratic politicians are the more friendly to civil-service reform. The truth is that both sets are its bitter enemies, and that there is nothing to choose between them. Each crowd is, like Ensign Stebbins, "for the law, but agin' its enforcement." The Brooklyn Democratic City Convention last fall gave an "unqualified endorsement" to the principles of the Civil-Service Law "as enacted by the Legislature of this State, and now applicable to the city of Brooklyn," and further pledged the party "to modify them in no other respect than practical experience may show to be necessary for the more efficient carrying on of the public business." Philadelphia Republican conventions have repeatedly declared in favor of reform methods and the application of business principles to public affairs. Yet the Democratic ring in Brooklyn coolly repudiates its pledges and tries to break down the law, while the Republican Machine in Philadelphia rejects a faithful official simply for having lived up to the Republican platform.

The friends of reform have good reason to rejoice over these performances. Nothing could do so much to advance the cause which they have at heart as the open hostility of the corrupt rings and the party machines. The difference between the system of business principles in public affairs and the spoils system is here made plain to the comprehension of every voter. There is no chance to confuse the issue, and when the issue is once made plain, the eventual triumph of reform is assured.

CAREER OF THE SALISBURY MINISTRY.

LONDON, February 4, 1886.

Now that the Tory Ministry of 1885 has expired, your readers may expect to have some observations on its short but interesting life. It has been the briefest Ministry of the last half century, having lasted just seven months. When, on Mr. Gladstone's resignation last June, after the unexpected defeat which he suffered on the Budget, office was offered to Lord Salisbury, there was much difference of opinion in Tory circles as to whether it would or would not be better to remain in opposition. The common view in both parties was, that whichever party was in opposition would have the better chance at the general election, because it would be able to assail its adversaries, instead of standing on the defensive. This view made the Liberals well pleased to quit office, and equally dissuaded the Tories from coming in. But in a party which has been out of power for some years there are always many men eager for the spoils, even such limited spoils as our system awards to the victors. There are peerages and other titles of honor; there is the patronage of the civil-service posts that may fall vacant; there are the great offices of state themselves. The desire for these tells potently on the chiefs through their relatives and friends, and in this instance Lord Randolph Churchill, who had been the most active combatant in the House of Commons, was anxious at all hazards to come in and taste power. His counsels prevailed, and a Tory Cabinet was formed in which he held a place of influence scarcely second to that of Lord Salisbury. The result seems to have justified his boldness. Although the Tories have been beaten at the general election, their defeat is nowise due to their having taken office. So far as one can judge, they stood to be beaten in any case, and they have probably gained somewhat more than they lost by being the party in power. Their tenure had been too short to permit them to make serious blunders, or to make the blunders of their Liberal predecessors forgotten. The courage which they showed in taking office while in a minority in the House of Commons, inspired their supporters with zeal and hope. Some of their chief figures, and notably Lord Randolph Churchill himself, gained importance by their official status, which turned them from mere skirmishers into responsible statesmen.

I believe, therefore, that this general election has condemned the view held in June that the Liberals would gain and the Tories lose by the change of Ministry which then took place. That the latter did not carry the country at the election was due to other and preëxisting causes which were too strong for them. Scotland remained steadily Liberal. The new voters in the English counties went Liberal, partly because they felt that their admission to the franchise was a gift of the Liberals, partly, in the agricultural districts, out of hostility to the farmers, who have long been Tories. The Irish vote in the English boroughs gave Lord Salisbury twenty-five seats, but even with this gain he was left in a minority of eighty-four as against the Liberals. Yet their defeat was no disgrace to the Tory party. They fought with great spirit and developed an unexpectedly strong organization. The Established Church, acting not merely through its pastors, but also through the district visitors and other feminine agencies, did splendid work among the humbler class of voters. Toryism rejoices to find that it may be, if properly handled, just as vigorous and popular among the poor as among the rich, and, therefore, while political philosophers shake their heads over an extended suffrage, Tory party managers perceive that they have a better chance than they ever expected of fighting the Radicals on their own ground.

Of the personal qualities of the outgoing Ministry there is not very much to be said. When it was formed, it was deemed weak in comparison to that of Mr. Gladstone. It contained fewer men of acknowledged capacity either for speaking or for administration. Nor has its career developed any reputations. The nobodies of whom it largely consisted remain nobodies still. Only two persons have improved their position. Lord Salisbury has, by the confession of his opponents, done well as Foreign Secretary. He threw overboard, in the most hearty and unapologetic way, the Eastern policy of which he had been the organ in Lord Beaconsfield's Government from 1878 to 1880, and promoted, when he might have been expected to disapprove and retard, the union of the two Bulgarias. The irritation which had existed between the German Chancery and our Foreign Office under the previous Government disappeared, and Bismarck seems to have almost gone out of his way to make things smooth for the rivals of those whom he considered unfriendly to himself. The violent tone which Lord Salisbury had used toward Russia was quickly dropped, and the question of the Afghan frontier settled upon the lines which Mr. Gladstone's Government had approved; so that here, also, Liberal critics found nothing to condemn.

On the whole, Lord Salisbury stands now before the country with a character for administrative judgment, as well as vigor, which he never enjoyed before. It is the same with Lord Randolph Churchill. Whether or no he has really proved a good executive official, the public cannot tell, because it knows very little of what goes on inside the walls of our departments. But, at any rate, he has done better than might have been predicted from the reckless violence of his speeches in opposition. He has made no conspicuous mistakes. In the only large enterprise he has had to direct, the expedition against Burmah, he has acted, or allowed the Indian Viceroy to act, with promptitude and decision, and gains credit for these qualities even from those who doubt the need for the war and condemn the annexation to which it has led. In his Parliamentary, as well as his platform harangues, he has occasionally relapsed into the abusive vein by which he rose to eminence; but these lapses have been fewer and fewer, while his serious speeches have shown plenty of force and courage. Those who have watched him closely do not think any better of his statesmanship or patriotism than they did before, but they admit that he has made himself more than ever the fighting leader of the mass of the Tory party, the man whom its bolder spirits are prepared to follow in any new departure. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, who was nominally leader of the House of Commons, has behaved very much as was expected, neither raising nor lowering his reputation as a solid, dry, resolute man, with little pliability and no brilliance. He was not severely tested in the House of Commons, because during last July and August the Ministry carried on its business at sufferance, the Liberals wishing to keep them in; and during the election campaign he did not shine, for his platform manner is heavy and his ideas want freshness.

On the domestic policy of the Salisbury Ministry there is nothing to say, because they did not develop any. They began by dropping the Irish Coercion Act, not alleging, as they might have done, that it would have been all but impossible to procure its renewal at so late a period of the session as the end of June, but declaring that they conceived coercion to be justified only by extreme necessity, and that no extreme necessity existed. Such a declaration, followed as it was by strictures upon Lord Spencer's government of Ireland, severely tried the aristocratic section of their followers, who would like to put Ireland under martial law. But the murmurs of disapproval soon died away, and nothing else arose to cause division in the Tory ranks. When the election campaign began, it became necessary to set some sort of policy before the country. This might have been expected to open fissures in the compact structure of the party. But Lord Salisbury confined himself to adopting, with considerable modifications, some of the proposals Mr. Gladstone had already made, and he was relieved from the necessity of doing more by the highly aggressive tactics of the advanced Liberals. Their hostility to the Established Church enabled him to pose, quite honestly, as the advocate of the principle of establishments, and to assume, with less justification, the position of Defender of the Faith. The whole Tory party rallied to the cry; the battle became a defensive one. There was no more risk of internal dissensions; there was no longer much need of an attractive programme. Had the Ministry obtained a majority, they would have had to frame a positive policy and submit it in the form of bills to Parliament. They would in particular have been forced to prepare a comprehensive scheme for rural local government, and would have found it extremely difficult to make such a scheme popular without alienating the landed aristocracy. But the Irish difficulty was nearer and more menacing. Having won from twenty to thirty seats by Parnellite votes, they were under a prima-facie obligation to adopt a friendly tone to the Nationalists, to abstain from coercive measures, and go as far as they dared in the direction of home rule. Lord Carnarvon seems to have been sent to Ireland as Viceroy in the hope of carrying out such a policy. But when the result of the elections showed that even with the aid of the Parnellites they would have a majority of only four in the House of Commons; when they had reason to think that Mr. Gladstone was willing to go at least as far toward home rule as their most loyal supporters would follow them; when the reception given in the press and by society to the scheme ascribed to him had shown how little the English people, and especially the upper class, were inclined toward Nationalist ideas, they could not but stop short. For a time they seemed to have hesitated, and it is a plausible conjecture that the Cabinet was divided. When they drew up the Queen's speech they were still in doubt whether or no to propose a coercion bill, and their plan was to amend the procedure rules of the House of Commons before attempting anything else. After the debate on the address had begun, and they had felt the pressure of their own supporters, anxious to see strong measures taken in Ireland, they resolved to gain a few days by sending over Mr. W. H. Smith as Irish Secretary to advise them on the state of the country. Two days later, when it was plain that they could not hope to keep office, because the Parnellites were going to vote against them, and the Liberals were sure to turn them out on some early day—these two parties being in so great a majority that an accidental defeat must come if an intentional one did not—they nerved themselves to a more decided course, and gave notice, without waiting for Mr. Smith's report, or even referring to his mission, that they would bring in an Irish coercion bill and ask precedence for it; whereupon they were forthwith turned out.

Nothing in their life became them so little as their entering it and quitting it. They entered it by throwing overboard their former advocacy of repressive legislation for Ireland, and determining to govern without it—a resolution laudable in itself, but less laudable in them, and rendered suspicious by the aid they had so frequently obtained against Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet from Irish votes. They died, or at least they hastened their death, by an equally sudden change of front to

the policy of repression, when it was plain that the Irish vote would be thrown against them, and that the best thing to play for was a reputation for vigor in the eyes of the English. The weakness, however, of their counsels during the previous week has been little redeemed by this death-bed resolution; and the comparative quiet of Ireland, where outrages have been few, and convictions generally obtained at the assizes, has made the proposal of a coercion bill seem more like a party stroke than a dictate of firm policy. Yet whoever considers the whole difficulties of the Irish problem will not judge harshly the faults of any English Government. Mr. Gladstone's Ministry also erred, every ministry is sure to err, in dealing with such a tangle. There is so much to be said against every course and so little for any course, that one cannot be surprised that fourteen men should find it hard to hold to the same course even for a week. This is the first and chief moral of the short but eventful annals of the departed Administration. It came in by Irish help, it lived so long as it kept aloof from Irish questions, it fell so soon as it was forced to touch them. The same Serbonian bog will probably engulf other English ministries before at last some one drains it off or fills it up.

The other moral is that Conservatism in its old sense, in the sense of Sir Robert Peel's days, has almost vanished from England. There was little or nothing, except their defence of the Established Church at the general election, to distinguish the Salisbury Government from a Liberal Government. It never took its stand on Conservative principles. It never talked Conservative language. Three of the measures which it passed in the closing weeks of the last Parliament savored of State Socialism at least as much as any that passed under Mr. Gladstone's auspices. Even when it was resisting the amendment (to the address) about allotments for agricultural laborers last week, it left the economic and Conservative view to be stated by Mr. Goschen and Lord Hartington, and declared itself willing to go in for an allotment scheme. Electoral power has now so completely passed to the working classes that no ministry, on either side, ventures to oppose what the working classes are believed to desire, and few are the politicians who have the courage even to tell the working classes that they are wrong in any wish they express.

Since their fall, little has been said or thought about the outgoing Cabinet, nor will any of their doings, except the annexation of Burmah, be long remembered. All eyes are turned toward the rising sun; and since the question whether Mr. Gladstone would form a Cabinet has been settled, curiosity is at work on the direction its Irish policy will take. The Tory party has this consolation for its defeat, that it marches out in good order, loyal to its leaders, unpledged to any particular Irish or English measures, full of fighting spirit, and hopeful of improving its position at that general election which every one believes to be not far distant. Y.

PAUL BAUDRY.

PARIS, January 28, 1886.

THE funeral of Paul Baudry took place yesterday at the Church of Notre Dame des Champs, not far from the house which was long the home of the man who may well be called the first artist of our modern French school. It was some consolation for those who had known him to see the immense concourse of people which was attracted by this funeral. There were not only the usual deputations from the Institute, from the Beaux-Arts, the official representatives of art; there were all the young *rapins* who live in the studios of the Latin quarter; there were workingmen mingled with men and women of the best society; there were models, and even small Italian children in their picturesque rags. Baudry was beloved by all those who knew him, and he will be regretted as a man as well as an artist.

His origin was of the most humble sort. His father made wooden shoes at Bourbon-Vendée, where Paul was born November 7, 1828. He entered the School of the Beaux-Arts in 1845, as one of the pupils of that great establishment. The young Vendean obtained a prize as the result of his three years' study, and this prize gave him entrance to the French School of Painting at Rome. It was certainly curious, in an ethnological point of view, to see a young Breton, a Celt, find himself so immediately at home in Rome and in Italy. Baudry was made, as it were, for Italy, and he found himself, at the age of twenty, in his own element, among the great works of art of Raphael and Michael Angelo. No painter of our time can be said to have assimilated so well, without being a mere copyist, Italian art, its color, its methods, its noble simplicity, its idealism. Baudry was completely seduced by Rome, and not only seduced, transformed. His first master had been Drolling, a classic of the classic, but one of those classics who had never understood the Italian genius, its elegance and its liberty. Drolling belonged to the school of David, a school which had rehabilitated the study of the nude, but which had, so to speak, no soul and no life. Baudry found masters in Rome who taught him new lessons, and his genius was all ready to receive them. A sort of preëstablished harmony placed him in direct communication with the greatest masters.

While he was at Rome (the pupils of the School of the Villa Medici remain there five years, at the expense of the state), he sent a few pictures to Paris. The best of them, the "Torture of a Vestal," is now at the Museum of Lille; it is dated 1857. There is every year an official report on these remittances from Rome. Speaking of this work of Baudry's, the reporter expressed the fear lest the painter should abandon too much the traditions of art—a singular judgment, as nobody has been, in one sense, more faithful to tradition than Baudry; only he found it where it really was, not with David, but with the great masters of the old times.

Besides his "Vestal," Baudry had sent, for his first public exhibition, a picture which is now in the Museum of the Luxembourg, and which is a true revelation of his own peculiar genius. It was "Fortune and the Child." It is a charming picture; the sleeping infant, the goddess in her chaste nudity, the landscape, all remind the spectator forcibly of the Venetian masters, of Palma Vecchio, of Giorgione, of Titian himself. Baudry had assimilated the grace, the golden color, the easy and harmonious lines, the *je ne sais quoi* of the school of Venice. He had sent also some smaller pictures—"Saint John the Baptist in his childhood," a lovely picture; the portrait of the young son of Mme. S——; and a "Leda." To this first period belong also the "Magdalene," painted in 1858 (which is now in the Museum of Nantes), and the "Toilet of Venus" (which is in the Museum of Bordeaux). These indications show that Baudry's pictures were bought, as an encouragement, by the state, and presented to the provincial museums; the public was not yet acquainted with him, though he had risen as it were almost immediately to the highest regions of art.

The Milanese and the Venetian painters were the first masters of Baudry. While he inspired himself with their works, he did not forget that nature is the greatest master after all, and he made portraits. I have sometimes heard people lament over the necessity under which some painters were placed to produce portraits in order to make a living. I cannot sympathize with this sentiment. I am convinced that the greatest painters lose nothing and can gain much by portrait making. Nothing is really so rare as a good portrait, one which shows not only the physical man, but the intellectual, the moral man. Raphael made portraits; those of Van Dyck, of Rembrandt, of Rubens are among the highest works of art. The portraits of Baudry are also worthy of all attention. He exhibited in the Salon of 1857 his portrait of Beulé, who was a professor and a member of the French Academy, the author of a life of Augustus and of the Cæsars. It is impossible to forget this picture, full of realism and of life, which gave all the character of the personage. We can see in it the essential characteristics of the talent of Baudry. Why is it that he was in the end equally admired and beloved by the disciples of the old classic schools and by the most advanced realists and impressionists? It is because he always copied life, he painted what he saw; but he saw it not only with his optic nerve, he saw it also with his mind. He was able to choose in nature what suited him best, and what could take a place in some preconceived harmony of form and of color, but he did not create in his mind a factitious nature, he was at the same time a realist and an idealist.

Baudry painted portraits, among other persons, of M. Guizot (and this may be considered a masterpiece), of Guillaume, the sculptor, of Charles Garnier, the architect of the new Opéra, of Edmond About. Curiously enough, his portraits of men are more admired and are perhaps better than his portraits of women, though he was essentially the painter of feminine grace and beauty. There was perhaps something in the modern fashions which offended or crossed his taste. He made his portraits of men somewhat in the Flemish style, generally on dark grounds; he adopted, however, the Clouet style in the portraits of small dimensions, such as those of About, of Garnier, with their bluish or greenish background. The portrait of About is a marvel. It is not a miniature—it has more life, more independence; it is a concentrated form of art. Baudry, who was disdainful of money, often refused to make portraits; he always wished to have interesting models—interesting to him for some reason or other.

While he painted portraits, he never forgot the form of art for which he was peculiarly fitted. His "Pearl and Wave," which was exhibited in 1863 and was bought by Mr. Stewart, is a conception of exquisite charm. The Pearl is a woman who has been rolled by the waves, the color of which is opaline and pearly. The atmosphere is clear; the color has the blueness, the transparency which characterizes what may be called the decorative part of this artist's work.

We now arrive at the great work of Baudry—the decorative painting of the foyer of the Opéra. He had tried his hand, in the decorative style, in the small hôtel of Mme. de Païva, in the Champs Élysées, where he had treated some ceilings. He had also painted two panels, "Cybele" and "Amphitrite," for Mme. de Nadaillac's house. He had made some figures, symbolizing the towns of Italy, for the Duchess of Galliera. From the year 1865 Baudry disappears, as it were, for eight years; he devotes himself completely to the largest decorative work of our time. He first went to Rome again, and shut himself up in the Sistine Chapel; he made some copies of the Sibyls and of other figures, which, though they are copies, are masterpieces in their way. They are now in the Palace of the Beaux-Arts. It was not possible, of course, to recommence the Sistine Chapel, or the famous Hall of the Ten of the Ducal Palace of Venice in a modern opera-house. Baudry had to make a new and complete programme: it was a sort of apotheosis of the fine

arts, personified, deified, and placed in ideal and mythological regions. Baudry first made all his drawings with nude figures (these drawings are truly admirable and have all been preserved), in order to have as much truth and harmony as possible in the movements, the attitudes, the groups. He had to treat three immense ceilings, on which he glorified the arts, and to tell in twelve irregular surfaces the whole history of music, and of the art of dancing from Apollo to Salomé. He painted the muses on great panels, and finally on ten medallions placed before the gigantic doors. He made groups of children, representing the instrumental music of all nations.

The cartoons of this gigantic work ought to be preserved in the Louvre. As for the pictures, which excited an immense movement of enthusiasm when they were first shown to the public, they were slowly blackened by the gas till they became almost indistinct. Lately they have been washed with much care, and they have recovered now all their beauty. Electric light has been substituted for gas light, and it is to be hoped that the electric light will do them no harm. Still, many people think that copies ought to be left in place of the original pictures, and that these ought to be transferred to the Louvre, as they are certainly the greatest monument of modern French art.

This immense work of the Opéra occupied eight entire years of the life of Baudry. During all this time he worked merely for glory, and not for money. The journeys, the studies for the paintings of the Opéra, absorbed completely the sum which was given him by the state. Baudry now began to make portraits again, but he always returned with much pleasure to his favorite decorative subjects. Among his works of the latter period we must cite the "Wedding of Psyche," a charming ceiling which was painted for the house of Mr. Vanderbilt in New York, and was exhibited in 1882 at the Orangerie of the Tuileries.

Baudry showed much originality in the ceiling of the great hall of the Court of Cassation, the "Glorification of Law." It is one of the boldest decorative pictures I know, as bold as a Tiepolo, but with a much higher and nobler feeling. The coloration is extraordinary: the red gown of the judge shines wonderfully on the clear blues and greens of the allegorical figures. The composition is extremely fine: there is a child worthy of Raphael. We can pass the same eulogy on the ceiling painted for Chantilly, representing Mercury carrying Psyche to heaven. There is an exquisite idealism in this scene—in the blue sky, the light clouds, the purity of Psyche, the despair of Cupid. It may be called the *chant du cygne*: Alas! Baudry had promised to come to Chantilly to put his name on the ceiling with his own hand, and now his hand is cold. But if his name is not there, his genius is visible in every detail of this masterpiece. Those who visit Chantilly will do well to look, also, on the "Saint Hubert," by Baudry, an extraordinary picture, which has been the subject of much discussion; and the little cupids playing with the emblems of the gods, which were transported by the Duc d'Aumale to Chantilly from the Hôtel Fould.

Correspondence.

THE PRESIDENT'S TREATMENT OF MARYLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In Maryland we find it impossible to comprehend civil-service reform as practised in this State by the Administration.

We understand and agree perfectly with the views expressed by the President in his message, but the practice is incomprehensible. He was elected on the distinct pledge, made by the Democratic party and reiterated by him, that "public office is a public trust," and yet, as far as Maryland is concerned, the Federal patronage has been used to maintain the most corrupt and offensive spoils system that exists in the Union. It is announced in our press that the President has notified the Democratic Senators and members of Congress from this State that they must agree upon the principal Federal appointments, and that he will surrender his Constitutional prerogative of appointment and let them appoint whomever they agree upon. Our senior Senator Gorman has taken open and public ground against the civil-service principles of the President; and his friend, Representative Compton, in a public speech two days ago, declared his hostility to the existing law and his willingness to vote for its repeal. These two gentlemen daily frequent the departments in search of offices for their friends, and get them too. During the recent exciting canvass in this State, Senator Gorman's avowed advocacy of the spoils system, and the distinct understanding that he commanded the Federal patronage to secure his reëlection, did in fact secure his reelection. And to-day the whole power of the Federal patronage is as thoroughly used in support of the spoils system as that of New York ever was under Tweed.

There has been for years a body of Democrats here who have kept up a constant protest against the corrupt methods of Machine politics by which the party has been and is controlled. In 1881, while the President was Mayor of Buffalo, and in 1883, when he was Governor of New York, Governor Hamilton, of this State, appealed to the Democratic party against the bosses, to reform the grievous and corrupt practices then prevailing. For instance, in a General Assembly of 111 members, there were 105 employees whose wages exceeded those of the members. Of the sinking fund established by the Constitution, taxes to raise which were regularly collected, over three millions had been squandered, and no substantial part set aside in a sinking fund. The registration lists of the city of Baltimore contained 30,000 spurious names of voters, who had died, removed, or were fictitious or illegal. Governor Hamilton's appeal was backed by a strong body of brave and honest sentiment, but accomplished nothing against the Machine. A new registration was provided, which its sponsors confess is fraudulent, and the ballot-box produces results at command of the bosses. There is no fair election here, and the voice of the people is actually stifled. In the Legislature now in session violent resolutions are introduced denouncing civil-service reform and instructing our representatives to vote for the repeal of the law. They are received with great applause.

With these facts notorious, the Administration appoints Higgins, Thomas, and "lots of the boys." The Civil-Service Association, Governor Hamilton, and a large number of the leading Democrats of the State have besought the assistance of the Administration in favor of good government. They have explained to the President and Cabinet the real question in Maryland, which is between corrupt Machine politics and decent methods, between bad and good government. They are utterly ignored, and every appointment up to this time has been made in the interest of the spoils system. Workers, henchmen, and heelers are alone considered, and the whole *morale* of a civil-service-reform Administration is exerted against civil-service reform.

No man in Maryland will deny this. The cause of good government is prostrate before the patronage power of the Federal Government. I have been a reform Democrat, with positive ideas against the spoils system, before the President entered public life. I supported him earnestly in the canvass of 1884. But I cannot understand how he and his Cabinet delegate the appointing power to members of Congress, support the people who are hostile to his ideas, and ignore those who maintain his declared principles.

O. L. D.

Baltimore, February 6, 1886.

THE OHIO IMBROGLIO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your current issue you have something to say about the Ohio legislative imbroglio. Permit me to say that you share the misunderstanding of the facts involved which is common among outside observers, and which is not to be wondered at, as Ohio political affairs are perplexingly complicated.

The Cincinnati election frauds last October were of two kinds—(1) frauds at the polls and in the count, and (2) forgeries in the official returns after they had been signed by the judges. Republicans claim that but for the frauds they would have carried the county (Hamilton) by at least 5,000, and at this date there is little denial by the Democrats that the entire Republican ticket was legally elected by a large majority. But the Republicans go further—they claim that even on the face of the returns (minus the proved and, indeed, admitted forgeries) nine Republican candidates for the House of Representatives and two of the Republican Senatorial candidates were shown to have been elected. The County Clerk, who is a "gang" Democrat, insisted on counting the known forged additions to the returns. In the case of one Democratic candidate for the Senate, the forgers forgot to change the figure 7 into a 9 (as was done for all the other Democratic candidates, by putting a cipher on top of the 7); but the County Clerk was equal to the occasion, and of his own motion added the extra 200 necessary to elect this particular candidate.

Before the returns were certified to the Secretary of State, the Republicans sought by mandamus and injunction to compel the County Clerk to count only the legal returns—that is, to prevent his counting the known and confessed forgeries in the returns, made after they had been signed by the election judges. The Circuit Court decided in favor of the Republicans. A divided decision was given by the Supreme Court, the majority holding, however, that the courts could not interfere with the County Clerk—that he could count what he pleased; but the Court unanimously recognized that there had been forged additions to the returns. Thereupon the County Clerk issued his certificates to all the Democratic candidates, and the Secretary of State (a Republican) admitted those gentlemen on the *prima-facie* evidence of their certificates.

As in other States, each branch of the Legislature is the judge of "the election, *return*, and qualification of its members." In the House the question was raised that the Democratic delegation from Hamilton County were not entitled to their seats *on the face of the returns*. An investigation was held, and the Committee on Privileges and Elections reported that, on the face of the returns, nine of the Democrats holding certificates were defeated. Hence the ousting of nine Democrats and the seating of as many Republicans. On the face of the returns the tenth Republican candidate to the House was certainly defeated, but he is now contesting on the ground of fraud at the election.

Now as to the Senate. With the aid of the four holding seats by virtue of certificates from the Clerk of Hamilton County, the Democrats had just a majority. The first business they did, after electing Democratic clerks and sergeants-at-

arms, was to alter the rules from those in use by the last Senate (which was Democratic), so as to practically make the clerk the presiding officer of the Senate, and also to give contestees a right to vote on their own cases, the application of course being to the seats of the four Democrats from Hamilton County, against which contests had been filed. It was the adoption of these extraordinary rules which led to the deadlock. The Constitution of Ohio, in explicit terms, defines the duties of the Lieutenant-Governor. It states that he shall preside over the Senate, order roll-calls, and announce results of votes, etc. The clerk attempted to perform these duties, but the Lieutenant-Governor insisted on his constitutional rights. This was followed by the refusal of the Lieutenant-Governor to permit the four Democrats from Hamilton County to vote upon their own cases in contest, and his authority for so refusing was a statute of long standing, which no one branch of the Legislature could repeal by a mere rule. In addition, the Lieutenant-Governor is sustained by unbroken parliamentary precedent. Finally, a compromise was arrived at by which a committee, composed equally of Democrats and Republicans, will hold an investigation in Cincinnati. Each branch of the Legislature will, therefore, have its own investigation.—Very respectfully,

JAMES BOYLE.

CINCINNATI, O., February 7, 1886.

TENNESSEE "DOUBTFUL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is a phase in Tennessee politics to which I wish to call the attention of Republicans. I think it will gratify them. This phase is the fact that Tennessee is one of the "doubtful States." The Republican candidate will probably receive the electoral vote of this State in 1888. Democrats here recognize their danger. Their expedient for "saving the party" is characteristic. It is to have Mr. J. M. Keating, editor of the *Appeal*, of this city, appointed Public Printer of the United States. Mr. Keating was an applicant for the position of Postmaster at this point. It was regarded as a foregone conclusion that Senator Harris (who by the courtesy of the Senate had the appointing power, this being his home) would recommend Mr. Keating, who for twenty years has been trying to make a great man of Mr. Harris, and who undoubtedly caused his election to the United States Senate. But Mr. Harris appointed another man, a merchant thoroughly competent, but not at all "identified with the party." This has raised a hubbub among the "workers," who are reported as saying that Mr. Harris may get the merchants of Tennessee to work for the party hereafter. Keating is a "whole-souled, magnetic kind of fellow," who takes a pride in "sticking to his friends" through good and evil report, and who remained in Memphis during the yellow fever of 1877 and 1878. He is exceedingly popular with certain elements of "the party," and they are indignant over his defeat.

Here comes in the Republican opportunity. Tilden's majority over Hayes was about 43,000, Hancock's majority over Garfield was about 23,000, and Cleveland's over Blaine about 9,000. The Democratic candidate for Governor was elected by a still smaller majority. A change of 4,500 votes would give Tennessee to the Republicans. It must also be borne in mind that the total number of Democratic votes cast has been about 135,000, with but little variation since 1876, while the Republicans have grown from 87,000 to 125,000 or thereabouts. This speaks volumes. Now if Keating is not appointed Public Printer, the *Appeal*, which is "the organ of the party," will be very self-contained and have little to say. This State can only be made Democratic by the severest use of the party lash. If the *Appeal* is silent, the organization of the Democratic party, of which people are tired down here, grows weak at once, and I am certain it will effect a change of more than 4,500 votes.

As to whether Keating will be appointed, I do not know. But I have been reliably informed by one high in the Republican ranks that he will not be. At any rate, if he is appointed, Tennessee is still doubtful. VORTEX.

MEMPHIS, February 7, 1886.

COÖPERATIVE CATALOGUING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The time has come for a change in the manner of cataloguing public libraries; and as I wish to reach the ear of those who direct our public libraries rather than of those who administer them, and of the general public itself, with some suggestions on this subject, I venture to offer what I have to say to the *Nation* rather than to the *Library Journal*, where it would reach few outside of the libraries themselves.

Of the money now expended on the support of libraries a considerable share goes to pay the expense of catalogues, either printed or written. This is as it should be, for no one can doubt that it were better to buy much fewer books and have them well catalogued, than to accumulate no matter how large an incoherent mass with no catalogues or with insufficient ones. But of this cataloguing expense it is not going too far to say that a very large share is wasted in the reduplication of that which ought to be done once for all. Nearly all our considerable libraries are making or keeping up elaborate catalogues which are, to a large extent, repetitions of one another. And as the libraries grow, and the public demands on them become more and more intelligent as well as numerous and pressing, catalogues necessarily become more elaborate and complex, especially in the direction of the bibliography of subjects. It is to the great credit of our American librarians as a body, as well as to the men, like Jewett and Noyes, who have so nobly responded to this need with labors far beyond the due call of their position, that we have such admirable catalogues of so many libraries. But our library system is but passing out of its infancy. The demands of the past are but a shadow of what is to come, and already this system of elaborate cataloguing, repeating itself in scores, even in hundreds, of libraries, is breaking down of its own weight. The only question now is, How can it be replaced with something more elastic, less expensive, and capable of meeting the needs of the twentieth century, when our libraries will be numbered by thousands and the volumes in scores of them by millions?

Coöperation furnishes the clue. For the ten years of its existence the American Library Association has had this as its watchword, and can point with pride to the work already done by its means. The new edition of Poole's 'Index to Periodicals' owes its existence to the labors of fifty librarians, each doing a share, where, under the old plan of cataloguing, each must have done the whole in manuscript, as many were doing before the coöperative scheme was arranged. The quarterly index to periodicals now being issued with the *Library Journal* is another step in the same direction. But these are only first steps, and merely hint at what must follow. The time must soon come when the libraries will no longer undertake to provide subject-catalogues of their own. The author catalogues will necessarily be kept up, as each library must have a *list* of its books. But in place of the subject-catalogues we shall have printed bibliographies of subjects, issued for the most part periodically, and serving equally for one library or another. A shelf (or, in the larger libraries, a series of shelves) of these bibliographies, properly arranged, with a handy index to the volumes, will show the reader what titles to look for on a certain subject, and the library's author-catalogue will give a clue to their shelf location if they are to be found in the particular library. In many cases such bibliographies will give an indication as to which of the leading public libraries contain the rarer publications. (This is admirably done in Dr. Bolton's list of scientific periodicals lately issued by the Smithsonian Institution.)

Now the point of what I have to say is, that such a scheme of bibliographies and subject-indexes is unquestionably feasible, while it furnishes the only possible solution of the problem. For its carrying out, all that is needed is that the directors of our public and college libraries should become alive to its immense economy as compared with the present wasteful system, and should be ready to vote money as subscriptions for this kind of work, in sums which will appear very large at first blush, but which will be much less than those now expended on manuscript work or on local printed catalogues, which can thus be superseded, and not only superseded but vastly improved upon. The time has fully come for an agitation of this matter. If the intelligent men who direct our libraries and care for the funds which support them can be led to look into it, it cannot be but that they will be quick to join in some scheme by which the results I have tried to outline can be accomplished. A somewhat captious criticism of present methods is already in vogue, and is certain to be destructive of much possible good work if not met by a readiness on the part of library managers to reform what it is certainly not extravagant language to call an abuse.

May I add yet a line to say that as Chairman of the Coöperation Committee of the American Library Association, I shall be pleased to receive from any quarter suggestions which may assist us in forwarding the proposed reform?—Very truly yours, WILLIAM I. FLETCHER.

AMHERST COLLEGE LIBRARY, February 13, 1886.

TWO DECADES OF YALE AND HARVARD —A RETROSPECT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The year 1886 will witness the choice of a new President for Yale College. Fifteen years ago a change was made in the nominal head of the University, but in the actual policy of its management there has been no corresponding variation. Drs. Woolsey, Bacon, and Porter had at that time the credit of dictating the details of college administration, and their power has been broken by nothing save time and death. The resignation of President Porter makes the fit occasion for an account of their stewardship before it is decided whether the policy which they consistently carried out is to be pursued in future, or pushed aside by the counsels and energy of new blood and fresh ideas.

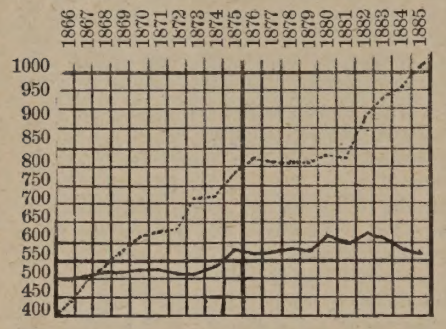
Results are the ultimate criterion by which all policies are judged. In this judgment no sentiment should be cherished save the just ideal of all Yale men, that their college is entitled to the position of the foremost. It is this plain question that many Yale men are asking to day: How has that position been filled by the College during the administration of President Porter? This period corresponds exactly enough with the span of the present government of Harvard University. It may be of interest to compare the history of fifteen years of Harvard with a decade and a half of Yale. Everybody knows that Harvard's policy has been nothing if not progressive;

Yale's, nothing if not conservative. What are the results?

Let us compare the catalogues of both universities for 1873 with those of the present day. At that time the policy of both new administrations was beginning to influence the whole body of college students, among whom the Seniors became Freshmen almost with the inauguration of their new rulers. The whole number of students in the colleges—excluding the strictly professional schools—was and is as follows:

	1873.	1885.	Increase.
Yale	818	856	4.6 per cent.
Harvard	803	1,162	44.7 per cent.

It therefore appears that the rate of increase at Harvard during the past twelve years has been no less than ten times the rate at Yale. This significant fact will lead us to examine the figures more in detail. The diagram below shows the fluctuations in the whole number of undergraduate academical students for the twenty years, 1866 to 1885:

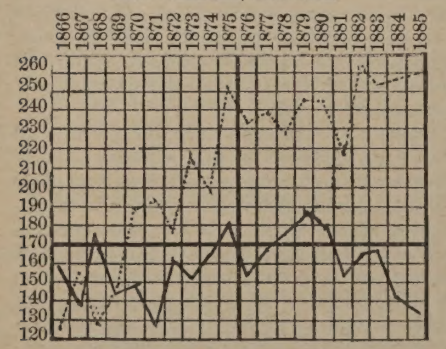


.....Number of students at Harvard (Acad. Dept.).
——— " " " Yale (Acad. Dept.).

The nearly horizontal line in the lower part of this diagram shows that the increase at Yale is from 500 to 563, or 12½ per cent., while the dotted line of Harvard's progress indicates an increase from 419 to 1,068, or 155 per cent. In other words, the mere *gain* at Harvard amounts to a greater number of students than Yale has ever had in its Academical Department! If for ten years longer these ratios of increase should remain unchanged, in 1895 Harvard College would be teaching over 1,700 students, while only about one-third of that number would seek the system of our fathers at Yale. Computed at the current rates charged for instruction at the respective colleges, Harvard will derive a revenue of $256,350 from these 1,708 students, while Yale will get but $83,580 from her 597, or an annual loss to her exchequer of nearly $175,000.

The curiosity which leads the Yale man to study the statistics of the Freshman classes of the last twenty years is equally sad in its results, foreboding fewer students in future rather than more:

FLUCTUATIONS IN THE NUMBERS OF THE FRESHMAN CLASSES, 1865-1886.



..... Size of Freshman class, Harvard.
——— " " " " Yale.

As before, the dotted lines represent Harvard's progress, while the heavy line measures Yale's standstill or decline. The latter's Freshman Class of this year is only 134, or 22 *less* than entered in 1865; while 258 entered this year at Cambridge, or 133 *more* than twenty years ago. It is impossible to mistake the import of these figures: more students are evidently being attracted to the Massachusetts university than to the Connecticut college.

Harvard, again, is not without honor in its own country. In twelve years the undergraduate attendance from Massachusetts has increased 27 per cent., or from 475 to 606. Yale, too, shows a small increase—less than 9 per cent.—in the Connecticut contingent. It used to be the old cry that Harvard was a local institution, while Yale was cosmopolitan. In 1873 no less than 62½ per cent. of the students that flocked to Yale, came from the West, the South, and the Middle States. To-day the proportion is about the same. But Harvard has in the same period increased its proportion of foreigners to New Englanders from 28 to 40 per cent. of the whole number. Of this class there were 215 in 1873, 422 in 1885—an increase of 96 per cent. At Yale the numbers have also increased, from 471 to 504, which is only 7 per cent. So we see that Harvard is getting every year a larger percentage of the best class of students—those who come from long distances in search of culture; and this in spite of Yale's immense influence *in partibus alienorum*, due to the fact that she has educated the great bulk of Eastern-bred men in the West and in the Middle States. Wherever one travels in the West he finds ten Yale men to one Harvard man. In New York the proportion must be two to one, and only a few years since it was much greater. Yet the metropolis, which in 1873 sent 52 men to all the classes in Yale College, and only 45 to Harvard, sends 79 in 1885 to the latter, and but 45 to the former. The Yale men are sending their boys to Harvard!

The resident graduates of a college are an index to the enthusiasm which its work inspires. In 1873 there were 60 of these at Yale; now there are but 42. Harvard in 1873 had 55 post-graduates; in 1885 the number had increased to 72. During this period the pecuniary allurements of post-graduate study had increased at New Haven over 300 per cent.; at Cambridge they had less than doubled.

Great parade has been made of the increase in the teaching staff of Yale College. In 1873 there were 80, now there are 114 instructors—an increase of 42½ per cent. At Harvard they have increased from 100 to 184, which nearly doubles Yale's percentage. Yale claims to have erected in fifteen years buildings costing $700,000. Harvard, between 1869 and 1881, used $2,307,305 for the same purpose. It is customary for Yale apologists to put forward many excuses for the college, which allege lack, not only of funds, but of any spirit among alumni that comes forward to ease the pecuniary path of their alma mater. But the graduates have never been asked to give; they are more often treated as interlopers in college affairs than persons whose support or backing is desirable. Yale men who will take the trouble to read Mr. Henry C. Kingsley's contribution to the November number of the *New Englander and Yale Review*, can easily learn the disposition of the "powers that be" toward the body of the alumni.

Such is the shameful history of Yale's decline and Harvard's progress. Was it only to be thus distanced in the short span of fifteen years that Yale, in generous emulation, kept pace for over a century and a half with its richer and older rival?

Yale College needs many things, but first and foremost it needs a new sort of President. He must be a man of commanding executive ability, proficient in pedagogy, a sound economist, unhampered by the details of professorial drudgery. Such ability commands high remuneration in the world of enterprise, and not less than ten thousand dollars should be the salary of this office. And I venture to predict that for such a man, with such a policy as such a description implies, the alumni of New York and vicinity could easily be persuaded to guarantee such a sum for a term of years. Are there not at least two hundred Yale men in New York whose pleasure it would be to spare fifty dollars apiece every year for the rehabilitation of their university?

EDWARD D. PAGE.

February 1, 1886.

MR. WILLIAM RENDLE ON JOHN HARVARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your English contemporary, the *Athenæum*, in its issue for January 16, contains an article by my countryman, Mr. Rendle, in reference to his investigations concerning John Harvard. In it are these words:

"Dr. George E. Ellis, Massachusetts Historical Society, Boston. . . . I have suggested a recognition of the discoveries about Harvard recently made."

I assume this to mean the "discoveries" made by Mr. Rendle (who cannot be aware, I think, that his correspondent holds the distinguished office of President of the Society which he names), and also that the recognition which Dr. Ellis has suggested is of Mr. Rendle's own labors. This assumption is the more probable because the only other gentleman who is at all likely to be thought of in this sense has received a mark of recognition from Harvard University, to say nothing of recognition of another character. It will be perceived at once that I here speak of Mr. Waters, and as he is an American, I desire to say that I approach this matter without being conscious of any undue leaning to the side of my own countryman. The suggestion of the worthy President of the oldest literary society of New England touches a point of great interest, which it is due to him, to the gentleman immediately concerned, and to the literary world, should be treated in a judicial spirit. This is the spirit in which I proceed to lay before you, as briefly as may be, what Mr. Rendle had made public previous to July 8, 1885, first observing that both he and Mr. Waters are entire strangers to me.

Mr. Rendle's earliest paper appeared in the *Genealogist* for April, 1884, and his second in the same magazine for July of the same year. Of their contents it is sufficient to say that the first did not prevent the authorities of Emmanuel College perpetuating an error on one point concerning John Harvard, and using the language of vague uncertainty on another; nor did it enable a distinguished professor of Harvard to do more than lament, on a great occasion, that we were ignorant of the parentage, the birthplace, and the date of birth of the founder of his University. Dr. G. E. Ellis himself, with both papers combined, could only repeat, in words of identical meaning, the regret of his friend, Prof. Norton.

The only other article written by Mr. Rendle within the time I have mentioned was a letter which assumed a two-fold form: first, which I designate as A, with the date April 7, 1885, it appeared in the *South London Press* of April 11, 1885; and secondly, which I describe as B, under date April 11, 1885, it was published in the *Athenæum* of April 18, 1885.

In A we read:

"I think I have got the clue."

In B, written only four days later, and not containing one fresh fact:

"The clue, or rather the result of the clue, is before me."

In A, printed in italics, and also in B, with a verbal alteration:

"*John, son of Robert, and, I suppose, brother of this Thomas, baptized November* 29, 1607, *I believe to be the founder.*"

This is all, and the question now arises, What does it amount to? The articles in the *Genealogist* are "merely as a gathering of material, with suggestions," and as for the letter, "here, and in my notes open to inspection, are clues enough, I should hope, to help us to settle this question once for all—that is, if this does not settle it." These are Mr. Rendle's own words, and I presume not to alter one of them. They show—and they are his last words—that he felt the question was still open, and as to his belief, why, ever since July, 1882, those who had any belief at all on the subject believed that the founder was the son of Robert and had a brother Thomas. What was wanted was proof, and this is just what Mr. Rendle does not give. In his communication published January 16, to which I have already referred, is a sentence of which I give the beginning and the end:

"My proof . . . is . . . and this belief of mine is . . ."

So that, strange as it may seem, he does not, or will not, perceive the vast difference between his own individual belief, which others may share or not, and actual proof which enforces belief by all reasonable creatures.

It will be seen that in dealing with the recognition of what Mr. Rendle has done, I confine myself to what he had made public previous to July 8, 1885. On that day (see his letter in the *Athenæum* of July 11, 1885) he received a copy of Mr. Waters's paper, in which the parentage and birth of John Harvard, as well as various other facts respecting him, are not only stated, but are proved by evidence which is not less conclusive than it is abundant, and in both these respects it leaves nothing to be desired. What Mr. Rendle had done up to the publication of Mr. Waters's paper is accurately characterized in his own words, which have been quoted, and how far anything of the kind is worthy of a special mark of recognition, is a point which I will not discuss. What he has done since is beside the question, unless, indeed, those to whom Dr. Ellis made his suggestion are prepared to treat the very delicate ground of offering recognition to a man for that which he kept in his desk until after the leading facts had been published to the world by another. Now that there is a solid foundation upon which to build, I feel sure there are not wanting those who will gladly contribute materials until an edifice shall be raised not unworthy of the name and fame of John Harvard. If the result of the voyage of Columbus had merely been to enable him to express his belief that he had sailed to within ten leagues of the New World, he would never have received the honors due to the man who discovered the continent of America.

ANGLUS.

THE MASSACHUSETTS METROPOLITAN POLICE SYSTEM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your last issue you incidentally give a gentle thrust at those "respectable" citizens of Boston who were instrumental in securing the enactment of a law providing for the establishment of a Metropolitan Board of Police for the city of Boston. Without attempting to assume a general defence of the system, which in its practical working has thus far certainly had a tendency to improve the public morals of this community, will you allow me to suggest that the adoption of the measure was by no means so wide a departure from the theory of "home rule" as is commonly supposed? With one exception, the control of what is now known as the Police Department has never been wholly in the hands of the local authorities in Massachusetts, until about the middle of the present century. In an article published in the Boston *Daily Herald* for December 26, 1885, the writer had occasion to collect the authorities on this point. It is there shown that Boston did not secure the appointment of its own "watch" by its Selectmen as town officers until 1766, while the other towns did not obtain this privilege until 1836. Prior to these changes in the law, justices of the peace, formerly officers of some dignity and importance, shared with the Selectmen in the duty of regulating the police force.

From the nature of the functions which they are called upon to perform, the powers of police commissioners must always be largely judicial. While the Mayor and Aldermen are concerned with the welfare and prosperity of a municipality in its corporate or business capacity, and in matters which affect its own citizens, the Board of Police, especially in a large city like Boston, forming a great part of the population of the State, must to a certain extent consult the interests of non-residents. Hence it was very proper that the power of appointing Commissioners, being in keeping with certain provisions of the law which have prevailed in this commonwealth through every change in its form of government down to the present day, should be placed in the hands of the Governor. While I regret exceedingly the tendency toward centralization in the management of local affairs which is developing so rapidly in this country, it does not seem to me that any great impetus has been given to that movement by the present method of appointing the Police Commissioners for the city of Boston.

A. B. E.

BOSTON, February 12, 1886.

MEANING OF THE WORD "BANTER."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the review of the Philological Society's new dictionary, which appeared in your last issue, the writer makes the statement that the use of the word "banter" in the sense of "challenge" would be as strange to the great majority of people in this country as to Englishmen.

For aught I know this may be true, as I cannot tell how strange such use would appear to Englishmen; but I do not believe such use of the word entirely unknown in very many portions of the United States. Is it not too much for any individual to say of at least the colloquial use of any word that it is unknown to the majority of the people of this country? In southern Ohio, "banter" and "dare" are almost universally used synonymously, while the word "challenge" would be almost unknown among the common people there. I feel confident that this use of the word banter is quite common throughout all the Southwestern States, including probably portions of New York and Pennsylvania, while the other use is probably universal in New England and in the States peopled mainly from New England.—Yours very respectfully,

DAVID UTTER.

CHICAGO, ILL., February 10, 1886.

INTERNATIONAL PARCELS POST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As another contribution to the "International Parcels Post" question, I would state that I have just received from my correspondents in Frankfort a book the cost of which at second-hand was twenty-four marks (six dollars about). One mark (twenty-five cents) was the express charge from Frankfort to Hamburg. To this was added $3.90, made up as follows: Freight and charges from Hamburg to destination, $2.65; New York Custom-house expenses, forwarding, and commission, $1.25=$3.90; so that the cost of getting the book here was more than two-thirds of the price of the book.

It should be added that there was no duty to pay, as the book was printed more than twenty years ago. Had duty been charged, it could have amounted, under our present admirable system of taxing brains, to $1.50, and the cost of getting the notary's certificate and seal for the privilege of signing a certain oath would have been, in this State, $1.50 more—so that the total expenses would have much exceeded the cost of the book itself.

How long must last this paternal treatment of its poor teachers by "the best government the world ever saw"?—Respectfully,

JAMES M. GARNETT.

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA, VA., February 13, 1886.

A COPYRIGHT SUGGESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems some compromise must be accepted if we are to have international copyright. I beg leave to offer a suggestion. Let domestic manufacture be insisted upon as a condition precedent to the payment of percentages to foreign authors; let a limit of compensation be agreed upon below which such percentages must not fall; then permit foreign editions to come in under, if the protectionists please, a rack-duty, so to speak. I venture to think such a plan were a solution of the difficulty. Marketable articles would be copyrighted here; the booksellers would compete for that; a tax on foreign books would avoid what I believe is Mr. H. C. Lea's great fear, the treasonable preference which he foresees American writers are like to bestow on English (who knows but Chinese or Hungarian?) type-setters and binders; and our pirates might be made welcome to unsalable matter of all kinds. Nor, in case of a new author succeeding with a first book, would it be difficult to argue that copyright should have an *ex-post-facto* effect. As things stand, it is a pity that all the imagination should be found with the authors, and all the ratiocination (to say nothing of the money) with the booksellers.

In regard to authors' profits, the question would be perhaps involved, owing to the firmness with which publishers would probably insist on having their honor accepted as accountant-general. I think it must strike every one familiar with the legal theory of partnership, that the simple and fair method of distributing profits between the man with the idea and the man with the printing-press is to apply a sliding scale. That one should receive $50 and the other $500 on the sale of any given book, is not unjust; but the difference between $500 and $5,000, unless the profits accrue very slowly, is another matter.

I am, sir, etc., T. W.

PHILADELPHIA, February 14, 1886.

Notes.

MRS. FRANCES BROOKS, the translator of 'Heidi,' will shortly issue, through Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston, a brochure entitled 'A Year's Sonnets.' The edition will consist of but 200 copies. The same publishers will bring out immediately a new edition, freshly annotated, of 'Light on the Path,' a work having the official endorsement of the Theosophical Society.

A new edition, largely rewritten, of Mr. George P. Upton's 'Woman in Music,' is in the press of Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago.

M. Paul Bert's excellent 'First Year of Scientific Knowledge,' which we noticed a fortnight ago, is to be adapted for American use by G. A. Went-

worth and G. A. Hill, and published by Ginn & Co., together with the 'Second Year in Science,' and 'Third Year in Science,' of the same author.

A 'Teacher's Manual,' to accompany Sheldon's 'Studies in General History,' is promised in April by D. C. Heath & Co.

Henry Holt & Co. will soon add to their "Leisure Hour" and "Leisure Moment" series a new novel by Mrs. L. B. Walford, entitled 'The History of a Week.' It will have six full-page illustrations.

D. Appleton & Co.'s February announcements include 'The Aliens,' by H. F. Keenan, author of 'Trajan'; 'We Two,' by the author of 'Donovan'; 'Class Interests'; and 'Mammalia in their Relation to Primeval Times,' by Oscar Schmidt. They have in preparation 'Creation or Evolution,' by George Ticknor Curtis; 'The Development of the English Constitution,' by Ambrose Tighe; and a 'History of Education,' by Professor F. V. N. Painter.

Ticknor & Co. publish immediately Mr. Howells's 'Indian Summer,' and 'Every-Day Religion,' discourses by the Rev. James Freeman Clarke.

Macmillan & Co. will publish for the American market a cheap paper edition of Mr. Frederic Harrison's new volume, 'The Choice of Books, and Other Literary Pieces,' which consists of essays and lectures written at various times during the last twenty years, and dealing solely with books, art, and history. We may name those on Mr. Froude's Life of Carlyle, on the Life of George Eliot, on Bernard of Clairvaux, on historic London, and on the French Revolution.

Very vivid, and sadder far than the cold print, is 'General Gordon's Last Journal'—No. 6, printed in facsimile of his manuscript (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribner & Welford). The folio form was determined by the size of the telegraphic blanks on the backs of which Gordon kept his melancholy record from November 5 to December 14, 1884. Once we have the blank form reproduced, and more than once it is shown pasted over with extracts from the Egyptian correspondence of the London papers, with Gordon's sarcastic underscoring and comments. Here and there we meet with a humorous entry, as where Gordon is amused that one of his servants who already has one wife (which most men find enough), wants leave to go and take another; or where he recalls the Crimean officer who, remembering that he was a family man, was not ashamed to duck when shot was flying overhead. The postscript is bitter: "You send me no information, though you have lots of money! C. G. G." This handsome volume will ever be an extraordinary memorial of human daring and human folly.

We are glad to perceive that another edition of the 'Memoir of Ole Bull' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) has been called for. We observe no changes in the text.

'Childe Harold's Pilgrimage' and Franklin's Autobiography form Nos. 2 and 3 of Cassell's pocket "National Library" under Prof. H. Morley's editorship.

The size and costliness of the State Capitol at Hartford, Conn., as well as Mr. R. M. Upjohn's standing in his profession, made it proper to include this great pile in the 'Monographs of American Architecture,' No. 2 (Boston: Ticknor & Co.). Twenty-one heliotype plates show in varying scales and detail all that is needful for a judgment in the premises. We wish we could think the design beautiful, either in the air or as here on paper. In one sense it may be called incomplete, as provision has been made for a large number of portrait statues and medallion heads. Noah Webster has been provided for among the latter. The excellent bronze statue of Governor Buckingham is well taken in Plate 21.

'Whitaker's Almanack' for 1886 promises a great overhauling of its scheme next year, relegating the geographical data to the appendix, restoring old features, and considerably enlarging the size of this indispensable work. Most significant in the present issue are the election returns for the reformed Parliament by counties—an historic body, as the editor truly remarks.

Westermann & Co. send us the concluding numbers of Professor Droysen's 'Historical Handatlas,' of which we have heretofore spoken. Noteworthy in Part 8 is the sheet showing the successive fortunes of Switzerland, and the map of Russia's aggrandizement in Central Asia, shown year by year in colors. In Part 9 we remark Germany in 1812, with maps of the battlefields of Leipzig and Waterloo; the territorial development of Prussia; in Part 10, Napoleon's State erections—a Joseph's coat for colored patchwork; a companion map, Europe at the height of Napoleon's dominion; and a map of Paris in 1784.

Supplementary to the information already given regarding the Lick Observatory in *Harper's Magazine* by Professor Newcomb, and in *Science* by Professor Todd, the *Overland Monthly* contains this very interesting statement with regard to the eccentric millionaire, James Lick, from the pen of Professor Holden: "There is no doubt that a desire to be remembered by his fellow-men influenced him largely. He wished to do something which should be important in itself, and which should be done in a way to strike the imagination. He was only restrained from building a marble pyramid, larger than that of Cheops, on the shores of San Francisco Bay, by the fear that in some future war the pyramid might perish in a possible bombardment of the place. The observatory took the place of the pyramid. . . . He has been most fortunate in having his desires studied, and given an ultimate form, by successive sets of trustees who had no ends in view but to make this strangely acquired gift most useful to the city, the State, and the country. He will be buried in the base of the pier of the great equatorial on Mount Hamilton, and will have such a tomb as no Old World Emperor could have commanded or imagined."

The *Harvard Advocate* has fulfilled the term of twenty years, and celebrates this event in its last number by drawing on its past editors for contributions. It has well maintained its literary quality in this long interval, and remains also, in our opinion, typographically the most attractive of college journals. A second volume of 'Verses from the *Advocate*' is announced to be published at the cost of Mr. W. G. Peckham, of this city, a former editor.

We are pleased to meet with the *Academy*, a journal of secondary education, issued monthly under the auspices of the Associated Academic Principals of the State of New York (Syracuse: George A. Bacon). Its modest and taking preface sets forth its aim to be of practical service to those engaged in teaching children in their 'teens. It will have found a reason for existing if it merely carries out its intention to make a specialty of reviewing books designed for secondary schools. This is wretchedly attended to, in general, in all the educational periodicals with which we are acquainted, yet it is a most necessary task.

The first number of the *Citizen* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.) has for its motto, "Good government through good citizenship." It is a well-printed quarto filled with a certain number of leading articles, signed; paragraphs on current topics, under the heading "The Outlook"; an "Editor's Table," in which the paragraphs are still germane to the leading idea of this publication; a "Council Table," and a "Forum." Mr. Woodrow Wilson discourses on the "Courtesy of the Senate"; Prof. H. C. Adams on "Public Debts." Col. H. B. Carrington gives a brief history of the Indian Question. Mr. E. E. White explains the meaning and scope of the term "civics," and very sensibly warns the new American Institute of Civics of the danger of vagueness in planning its work. Altogether, the paper may be said to have made a good start.

A fortnight ago a correspondent called the attention of our readers to the Paris École Libre des Sciences Politiques—a training school for the higher walks of the civil service. On the 15th of January appeared the first number of a quarterly *Annales*, conducted by the professors and graduates of the École Libre (Paris: Germer Baillière). It may already be pronounced a periodical which cannot be overlooked by students either of political history or of current politics. M. Léon Say takes the lead in the number before us with an article on the French Treasury's appearances on the Street (*interventions à la Bourse*) during the past hundred years. M. Glasson follows with a discussion of the abuses liable to result from the conflicting statutes in regard to marriage. M. Albert Sorel treats of disestablishment and disendowment in England; M. Louis Ayral, of the political plans of Mirabeau; M. Raymond Kœchlin, of the French policy at the Congress of Rastadt; M. Léon Poinsard, of the real-estate schedules of the income tax in England. At the head of the book notices stands Professor Dicey's 'Law of the Constitution,' which is analyzed by M. Boutmy, the director of the school. There is also a summary of reviews, called "Mouvement des Périodiques." Let us add that the typography of this new journal is excellent.

We are glad to observe that the *Réforme Sociale* has acquired the right to use its old title, and has already dropped the less distinctive one of *Bulletin*.

The French have been making various efforts of late to establish an illustrated magazine on the American model. The latest of these is the *Revue Illustrée* (Paris: Baschet; New York: F. W. Christern), edited by M. F. G. Dumas, editor of the illustrated catalogue of the Salon. The *Revue Illustrée* is to appear twice a month like the other French reviews, will be abundantly illustrated in black-and-white and colors, and will rely, like an American magazine, on the short story and the illustrated descriptive article. Three numbers have already reached this country, revealing an amusingly French modification of the American model, and also a use of actual American material, for Mr. Juengling's engraving of Mr. Chase's "Burgomaster" and Mr. Davis's engraving of Mr. F. Hopkinson Smith's "Effet de Neige" are both borrowed from the Tile Club's *Christmas*, while a promised paper on Frédéric Mistral, by M. Alphonse Daudet, is apparently the essay which has already been published in English in the *Century*. M. Luc Olivier Merson is to contribute a series of twelve drawings on wood, illustrating the months of the year, and M. A. Sandier will provide a hundred sketches to illustrate 'La Maison Moderne,' a series of papers on household decoration. There are also, once a month, pieces of music by leading composers; indeed, music and the drama, if we may judge by these earlier numbers, will receive abundant attention.

For "*romancier Oliver Wendell Holmer*" in our last, says the Bulletin No. 2 (1886) of the Paris Cercle Saint-Simon, read "*essayiste Oliver Wendell Holmes.*" But having corrected the literal error in the poet's name, the Bulletin can now safely write "romancier *et* essayiste."

The *Revue Scientifique* publishes the paper read by M. Coudreau on November 20 before the Paris Geographical Society on the disputed territory lying between French Guiana and the Ama-

zon. Brazil, it appears from his account, has for some time offered to give up half the country in dispute, but France has hitherto demanded two-thirds. M. Coudreau proposes now to relinquish all the western part to Brazil, in order to get the tract of fertile savannah on the coast as far as the Araguary. This, he claims, is far more healthy than French Guiana, and would prove a valuable accession to the French colonial possessions. As it has never been thoroughly explored, few travellers besides himself having visited it, he advocates the appointment of a Government commission to examine it. He asserts that Brazil will do the same, being anxious for a speedy and amicable settlement of the question.

Polybiblion for January tells of a very select International Society for the Reproduction of Old Engravings, whose membership is limited to 250, and which counts among its founders such connoisseurs as the Duc d'Aumale, Count Henri Delaborde, Baron Edmond de Rothschild, Messrs. Georges Duplessis, Sidney Colvin, etc. Every precaution will be taken to limit the number of copies to the members. The facsimiles will be drawn from rare impressions of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

There is much that is new and valuable in M. Ernest Combe's 'Réfugiés de la Révocation en Suisse." He tells again, but with many additions from original and unpublished sources, the dramatic story of the flight of the Huguenots and their reception in Switzerland, and, in an interesting closing chapter, shows their influence, both industrial, intellectual, and religious, upon the country of their adoption. The address of the Consistory of the National Church at Geneva to the French Protestants, dwelling especially upon the value and extent of the religious influence of the refugees, and the responses of the French churches, are also about to be published. There have also appeared in France works on the Revocation in Béarn, Champagne, and Rouen, and the first volume of the 'Synodes du Désert,' containing the acts of the Synods held between the death of Louis XIV. and the French Revolution. This work will consist of three volumes, and the edition is limited to 299 copies. The price is 120 francs.

One of our readers possessing a better memory than our own corrects our recent statement that no English translation of Victor Hugo's "Djinns" had been attempted. He says: "In one of the earlier volumes of the *Democratic Review* you will find an English version of the 'Djinns' in the metre of the original, made by John L. O'Sullivan, the editor. I have no copy of the *Review*, and cannot now give you a nearer reference. I remember greatly admiring it at the time, and, on comparing it many years ago with the original, thinking it singularly felicitous, considering the enormous difficulty of the task. I have now no copy of the original within reach, and cannot say whether I should still be of the same opinion. At any rate, Mr. C. A. Dana has considered it worthy of a place in his 'Household Book of Poetry' (p. 589 of the edition of 1875)."

—Prof. James Bryce having accepted the post of Under Foreign Secretary in Mr. Gladstone's Government, the readers of the *Nation* will be deprived of his admirable political letters during his term of office or that of the Ministry. The aptness of his appointment cannot be questioned by those who know how extensive have been his travels and how profound his observation of foreign lands and peoples. Few Englishmen have anything like the knowledge of this country, for example, that Professor Bryce has; and his acquaintance with the continent of Europe and with England's possessions in the East is also exceptionally solid. His public services in his new capacity make it almost unbecoming to regret this interruption of what has been, perhaps, the most impartial and fair-minded chronicle of contemporary British politics to be found in print.

—The supporters of the international-copyright bill introduced into the Senate by Mr. Chace, of Rhode Island, assert, in defending the clause which prohibits the importation of books that have obtained copyright in the United States under the bill, that such prohibition of importation is "the invariable rule in all countries where copyright exists." Senator Chace, also, is quoted as saying, when interviewed in regard to his bill, that "to protect [prohibit?] the importation of works copyrighted here is simply to make effective the regulation universal in all countries where copyright laws exist." In all countries where there is a domestic copyright law such law undoubtedly prohibits the circulation and sale of *unauthorized* copies of the work protected, whether such copies are manufactured at home or abroad. This prohibition is to protect the author or proprietor of the copyright from infringement, and is a very different thing from prohibiting the importation or contemporaneous sale of other editions authorized by the author or the copyright owner. This last is what the clause in Mr. Chace's bill really attempts to do, and so far is it from being the "invariable rule in all countries" that we do not know of any country whose international-copyright law contains such a provision, nor of any international-copyright treaty with a stipulation to such purpose. In England, copyright is secured to foreigners by the International-Copyright Act of May 10, 1844, which was passed in order to carry out the stipulations of international-copyright treaties. By the provisions of this act the Queen may, by an order in council, which must be published in the *London Gazette*, and usually takes effect upon the day following such publication, grant to authors and artists who shall first publish their works in the foreign country named in the order, copyright in such works within her Majesty's dominions, for any term not exceeding that for which authors or artists first publishing in the United Kingdom would be entitled. Exclusive right of representation or performance of dramatic pieces or musical compositions may also be secured under this act, and by the amendatory act of May 28, 1852, authorized translations are protected for a term not exceeding five years, during which term the printing or importing of unauthorized translations is prohibited. Both these laws, however, allowed "fair imitations or adaptations to the English stage" of any dramatic composition published in a foreign country, notwithstanding the original work was copyrighted in England. But the agitation on this subject begun so vigorously by Mr. Charles Reade, in his work 'The Eighth Commandment' (which may be recommended as good reading to the opponents of international copyright), finally resulted in the passage of the act of May 13, 1875, protecting the original drama against such "adaptation."

—The statute and treaty regulations necessary to be complied with in order to secure copyright for foreign works in England are not burdensome, consisting of entry, upon the register-book of the Company of Stationers in London, of the title, name, and place of abode of author or composer (unless the work be anonymous), name and place of the proprietor of the copyright, and time and place of first publication in the foreign country. For articles of sculpture a descriptive title must be registered, and of books one copy of the foreign edition must be deposited, which copy is sent to the British Museum. The usual time allowed for such registration and deposit is three months from the first publication abroad. Returning to the question of prohibition of importation, we find that the act of 1844 contains the following clause: "And be it enacted, that all copies of books wherein there shall be any subsisting copyright under or by virtue of this act, or of any order in council made in pursuance thereof, printed or reprinted in any foreign country *except that in which such books were first published*, shall be and the same are hereby absolutely prohibited to be imported into any part of the British dominions except by or with the consent of the registered proprietor of the copyright thereof, or his agent authorized in writing." The words which we have italicized make it very clear that there was here no intention to forbid the introduction of the authorized foreign edition. Similar provisions are made a part of English copyright treaties, but as the above-quoted clause of the act of 1844 does not provide against the importation of piratical copies from the country of first publication, the copyright treaty stipulations are more especially directed against the importation of piratical copies, as is well shown in the following terse article quoted from the treaty between Great Britain and Spain of August 11, 1880: "The importation into and the sale in either of the two countries of piratical copies of works which are protected from piracy under the articles of the present Convention, are prohibited, whether such piratical copies originate in the country where the work was published or in any other country." Similar stipulations occur in copyright treaties between other European nations, good examples of which are the twelfth article of the convention between Germany and Italy of June 20, 1884, and the second article of the treaty between Italy and France of July 9, 1884. In Canada, where the obtaining of copyright, by the law of 1875, is conditioned upon printing the book in that country, the law contains a distinct proviso that nothing in the act shall be held to prohibit the importation of the authorized English edition.

— Prof. F. L. Ritter has prepared a short 'Manual of Musical History' (Scribners), to serve students as an introduction to more voluminous works on the subject, and teachers and lecturers as a brief text-book. The 'History' takes up only forty-four pages, and is followed by several appendices containing lists of the principal musical forms, vocal and instrumental, with brief explanations, and a list of the principal modern orchestral instruments, showing their compass. The book gives a very clear and entertaining bird's-eye view of this extensive subject, and the author has avoided the error, so common in musical as in other histories, of paying too much attention to names at the expense of the subject-matter. One of the best features of the book lies in the special emphasis placed on the consecutive national phases of musical development. At the beginning of modern music the Netherlands school led; then came the Italians, to be in turn displaced by the Germans, who are at present even invading Italy, while in Spain such music as there is is a mixture of the Italian and French styles. Hungary has been brought forward through Liszt, Bohemia through Dvorák, Russia through Glinka, Lvoff, Rubinstein, and Tchaikoffsky. Rubinstein, however, is practically a German composer, with a few Jewish and Slavic traits, just as in the Polish Chopin French and German influences are conspicuous. The Hebrews have always shown special musical talent; but their art is marked by this peculiarity, that in Italy they are Italians, in Germany Germans, in France Frenchmen. In America Dr. Ritter fails to see as yet any indication of an original national style.

— In the fortieth annual report of the director of the astronomical observatory of Har-

vard College, Professor Pickering records the decrease in the amount of work done, owing to the fact that the resources of the observatory have been materially diminished. By the death of Mr. R. T. Paine, however, while the observatory has lost a friend who was always deeply interested in its work, it has fallen heir to his entire fortune of more than a quarter of a million dollars, one-half of which sum will become immediately available upon the settlement of the estate. The devotion of the observatory mainly to photometry continues, and the large equatorial has been occupied in observations of the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, faint stars selected as standards of magnitude, comparison-stars for variables, and of the temporary star in the nebula of Andromeda. Mr. Chandler has continued his observations with the new instrument of his invention called the *almucantar*, and which in his hands exhibits, Professor Pickering says, a surprising efficiency and accuracy. The meridian photometer shows a large increase of work over previous years, the number of separate settings somewhat exceeding 50,000. The list of objects observed has been somewhat extended, and the accordance of the results continues satisfactory. The height and velocity of clouds have been the subject of study with Mr. W. M. Davis, about three hundred series of measures being obtained at a pair of stations connected by telephone. The measured altitudes varied from 2,000 to 25,000 feet. The observatory remains the American centre of telegraphic distribution of important astronomical announcements, the discovery of nine small planets, five comets, and one new star being promulgated during the year. By the aid of the Bache Fund of the National Academy of Sciences, an important investigation in stellar photography has been undertaken. Many photographs of the trails left by stars have been taken with the camera stationary; and an equatorial star no brighter than the sixth magnitude leaves its mark in this way, while stars much fainter near the pole will leave an impression, since their motion is slow. Stars as faint as the fourteenth magnitude have thus been photographed without clock-work to move the instrument. The trails of the faint polar stars are very well defined and minute, and afford an excellent measure of stellar brightness, besides furnishing the means of determining the stars' positions with great accuracy. Also, the attempt has been made to prepare star-charts by photography; but the most striking results have been obtained with stellar spectra. By means of a large prism mounted in front of the lens, photographs of spectra have been obtained of stars as faint as the eighth magnitude, in which lines are shown with sufficient distinctness to be clearly seen in a paper positive. As all the stars in a large region are thus obtained with one exposure, more than a hundred spectra have been secured on a single plate.

— The principal paper in the December proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is a summary of a report made to the Government of the United States of Colombia, on the Goajira Indians, by Mr. F. A. A. Simons These Indians inhabit that large peninsula which, "projecting for some 120 miles out into the Caribbean Sea, forms the extensive Gulf of Maracaybo. This peninsula is known as the Goajira. It was ceded by the State of Magdalena in 1872, to form a national territory, for the better civilization of its Indians. One-half of it, however, is claimed by the Venezuelans, and a dispute that at one time threatened to culminate in war between the two nations, was amicably settled by referring the question to the King of Spain, as arbitrator. His decision has not yet been made public." The northern half of this hitherto unexplored region is a sterile, hilly country, the southern a grassy plain, elevated but slightly above the sea-level. The population consists of about 20,000 Indians, who, although belonging to one tribe, are divided into some thirty "families or castes, bearing much analogy to the ancient 'clans' of Scotland." In addition to these are the Cocinas, who are simply bands of robbers, outlaw members of the various families, who wage an indiscriminate war upon the rest. Intermarriages are permitted, but in these cases the children belong to the mother's caste, and her relations can demand compensation in case of injury to the children. This custom of requiring "tear or blood-money" costs the lives of about one-quarter of the male population. "The laws that govern these compensation cases are very intricate; their number is legion. First is the terrible law of retribution, that makes a whole caste responsible for the acts of any single member. As the Spaniards or white men are considered by the Indians as belonging to one large family, the country is very unsafe for travelling, for every white man is a sort of hostage for the good behavior of the others. If an Indian should be killed in a quarrel by a white man, the life of another white man, living leagues away, depends upon whether the foe (relations of the dead Indian) or a friend brings the news first." Blood-money is also demanded for "personally inflicted wounds" If, for instance, an Indian accidentally cuts himself, his mother's relations demand compensation. "Everybody selling rum or anything else is answerable for all the damage done by its instrumentality. . . . I was lent a servant as guide by a trader, who requested me not to let the man have any drink, for should anything happen to him he would be responsible to the family." Other cases arise from the singular objection of the Indians to having their true names mentioned (they generally go by a Spanish name). "To mention the dead before the relations is a dreadful offence, often punished by death; for if it happens in the dead man's rancho, with nephew or uncle present, they will assuredly kill the offender on the spot if possible." They have also a curious custom of shutting up their young girls on arriving at womanhood, the poor for a few weeks, the rich "for one, two, or even three years." At this time they are taught the domestic arts, as weaving, making dresses, hammocks, etc. They are, as a rule, virtuous, and are held in great respect by the men, whom they often prevent from blood-shedding. When the husband dies "the wife becomes a legacy to his brother, usually the youngest; if there are none, then his nephew inherits her." Mr. Simons also refers to the singular custom "of parents assuming the names of their children with the prefix *nushi* or *sushi* if the father, and *ni* or *si* if the mother. Thus the father of Juan would call himself 'Nushijuan,' or of a daughter 'Sushijuana.' The mother of Juan would be called 'Nijuan,' and of a daughter 'Sijuana.'" Though the Indians have rifles, they also still use the bow and poisoned arrows. Their occupation is principally cattle-breeding and collecting salt.

—The first volume of the *Law Quarterly* is now finished, and number five, for January, 1886, lies before us. This excellent magazine (London: Stevens & Sons; Boston: C. C. Soule) is edited by Professor Pollock, and gives expression to some of the very best legal learning and thought of the present day. It deserves the support of every lawyer who is interested in perfecting the science of law. In its first number, a year ago, it presented a most valuable "Digest" of the law relating to section 17 of the Statute of Frauds, the combined work of Mr. Justice Stephen and the editor. Of like immediate use to the practising lawyer have been the articles of the editor on "Certain Topics in the Law of Torts," and of Dr. Melville M. Bigelow on "Mistakes of Law," to say nothing of many short and good book notices, and the presentation of the contents of foreign law journals. But the marked excellence of the *Review* has been in its contributions to the learning of the law. Mr. Maitland's really delightful article (the phrase is not too strong) on "The Seisin of Chattels"; Judge Holmes's paper on "Early English Equity"; Mr. Pike's article on "Common Law and Conscience in the Ancient Court of Chancery"; Vinogradoff's on "The Text of Bracton," with its incidental crucifixion of Sir Travers Twiss for his shameful edition of Bracton; Dicey's "Federal Government," since incorporated into his book on 'The Law of the Constitution'—these are among the treasures of the first volume. There is no law journal within our knowledge that represents the higher walks of legal study with anything like the ability of the *Law Quarterly*. That there are, here and there, articles of small merit, and that a specialist may sometimes grumble at what seems to him to fall short as touching his subject, are things to be expected in all such undertakings.

— Interesting statistics of Mexican suicides are given in a recent number of *La Escuela de Medecina*, the organ of the Academy of Medicine in the city of Mexico. The tables cover the years 1860-84, and constitute, it is believed, the first considerable attempt to collate material for this branch of vital statistics in Mexico. Very striking is the smallness of the ratio of suicides to population here revealed. The lowest ratio given by Morselli, whose standard work on this subject was reviewed in No. 861 of the *Nation*, is that of the Slavs of Southern Europe, viz.: 20 per 1,000,000 yearly. These Mexican tables, however, yield a total for the entire twenty-four years of only 487 suicides, or no more than 3 per 1,000,000. Even making allowance for serious incompleteness in the statistics given, as probably ought to be done, remembering how crudely such things are attended to in Mexico, the showing is remarkable. It is only the presence in a high degree of intensity of all the influences which tend to depress the ratio, that can have reduced it to so small a figure. Given a race-inheritance such as that of the Mexicans, the Catholic religion held in the most blind and fanatical fashion, illiteracy almost incredible (even to-day the Mexican press thinks it a matter of boasting that 25 per cent. of the population can read and write), and a scale of living at once wretchedly low and easily attained, and all the recognized conditions for reducing suicide to a minimum are present.

— The details presented are in the main in accordance with the general laws laid down by Morselli, though some notable exceptions are to be observed. Thus the law is followed which produces more suicides where the country is low than upon high ground, the States of Vera Cruz, Nuevo Leon, Tamaulipas, and Jalisco showing a greater number of suicides than the States of the table-lands (the Federal District excepted). So also, according to the general law, spring and summer claim more victims than fall and winter, 267 and 220 being the respective figures, although the differences between the various seasons in Mexico are slight. Men more than hold good their proportion to women, the ratio being six to one, instead of the usual three or four to one. About the proper ratio of unmarried to married is observed. The age of strongest suicidal tendency is abnormally early, appearing to be between twenty and thirty, in place of Morselli's fifty to sixty-five. Noteworthy in the tables is one suicide at the age of nine, and seven between the ages of ten and fifteen. Among the professions

we find soldiers and artisans holding the relative prominence which would be expected. The attention is caught by the order of the causes of suicide, both love and remorse having a more fatal effect than want, while family quarrels, shame, anger, pride, and *ennui* have each a place in the list. Probably the greatest divergence of all from the laws of Morselli is seen in the means of suicide chosen. His order of preference "in all countries" is: the rope, drowning, firearms. The Mexican order is: fire-arms, poison (*longo intervallo*), the rope. Peculiar local conditions are no doubt sufficient to account for these last differences. Every one carries firearms in Mexico, and so they would be at hand for almost every case of suicidal mania. Loose laws governing the sale of poisons, together probably with a widely diffused knowledge of the poisonous properties of common herbs, would bring poison higher in the list than its average place. Drowning, instead of holding the second place, is far down the column, only eight out of all the 487 deaths being reported as so caused. The great comparative scarcity of rivers and lakes in Mexico at once comes to mind as partly accounting for this. And it is certainly suggestive of the topography of the country that no less than twenty-one suicides are said to have been effected by leaping over a precipice.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

THERE appears from the Clarendon Press (New York: Macmillan), in a beautiful octavo volume of some four hundred pages, Sir John Fortescue's treatise on Monarchy: such is its ordinary designation. It is here entitled, following one of the manuscripts, "The Governance of England," and it has been very carefully edited by Charles Plummer, M.A., Fellow and Chaplain of Corpus Christi College, Oxford. The curious and most interesting little tract itself fills up less than fifty pages of the present volume; while a hundred pages are devoted to a valuable historical and critical introduction, and nearly two hundred pages to a very full series of notes. The reader has thus every help to the appreciation of the "earliest treatise on the English Constitution written in the English language." This appears to have been the last of Fortescue's writings, dating from 1471-1476, later by a few years than his famous Latin dialogue "De Laudibus Legum Angliæ." That is a book of the greatest value as regards English law, or rather legal administration, at a period which, for England, was still mediæval. Fortescue's active life had been almost exactly coeval with the period of the three Lancastrian Henries. He had held the highest legal and state offices under Henry the Sixth. In the little treatise now republished, which was written after Edward IV. was finally seated on the throne, the main purpose was to set forth a method for bettering and securing the royal revenues, consistently with the welfare and convenience of the people.

Fortescue points out that England is not, like France, an absolute monarchy, but that the King reigns by consent of his people. The French financial methods which strip the people and keep them poor will not do in England; the King, indeed, must not be poor; but also the commoner must not be poor. For the King's ordinary expenses, it is thought that he has now provision enough to meet his "extraordinarie charges" (of which a curious summary is made out). Fortescue proposes that the Crown be endowed with lands. He roughly estimates the amount to be provided for these by considering that they should be greater than the resources of any of the wealthiest subjects; consider, then, what their resources are. The income of certain great estates, together with the feudal profits coming regularly to the King, will serve the purpose. How to get these estates? Fortescue proposes that the King, by consent of Parliament, resume some of the improvident gifts and grants that have heretofore been made of the royal estates, that these be settled upon the Crown and made inalienable, and that some proper money allowance be made to the present owners of these estates instead of these excessive and unmerited grants; any deficiencies are to be supplied by subsidies granted by the people. And then for the future adjustment of royal gifts and grants (as well as other things) the writer proposes a reorganization of the Privy Council, by which it shall consist of "xii spirituell men and xii temporell men" to be permanent members, and to be paid for their services; and of four lords of each kind, temporal and spiritual, chosen yearly by the King, and to serve like sheriffs with "litle and all most nothynge ffor thair seruice."

The reader of this little book is likely to be surprised at its assertion of popular principles of government. But the editor reminds us that the necessities of the House of Lancaster had familiarized England with notions not unlike those which brought on the English Revolution two or three centuries later. Another point that will strike the reader is the fresh and first-hand comments on the customs of other nations, particularly of the French, with whom Fortescue had sojourned in his exile. "Fortescue," says the editor, "first of mediæval political philosophers, based his reasonings mainly on observation of existing constitutions, instead of merely copying or commenting on Aristotle."

"Thai drinken water," he tells us of the French common people; "thai eyten apples, with brede right browne made of rye; thai eaten no flesshe but yf it be right seldon a litle larde, or of the entrales and heydes of beastis, slayn for the nobles and marchauntes of the land. Thai weren no wolen, but yf it be a pouere cote vndir their uttermest garnement, made of grete caunuas and callid a frokke. Thair hausyn beth of lyke caunuas and passyn not thair kne, wherfore thai beth gartered and ther theis bare. Thair wyfes and childeren gone bare foote; thai mowe in non other wyse leve. . . . Wher thrugh . . . thair nature is wasted, and the kynde of hem broght to noght. Thai gon crokyd, and ben feble, not able to fight nor to defende the realme; nor thai haue wepen, nor money to bie thaim wepen withall."

Fortescue discusses the French salt tax: "Ther is no man in Ffraunce that mey eyte salte, but yff he bie it off the Kyng: and that is now sett to so grete prise, that the bushell, wich the Kyng bieth ffor iij d. or iiij d., is solde to his peple ffor ij s. and a j d., and other while more." This, he says, would never do in England: the merchants here have been used to freedom in buying and selling; and the "peple that vsen moche to salte thair meytis more than do ye Ffrenchmen . . . woll than at euery mele groche with the Kynge, that entreteth hem more rygoursly than his progenitors haue done. *And so his hyghnes shall haue thereoff, but as hadd the man that sherid is hogge, muche cry and litil woll.*" The italics are ours.

Again, in dealing with an argument that it is well to keep the commons poor in order to prevent them from rising, Fortescue borrows illustration from the French:

"It is not poverty that keepes the French commons down," he says, "but cowardisse and lakke of hartes and corage, wich no Ffrenchman hath like vnto an Englyshman. It hath ben offten tymes sene in Englande that iij or iiij theves ffor pouerte haue sett apon vj or vij trewe men and robbed hem all. But it hath not bene sene in Ffraunce, that vj or vij haue be hardy to robbe iij or iiij trewe men. Wherfore it is right selde that Ffrenchmen be hanged ffor robbery, ffor thai haue no hartes to do so terable an acte. Ther bith therfore mo men hanged in Englande in a yere ffor robbery and manslaughter, then ther be hanged in Ffraunce ffor such maner of crime in vij yeres."

And so, he says, it is in Scotland as in France; "but the Englysh man is off another corage."

One other passage we must quote, of a different sort. Fortescue urges that when the King shall have got his own again, he shall settle it permanently on the crown; and he grows eloquent, and even rises to an exquisite little touch of poetry, over the good that will come of it. This proposition was truly, as the editor points out, one of great "constitutional importance," and it is happy for England that it was not adopted and that the kings were kept dependent on popular grants.

"And when the Kyng," says Fortescue, "be the meanes afor said or other wyse, hath goten ayen his lyuelod, yff then it wolde lyke is most noble grace to establysh, and as who sayth, amortyse the same lyuelod to is crowne, so as it mey neuer be alvened therfro, without the assent off his parlement, wych than wold be as a newe ffundacion of is crowne he shall be therby the grettest ffounder off the world. . . . He shall do therby dayly more almes, than shallbe do be all the ffundacions that euer were made in England. Ffor euery man off the lande shal by this ffundacion euery day be the meryer, the surer, ffare the better in is body and all is godis, as euery wyse man may well conseyue. The ffundacion of abeys, of hospitales, and suche other houses, is nothyng in comparisoun herof. For this shalbe a collage in whiche shul syng and pray for euermore al the men of Ingland spirituel and temporel."

Mr. Plummer deserves the heartiest thanks for bringing to light again this extremely valuable essay, and for the careful and abundant apparatus of notes and illustrations with which he has furnished it.

Col. Sir Edmund F. DuCane's 'Punishment and Prevention of Crime' (Macmillan) belongs to the "English Citizen" series. It is a brief and interesting account of the penal, preventive, and reformatory system of England, past and present. The position of the author, as Chairman of the Commissioners of Prisons and a member of other similar boards, seems to justify confidence in the accuracy of his statements. It is a curious fact which he states in speaking of "the large decrease of crime continuously after the age of thirty-four." The author's suggestion of the benefits that would come about if persons "whose career evidences in them marked criminal tendencies could either be locked up or kept under supervision until they had passed, say, the age of forty," might justify various remarks; one of them would be that this thing is easier said than done. The author says generally of accused persons who refuse to plead, that "in the time of Queen Anne their thumbs might be tied together till they entered their plea." This was only a local practice at Newgate—one which existed long before Anne's time, as well as later. In 1662 it was spoken of as "the constant practice"; and cases are mentioned as late as 1734. The writer's accounts of the system of transportation and of the modern reformatory and preventive methods are full of interest.

'Legal Education, its Aim and Method' (Macmillan), is the title of the inaugural lecture of Mr. Gerard B. Finch, the new law lecturer at Cambridge, in England. This is a thoughtful contribution to a subject which has until lately attracted much less attention in England than in this country. It is not a little interesting to find that Mr. Finch, in beginning a course of lectures on Contracts, has thought it well to adopt a method which Professor Langdell, the very learned and able Dean at the Harvard Law School, introduced there some fifteen years ago, viz., that of requiring the student to study a selected volume of cases. The value of this auxiliary to the usual methods of teaching law is now thoroughly well recognized wherever it has been tried. There is no doubt that it has contributed much to the modern improvement in the law-teaching at Harvard. Mr. Finch's praise of this teaching is very hearty.

"During my stay in Boston last spring," he says, "men engaged in legal practice spoke to me of the great value of the law-teaching at Harvard University. Mr. Sidney Bartlett, the Father of the Massachusetts Bar, told me that the three-years' course at Harvard was equal to seven years' work in an office. Mr. Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes and Dr. Eliot, President of the University, spoke to the same effect. Dr. Eliot related with pardonable pride that at a recent dinner of old Harvard men a prominent young advocate had declared that, when he was a student, he had often heard it said that the course at Harvard was equal to ten years' actual work; that he was then incredulous, but that after being in practice for ten years he came to know it as a fact."

We shall watch with interest for the result of Mr. Finch's labors. It is, of course, an important fact, to the disadvantage of a legal instructor at the English Cambridge, that he is dealing with undergraduates.

'The Theory of the State,' a translation of Bluntschli's 'Allgemeine Statslehre,' "undertaken primarily in the interests of the School of Modern History," by D. G. Ritchie, P. E. Matheson, and R. Lodge, fellows and tutors at Oxford, is lately published at the Clarendon Press New York: Macmillan). The work of which this is a part "may be described," say the translators, "as an attempt to do for the European state what Aristotle accomplished for the Hellenic. . . . This first part goes over the whole ground of what we call political science, though some subjects are treated in much greater detail in the two other parts." The 'Allgemeines Statsrecht' and 'Politik' are not translated. Students of politics who do not read German will be grateful to the translators for bringing this very valuable treatise within their reach. There is, to be sure, something in it of the dry, formal, and over-condensed method which German professors have been known to adopt, as if their countrymen were fitted out with a sort of intellectual gizzard. But the wide range of historical illustration and allusion, and the searching analysis in this book, will commend it to all genuine students. The absence of an index is a very grave fault; no "analytical table of contents" can ever take its place.

Mr. David Stewart's two books, 'Marriage and Divorce,' and 'The Law of Husband and Wife' (San Francisco: Sumner Whitney & Co.), are compact little duodecimos, of the sort with which the San Francisco publishers have familiarized us during the last ten years or so. They are too closely printed, wretchedly bound, and have that fatal defect, no index of cases. On the other hand, they are so much the cheaper, and they pack away in the brief statements of the text a great mass of matter, and have an almost overwhelming mass of citations, both English and American. It is, however, in our judgment, but a poor fashion of a book. Mr. Stewart's work appears to be done very intelligently.

Robert Ralston's 'Discharge of Contracts' (Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson & Co.) was hardly worth publishing. The writer shows small sign of perceiving the real difficulties of his subject or how to meet them. The book "is meant to be read in connection with that of Mr. Smith"—Smith on Contracts.

RECENT FRENCH BOOKS.

'Madame Saint-Huberty' (Paris: Charpentier; New York: Christern) is the second of the series of biographies of actresses of the eighteenth century which M. Edmond de Goncourt has published. In it he recounts the life of Anne Antoinette Clavel, known on the stage as La Saint-Huberty. The volume, like the preceding one on Sophie Arnould, is made up in great part of hitherto unpublished material, the papers and letters of the singer which are in the author's possession. There are many rather too realistic details about her life which have not the excuse of being interesting; but when he comes to her great success in the opera of "Didon," by Piccini, for which the words were written by Marmontel, the author shows his mastery of his subject, and the chapters devoted to the various operas of the rivals, Gluck and Piccini, in which she achieved her reputation, abound in information on the lyric stage of France in the eighteenth century. She, like other singers of this period, owed her success rather to her acting than to her singing, as is well shown in a fragment of one of her letters. She writes: "The part of *Dido* is all action, *est tout jeu;* the recitative is so well done that it is impossible to sing it." The tameness of the existence of La Saint-Huberty when off the stage makes her biography less interesting than those of most of the actresses whose lives M. de Goncourt intends to relate; but the volume has a very dramatic conclusion, and all the latter part, from the time of her marriage with the Comte d'Antraigues, is full of interest.

The story of Henri Quatre and the beautiful Charlotte de Montmorency, afterward the mother of the great Condé, has often been told, but never so fully, and with such an abundance of documents and citations in confirmation of every step, as by M. Paul Henrard in his 'Henri IV. et la Princesse de Condé' (Paris: Alcain; New York: Christern). In the second volume of the Duc d'Aumale's 'Histoire des Princes de Condé' the story is told from a different point of view, but the impression made by the present volume is no more romantic than that by the graver historian. All the strange events of this first year of the marriage of the young princess, who became at fifteen the centre around which the diplomacy of France and Spain revolved, are related by M. Henrard in the simplest and most straightforward manner, and with an impartiality that leaves the sympathies of the reader with the young Prince of Condé throughout. The numerous extracts from contemporary letters and state papers, and the constant citation of authorities and documents, are very different from the dry details that might be expected, and give life and animation to the story instead of making it dull and uninteresting. From the moment the extravagant admiration for the young Charlotte de Montmorency takes possession of the King down to the day of his assassination, the interest never flags. The scene changes from the court of Henri IV. and Marie de Médicis, full of storms and passions and intrigues, to that of the stately *archiducs* Albert and Isabella at Brussels; while for his secondary personages the author brings forward now the Montmorencies, Sully, or Malherbe; now the papal nuncio, the picturesque Marquis of Spinola, or the ambassador extraordinary of France, the brilliant and daring Annibal d'Estrées. The impression produced is always as vivid as if it were a romance we were reading, and the personages of the drama, from the sovereigns down to the waiting-women, speak and act with as much reality as if it were not history from contemporary documents which presented them, but a work of free imagination.

A beautiful octavo volume, with sixteen full-page aquarelles and about one hundred and fifty smaller illustrations that half fill every other page, often jutting out very peculiarly far into the margins—such is the setting and the main attraction of M. Alphonse Daudet's new work, 'Tartarin sur les Alpes' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof). The author has not been to any great expense of imagination in preparing this work, mainly intended, it is said, to bring into vogue a new and really beautiful process of illustration. He has utilized his old hero, Tartarin de Tarascon, whose heroism is all in his own imagination, and his genial Bompard, "who never uttered a word of truth in his life," made them the heroes of new mock-heroic adventure in a Switzerland depicted with *provençal* veracity, and (it must be added) with the author's *provençal* vivacity and poetic fancy. There is a long episode in which Tartarin meets some Russian Nihilists, is for a time under the charm of a sort of Vera Zasulitch, who promises much if he will only "deserve it"; but Tartarin is not inclined to czaricide. This is all in M. Daudet's best manner. The book is full of a kind of extravagant humor, if it is humor, full of the *galejades* characteristic of the south of France; but it requires a peculiar state of mind to enjoy it thoroughly.

M. Jules Claretie, the new director of the Théâtre-Français, has written a book which may be said to owe its existence to Dostoyevsky's 'Crime et Châtiment,' or possibly, even, only to a page of M. de Vogüé's account of it in his article upon that author, where everything in 'Jean Mornas' (Dentu; New York: Christern) is suggested, even its primary idea, the famous paradox: "Si l'on tuait le mandarin?" and, more vaguely, even the machinery of the crime. 'Jean Mornas' is a curious specimen of mere bookmaking by a man of ability. The hero is a reminiscence of the days when the then youthful journalist wrote for *La Rue*, and frequented the anarchist society of that paper. He constantly recalls to the reader Jules Vallès, who was its editor and ruling spirit. Whoever has read the semi-autobiographical novel of Vallès, 'Jacques Vingtras,' can easily imagine the cynical, unprincipled, and entirely disagreeable copy of the author's former associate which is presented in Jean Mornas. If M. Claretie's purpose was to create a hero every characteristic of whom should be utterly repugnant to his readers (and possibly this was his intention in the interest of his story), he has certainly succeeded. The copy is almost equal to the original in these respects, though it is very far from being as complete and finished a work of art as Cherbuliez has succeeded in making from the same model, in the anarchist orator of his 'Olivier Maugant.' The machinery of the story is taken from the new medical sensation, hypnotic suggestion, but the author's processes in its development are all imitated from Dostoyevsky. There is in M. Claretie's book, however, none of the sympathy and compassion and faith in humanity which brightens the darkness of 'Crime et Châtiment' almost from the beginning. In that there is not one character fatally and irredeemably bad, not even Svidrigaïloff; but Jean Mornas, the only character in M. Claretie's book, is without a redeeming trait; the work is pure pessimism. Even the old doctor is left, without any compelling necessity, to suffer unmerited reproach through the perverse baseness of human nature alone. The hypnotism is interesting, however, though the deviations from actuality are unfortunate, with realities at his command so much stranger than anything M. Claretie has made use of.

M. André Theuriet's last story, 'Péché Mortel' (Paris: Lemerre; New York: Christern), has all his charm of style and manner. The pictures of the mill of La Lineuse and all its surroundings; the accounts of the hours spent in the woods, by the canal, in the garden, in the mill itself; the personages of the story, so minutely and delicately described in appearance and in character—all are in his best manner. It is a pity that such exquisite workmanship, such fine art, such poetic imagination, should be spent upon material so coarse and vulgar as M. Theuriet has chosen to fashion his story from.

M. Henry Rabusson is a young writer to whom the *Revue des Deux Mondes* has opened its pages, which implies much in regard to the literary promise of his work. 'Le Roman d'un Fataliste'

(Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Christern) is the third of his stories, and, like 'Dans le Monde' and 'Madame de Givré,' it is a picture of what is called *la vie mondaine*. M. Rabusson's present story is fresh and unhackneyed, although his young *procureur* recalls M. Theuriet's Eusèbe Lombard unmistakably, and his Mlle. de la Rue is an unsatisfactory reflection of Mlle. Bourrienne in 'War and Peace,' and the central third of the story, upon which everything turns, is inspired by the 'Sapho' and the 'Nabab' of Alphonse Daudet. In spite of all this, M. Henry Rabusson is a writer of undoubted talent, and his books are both interesting and well written.

In 'L'Aventure de Mademoiselle de Saint-Alais' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Christern), M. Rabusson has shown his customary distaste for the well-trampled paths to which the writer of the *roman de mœurs* generally confines himself; but in this case it cannot be said that his wanderings have been fortunate. His story is not an agreeable one, though it is written with his usual grace and ease of manner.

M. Hector Malot has recently published his forty-fourth novel, 'Le lieutenant Bonnet' (Paris: Charpentier; New York: Christern). As a story of garrison life in a small town somewhere in the centre of France it possesses a certain amount of interest, but its literary value is very slight. Its scenes of family and social life, under the new military organization of the French army, present in a crude but not uninteresting manner a series of pictures of an existence no longer nomadic and adventurous, but fixed and commonplace. The officers of the regiment have many of them married in the neighborhood, and they lead as calm and uneventful lives as the most *bourgeois* of their fellow-citizens, varied, however, by a few melodramatic and not very probable episodes. The book seems to owe its existence to some facts recently published in regard to the relation between the pay and the necessary expenses of young officers: not a very promising foundation for a novel; but M. Hector Malot always finds readers and even admirers for whatever he may write.

'L'Attelage de la Marquise' (Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof), the first of three collected stories, gives the title to a volume by a writer signing himself, or perhaps herself, Léon de Tinseau. Very royalist, very Catholic, and very unobjectionable, the stories seem made for the amusement and instruction of young women who read nothing but what is advised by their spiritual directors. They will find much that is good in the book, and will certainly enjoy making the acquaintance of both the young men and the young women they will be introduced to, who are charming if rather unreal examples of that aristocracy of which Thackeray has given so exquisite a portrait in Mme. de Florac. The longest and best of the stories is the one entitled 'Le secret de l'abbé Césaire,' of which the plot is interesting and the actors full of vivacity.

M. H. Lafontaine, "sociétaire retraité de la Comédie-Française," has sung the praises of *la cameraderie* in a pleasant little story, 'Les bons Camerades' (Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof), in which the intentions are all so good and their execution so inoffensive, that you forgive the author for having nothing else to offer.

'Le trésor du Guèbre,' by Charles Edmond (Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof), is a combination of the most touching disinterestedness and the most repulsive self-seeking. A Parsee diamond merchant, with a marvellous collar of diamonds gathered together through centuries by his ancestors and finally completed by himself; a young French savant who has more than anticipated all the modern discoveries in the artificial creation of precious stones, and to whom diamond dust is no more than any other dust, and the diamonds of the Oriental only pretty crystals; and between them the lovely daughter of the Parsee, who becomes the wife of the young man and finally the possessor of the fabulous necklace—these are the promising materials out of which M. Charles Edmond has developed a very commonplace story, filled with lessons of disinterestedness, morality, and patriotism, but not entirely devoid of interest.

Oceana; or, England and Her Colonies. By James Anthony Froude. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886.

THIS volume is a political tract. It makes some pretension to being a book of travels, but in that regard it is only a miserable make-believe. Its author has given some direct attention to the British colonial policy at the Cape, and discusses the incidents of that capital instance of mismanagement with clearness and force. Things are in a bad way there, he thinks; and being thus interested in the relation of the colonies to the mother-country, he endeavored to find out the public opinion of the Australians and New Zealanders on the spot. He was pledged in mind, before he started, to the view that some sort of Federation should be attempted as the only mode of maintaining English influence in the world; and he held in detestation the doctrines of the Separatists and the administration of Downing Street. He merely touched at the Cape, and remained long enough to revive his former opinion to a glowing intensity, and to see that the state of affairs was as unpromising as the worst pessimist could wish, and then he hied on to the great English islands. There he was taken in hand by dignitaries and officials, sent about in special trains, treated to champagne, dinners, and speeches, and generally, between the clubs and the great houses, enjoyed the welcome of a visiting statesman. He found the colonies very loyal to the Queen, very angry with Gladstone, very thoroughly unwilling to be cast off to shift for themselves, and especially hurt at the "bar sinister" in the colonial flag. He found what he went to find, and he preaches page after page the gospel of the British Federation. Yet one notices that, even under these conditions, moving always in this elderly, official English-bred and millionaire class, he found no practical answer as to how the Federation should be brought about and what it should consist in. Every suggestion of seats in Parliament, of a new Imperial Senate, of colonial life-peers, of colonial agents in Parliament without votes, etc., was ridiculous to the colonial mind. In fact, the only proposition treated with favor was that the royal navy should be charged with protection of the coasts, on condition of a colonial subsidy; and to this he himself adds the suggestion that the ribbon of the Bath be conferred on deserving colonists, and place and promotion in the general Imperial service be opened to them. This is the only measure he recommends. The plea will go for what it is worth, and material circumstances will continue to rule political agglomerations.

The volume, however, though a contribution to political controversy, offers some other phases of interest. As a book of travels, one must dismiss it briefly, for in its landscape views it is not novel, and of the people and the country in the American sense Mr. Froude evidently saw nothing. In the sentence in which he speaks of our Indian Territory as a plain where nothing grows "save a miserable scanty scrub as if on a soil that was sown with salt—left to the Redskins, I suppose, because no white man could make a living there," we have an appreciable instance of his inaccuracy. The "boomers" would do well, if that is so, to emigrate to Adelaide, where, says Mr. Froude, are a hundred and fifty thousand people, "not one of whom has ever known, or will know, a moment's anxiety as to the recurring regularity of his three meals a day." But such statements may be passed by. As to the institutions of the country, its schools, prisons, manners and customs, business, industrial interests, and the doings of the bulk of the inhabitants, the volume is silent. Not so, however, with moral and spiritual welfare. The pages teem with denunciation. If not the mantle, certainly the growl of Carlyle has fallen on his pupil-prophet. For all things modern, liberal, democratic, Gladstonian, there is a ready word of wrath. We will give a sentence or two, for most readers will tire of the interminable tirade which interrupts the political oratory: "I could not share his opinion [an Irish priest's] that it was right for average people to go by their own judgment in so serious a matter as religion. Average men are too ignorant to be capable of forming a judgment on such subjects." "The greatest fool in the House of Commons, if left to himself and to his own small understanding, would steer the ship of state better than the galaxy of genius had done which formed Mr. Gladstone's Administration."

But there is not space to multiply examples of the extremities of expression to which Mr. Froude goes in denouncing democracy, whether in its religious, political, or social manifestations. A more amusing characteristic is the unconscious assumption that the excellence of the race is only to be rationally looked for at London. He does not hesitate to say roundly in one place that an "able" man from the home country deputed as Governor would lead the colonial policy by virtue of his "mental superiority." Along the whole route the author looks with insular eyes, and jaundiced besides; he has been round the world, and "there an end," as the Elizabethans say. The sketch of Sir George Grey—one of the most admirable men of our time—is the only chapter really worth while.

Outlines of Universal History. Designed as a text-book and for private reading. By George Park Fisher, D.D., LL.D., Professor in Yale College. Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. 8vo. Pp. 674.

PROFESSOR FISHER'S 'Universal History' is a book of very great merit, which will abundantly satisfy the wants of those who desire a complete and accurate compendium of the world's history. There really has been no book of this character, of higher ambition than a school text-book, and recent enough to contain at once the results of the latest scholarship and the events of the latest years. It was a formidable task that the author undertook, and he has performed it in a manner worthy of all praise. The plan of his work is that of a carefully arranged and well proportioned survey of the entire field of history, with constant reference to philosophical principles and great controlling movements, but with a very considerable amount of detail. One is, indeed, constantly astonished to find so *complete* a sketch in so small a compass. There is too much of the necessary detail for it to be available as a book to read through; but the general portions may well be taken by themselves, and will be found to contain a survey of the entire field of history admirable for its breadth and insight. The controlling idea of the work, as stated in the preface, is that of the *unity of history*.

The completeness of view, which is so striking a feature of the book, is shown in every direction—the discussions upon ethnology, geography, and mythology; the sections upon religion, literature, and art; the entire *equipment* of the work, in the way of maps, genealogical tables, lists of books, and index. The feature in which we find it least satisfactory is the discussion of economic causes.

In the Roman Republic, and in the history of the Middle Ages, these deserve more attention than they have received.

Along with this symmetry aud proportion, which are the most striking characteristics of the book, we find great accuracy in the minutiæ. We have not noticed any mistakes or misprints in such matters as dates, proper names, or order of events. Naturally there will be oversights and errors here and there. Thus, it was not the augur (p. 132) who took the auspices, marking off the heavens into four quarters, etc. The auspices were sent to the magistrate, and solely to him; the function of the augur was merely to interpret them. The reader would suppose (p. 174) that *confarreatio* was a form of marriage employed by all Romans at their choice. It was, on the other hand, the exclusively patrician form of marriage. It is misleading also to speak of "two kinds of marriage," by one of which the wife passed from the hands of the father to those of the husband. This was the result of all *three* forms of marriage; only, in case of civil marriage (*usus*), the wife could escape the *manus* by absenting herself for three nights (*jus trinoctii*) from the husband's house. Neither is it technically correct to speak of the *manus* of the father, but his *potestas*; *manus* was of the husband alone.

The maps are excellent, clear, and accurate. Even here, however, there are defects. In the map of the Empire of the Saracens (p. 228) for A. D. 750, the Exarchate of Ravenna is not given. In the map of Central Europe in 1360 (p. 328), the States of the Church are not given, while Flanders receives the same color as Burgundy, with which it was not united until 1384. And why *Lausitz* any more than *Schlesien* and *Mähren?* Why, moreover, give the long-extinct duchies of Franconia and Swabia in the map of Italy in the sixteenth century (p. 410)? The Index, from some random experiments, appears to be carefully prepared; but occasionally a page must have been overlooked—*e. g.*, we find none of the names on page 370. On the very last page of the text, we are surprised, in a list of books on the socialism of the present day, not to find so excellent a book, of American authorship, as Dr. Ely's 'French and German Socialism.'

Practical Economics: A collection of essays respecting certain of the recent economic experiences of the United States. By David A. Wells. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1885. 8vo.

It is to be regretted that the publishers of this volume should have found it necessary to allow it to appear in a shape so ill-suited for popular use, as it is a practical treatise, written not for the edification of scholars, but for the public enlightenment, and it ought to have been made attractive to the public. It cannot be denied that those who like to look at everything through a rosy medium will not enjoy these pages. The history that is here detailed is not of the kind on which patriots dwell with pride. Much of it is a record of the imbecility of our legislators and the corruption of our administrative officers—not but that, to paraphrase Thurlow's remark about one of his judges, there was a deal of corruption about the legislative imbecility. As Mr. Wells says, his essays illustrate "an experience in which questions of the highest importance in respect to the use and issue of currency, the imposition of taxes, the collection of revenue, and the regulation of trade and commerce—all involving transactions of enormous magnitude and infinite detail—have been discussed, regulated by legal enactments, and carried to practical results, without, for the most part, any reference whatever to accepted economic principles, and often mainly under the influence of selfish and sometimes of corrupt motives and agencies."

Altogether the most remarkable, indeed we may say the most awful, series of events here detailed relates to our experience in taxing distilled spirits, concerning which the author remarks that nothing similar ever before occurred in any country of modern civilization, or is likely to occur again. As Mr. Wells was Chairman of the Revenue Commission of 1865, and afterward Special Commissioner of the Revenue, he has an inside knowledge of this experience probably more extensive than that of any other person in existence. It was owing to him that the system of collecting internal-revenue taxes by means of stamps affixed to the packages containing the articles taxed was adopted—a system that has proved in the highest degree successful. It was largely owing to his efforts, also, that the tax upon spirits was reduced from $2 a gallon to 50 cents, with the result of increasing the revenue from this source threefold. In fact, the revenue derived from a tax at this rate seems to have been greater than that produced by higher rates either before or since the year 1872, the last year during which it prevailed.

That extraordinary episode, the attack made upon the Whiskey Ring by Secretary Bristow, was of too dramatic a character to be easily forgotten, nor is the present time the most suitable for dwelling upon it. We need only say that Mr. Wells gives a calm and dispassionate account of it. We prefer to allude to what was less dramatic, although hardly less remarkable—the gift by Congress to the distillers of a sum estimated at $100,000,000, under the guise of an increased tax upon their product. If an intelligent child were asked as to the probable effect of imposing a tax upon the production of an article, exempting, however, all that should have been produced at the time the tax went into effect, he would probably reason that the price of the article would be raised by at least the amount of the tax, and that the owners of the exempted goods would not consider the fact that they had paid no tax as any reason why they should not collect it from their customers. If a legislative body failed to reason with equal profundity, but found, after making the experiment, that precisely this result followed, and that those upon whose business the tax had been thus imposed had been enormously enriched thereby, it might be expected that it would not repeat its folly. The Congress of the United States, however, upon no less than five occasions did repeat this folly. What motives influenced its action it is impossible to tell. Those were evil days, and enormous sums were to be made by such legislation. The best we can say is that if our legislators were not corrupt, they were imbecile.

Under this policy the number of distilleries, which was 1,138 in 1860, increased to 4,721 in 1868, with a probable capacity of over 200,000,000 gallons a year. Nevertheless, in the latter year the Government collected its tax upon less than 7,000,000 gallons. As the consumption of spirits could hardly have been less than 50,000,000 gallons at that time, the sale of untaxed spirits at the current market price must have brought in about $80,000,000 of dishonest gain. As the market price was less than the tax and the cost of manufacture, an honest distiller was an impossibility. Into the particulars of the frauds we cannot enter, but Mr. Wells's account of them shows how widely diffused the corruption arising from this ruinous legislation had become. It is instructive to learn that reform was postponed for a whole year, at an expense to the Government estimated by Mr. Wells at $26,000,000, in consequence of the scruples of an influential statesman, who declared that it would be derogatory to the honor of a great nation to confess, "after having put down a great rebellion, that it could not collect a tax of $2 per gallon on whiskey."

The essays upon the recent phases of the tariff question are of a somewhat more cheerful character than those of which we have been speaking; not that the legislation described is much more enlightened than that which prevailed during the war period, but on account of the evident hopefulness of the writer. It seems that the oppressive league that controls Congress is now held together not by hope of gain but by fear of loss. The margin of profit has been in many ways so reduced that almost all manufacturers are compelled to think about the possibility of lessening the cost of their raw material, and of securing a foreign market. While the tariff remains as it is, these possibilities cannot be realized, but the producers of raw materials threaten that if they are molested the whole structure of protection shall come down. Although this might not prove to be so great a calamity as is generally supposed, it is not surprising that most manufacturers dread any serious disturbance of existing laws. They will eventually find that these threats cannot be carried out, and that the revenue reformers have no idea of abolishing protective duties with one blow. We apprehend, however, that the process of reform is likely to be somewhat slower than Mr. Wells anticipates, owing to the protectionist spirit that seems to animate the labor unions.

Several matters of present interest are discussed in this volume besides those to which we have referred, the silver question for example; but we can do no more than mention the fact. Readers who are not unwilling to be instructed provided they are entertained, may be safely recommended to read the book for themselves. The story of the "Leaden Statuary" is not the less delightful because it has a moral; and the history of the paper currency of Texas is at least as interesting as the rest of its annals. We cannot deny the existence of numerous tables of statistics among the other contents of these essays, but, under the skilful management of Mr. Wells, figures lose half their terror. There is upon the whole very little in the book that the ordinary citizen ought not to know, and very little that he would not be interested in knowing if his attention were once aroused. Perhaps the very republication of these essays is a sign that economic questions are at last beginning to arouse a genuine public interest.

The Contemporary Evolution of Religious Thought in England, America, and India. By Count Goblet D'Alviella, Professor of Comparative Theology in the University of Brussels and formerly member of the Belgian House of Representatives. Translated by J. Moden. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1886.

The original of this translation, 'L'Évolution Religeuse Contemporaine,' was mentioned by the *Nation* at the time of its appearance about two years ago, and our note of praise was only one of many that have sounded from the most various quarters from that day to this. The character of the book, so bright, so readable, so sympathetic in its tone, was sure to bring it into general notice and to insure its translation into English and its republication in England and America. It has been extremely fortunate in its translator. Apparently there is no phase of the religious evolution which Count D'Alviella has described with which Mr. Moden is not equally well acquainted. If there is an exception, it is in respect to the American part. He has corrected a number of mistakes in the original which were not unnatural for an author writing, as it were, with his left hand, as one must do when dealing with contemporary matters in a foreign country. One of the most amusing was the mixing up of the Rev. George H. Hepworth with Mr. Hep-

worth Dixon, who wrote, as Mr. Arnold says, 'The Mormons, by one of themselves.' Mr. Moden was attracted to the book by his sympathy with its general drift, and especially by its recognition of the religiousness of Mr. Herbert Spencer's philosophical position. He has written a preface in which he brings to this position a commendation of its profound religiousness in comparison with which even that of Mr. John Fiske is lukewarm, if not cold. His translation never impresses us as being one, it is so good; yet here and there a word is so inapt that we wonder whether the translator or the author is at fault. The American edition was evidently printed in England. For "Salvation is of the Jews" we have on page 126, "is of Jesus"! This is in connection with Mr. Conway, who is represented as withdrawing from the South at the time of the civil war "with his young wife," when, in fact, he had been an anti-slavery preacher in Cincinnati, where he married, and in Washington, for some years before.

Mr. Moden's notes, especially upon the English part, are very full, and are a valuable addition to the author's text. One of the fullest is that upon the Spencer-Harrison controversy, concerning which Count D'Alviella has written a pamphlet. In the American part the author has had good authorities, but he would have done well to submit his proofs to some competent American for revision. Failing to do this, Mr. Moden should have bettered his instructions. On p. 173 we read of the Transcendentalists in 1838: "They soon had their centre of propagandism, the Transcendental Club." Now the Transcendental Club held its first meeting September 19, 1836. The absence of all mention of Dr. Hedge in this connection is a serious defect, for he was certainly the first to bring the German influence to bear upon the Boston mind. It was at Hedge's torch that Ripley lighted his. To say that Parker "played a preponderating part in the abolitionist movement" is incorrect. The sphere of Parker's activity was that of political anti-slavery agitation. "Triumphant acquittal" does not describe the upshot of his criminal indictment at the time of the attempted rescue of Anthony Burns. The indictment was quashed. The fear that Samuel Johnson's society in Lynn "may have disappeared with him" is a decided slip. It disappeared twelve years before his death. In the account of Unitarianism the National Conference, which has no "official list of ministers," is confounded with the American Unitarian Association, and the story that the Unitarians "collected in a few days by private subscriptions the sum of £100,000 to found a new theological institution," is purely mythical. A Cleveland gentleman, not a Unitarian, offered an indefinite sum on certain conditions which were never realized, and the denomination did not collect a cent. These are but trifling matters, but they could have been set right so easily that it is a pity they were not. The interest of Count D'Alviella's chapters is not a little enhanced by the fact that his studies in England, in America, and India are based on personal observation, but apparently his travels in the United States were of short duration. His simplicity and sincerity are so engaging that no one, orthodox or heterodox, can help being interested in his narration and his comments on the notes he has made. He is a Transcendentalist with the Transcendentalists, a Theist with the Theists, a Comtist with the Comtists, and so on. He is never bent on making out a case, and does not conceal the limitations of positions to which he is particularly drawn. But he is clearly not without opinions of his own, and he is confident at last that without special pleading he has made it plain that there is a tendency in religious thought and life to a religiousness which, however undogmatic, will not be unreal. It will have its God—a Supreme Reality transcending all definitions—whose most fitting service will be the service of mankind.

Le Style Louis XIV.: Charles Le Brun, Décorateur, ses Œuvres, son Influence, ses Collaborateurs et son Temps. Paris: J. Rouam.

THIS new volume of the "Bibliothèque Internationale de l'Art," devoted to the architectural decoration of the Grand Siècle, forms a quarto of some 250 pages, and is really valuable, not because of its illustrations (for these are not very numerous, and are no better than one finds in the cheap periodicals of the day, German and French), but because of the carefully considered and often weighty historical criticism to be found in the text. M. Genevay had already recommended himself to all readers of *L'Art*, but we were not prepared for so good a book as this. Anybody who will read Dussieux's 'Versailles' for the facts and the dates, and this book for analysis and criticism, will find himself pretty well equipped for any excursions into the epoch of Le Brun, and not in the fine arts only of the period, but in knowledge of its customs, its standards of thought, and its local color generally.

There is considerable danger that the architects in England and America will be trying the style Louis XIV. next; as just now the demand is for Renaissance details, which cannot fail to pall upon the jaded appetite. Our designers are all, or nearly all, busied in hashing up carved panels and pilasters of the sixteenth century; they will soon get tired of that—the flavor is much too delicate; the highly peppered style of the later time will come next. It is a wonder that it has not come already, and that the Union League Club-house in New York (which perhaps we ought to call Louis XV.) should have had so few imitators. Now this much-to-be-deprecated but very probable new departure in archæological architecture will be aided in no way by this book; for the stimulus is to be found in the publications which give larger plates of details all ready to be appropriated. This book, on the contrary, will help the public to appreciate the Louis XIV. style when it comes, which, admirable in its place and as a thing for us to contemplate as we contemplate absolute monarchy at its apogee, religious bigotry in its perfection, and other magnificences of the time, will be found to adapt itself very ill to modern requirements, having little dignity and no splendor nor beauty, unless employed on a great scale, with space and cost unlimited. That the community may prepare itself to judge it aright if it comes, is much to be desired.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Morris, Prof. E. E. Epochs of Modern History: The Hanoverians. With Maps and Plans. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Morley, J. Voltaire. New ed. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Murray, D. C. Rainbow Gold: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Pellico, Silvio. My Ten Years' Imprisonment. Cassell & Co. 10 cents.
Walworth, Mrs. J. H. Without Blemish: To-Day's Problem. Cassell & Co. $1.25.
Starkweather, A. An Aid to English Grammar. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 15 cents.
Sully-Reinhart. Outlines of Psychology, with Special Reference to the Theory of Education. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.50.
Sankey, C. Epochs of Ancient History: The Spartan and Theban Supremacies. With Maps. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Porter, C. T. Mechanics and Faith: A Study of Spiritual Truth in Nature. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Remsen, D. S. Intestate Succession in the State of New York. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $1.50.
Ponce de Leon, N. Diccionario Tecnológico Inglés-Español y Español-Inglés. Part XV. N. Ponce de Leon. 50 cents
Seeley, J. R. A Short History of Napoleon the First. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Shaw, Prof. H. S. H. Mechanical Integrators, including the Various Forms of Planimeters. D. Van Nostrand. 50 cents.
Starrett, Helen E. Letters to a Daughter, and a Little Sermon to School Girls. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 75 cents.
The Gibbet of Regina: The Truth About Riel. Thompson & Moreau. 50 cents.
Thompson, S. The Humbler Poets. A Collection of Newspaper and Periodical Verse, 1870 to 1885. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $2.
The Critic. Vols 3 and 4. The *Critic* Company.

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OF THE

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JANUARY 1, 1886.

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REVENUE ACCOUNT.

Premiums	$13,517,426 03	
Less deferred premiums, January 1, 1885	795,323 00	$12,722,103 03
Interest and rents (including realized gains on Securities and Real Estate sold)	3,859,577 47	
Less interest accrued January 1, 1885	460,507 76	3,399,069 71
		$16,121,172 74
		$73,957,171 19

DISBURSEMENT ACCOUNT.

Losses by death, including reversionary additions to same		$2,999,109 64
Endowments, matured and discounted, including reversionary additions to same		741,764 47
Annuities, dividends, and purchased policies		3,940,999 64
Total Paid Policy Holders		$7,681,873 75
Taxes and reinsurances		250,142 32
Commissions, brokerages, agency expenses, and physicians' fees		2,024,090 50
Office and law expenses, salaries, advertising, printing, &c		488,446 62
		$10,444,553 19
		$63,512,618 00

ASSETS.

Cash in bank, on hand, and in transit (since received)		$2,042,542 60
United States Bonds and other bonds and stocks (market value, $36,991,923 88)		33,640,220 56
Real Estate		6,855,532 63
Bonds and Mortgages, first lien on real estate (buildings thereon insured for $16,500,000 and the policies assigned to the Company as additional collateral security)		18,159,500 00
Temporary Loans (market value of securities held as collateral, $594,480)		451,500 00
*Loans on existing policies (the reserve held by the company on these policies amounts to over $2,000,000)		416,034 15
*Quarterly and semi-annual premiums on existing policies, due subsequent to January 1, 1886		878,161 65
*Premiums on existing policies in course of transmission and collection. (The reserve on these policies, included in liabilities, is estimated at $955,000)		575,699 50
Agents' balances		58,142 73
Accrued Interest on investments, January 1, 1886		435,284 18
		$63,512,618 00
Market value of securities over cost on company's books		3,351,703 32

*A detailed schedule of these items will accompany the usual annual report filed with the Insurance Department of the State of New York.

CASH ASSETS, January 1, 1886, ... $66,864,321 32

Appropriated as follows:

Adjusted losses, due subsequent to January 1, 1886		$144,424 00
Reported losses, awaiting proof, etc		248,423 12
Matured endowments, due and unpaid (claims not presented)		41,854 06
Annuities due and unpaid (uncalled for)		10,595 21
Reserved for re-insurance on existing policies; participating insurance at 4 per cent. Carlisle net premium; non-participating at 5 per cent. Carlisle net premium		66,200,875 00
Reserved for contingent liabilities to Tontine Dividend Fund, January 1, 1885, over and above a 4 per cent. reserve on existing policies of that class	$2,633,796 70	
Addition to the Fund during 1885	952,683 31	
	$3,586,480 01	
DEDUCT— Returned to Tontine policy-holders during the year on matured Tontines	462,737 24	
Balance of Tontine Fund January 1, 1886		3,123,742 77
Reserved for premiums paid in advance		29,934 03
		$59,799,848 19
DIVISIBLE SURPLUS (COMPANY'S STANDARD)		$7,064,473 13
SURPLUS BY THE NEW YORK STATE STANDARD, AT 4½ PER CENT		$13,225,053 94

From the undivided surplus of $7,064,473 13 the Board of Trustees has declared a Reversionary dividend to participating policies in proportion to their contribution to surplus, available on settlement of next annual premium.

Surplus:	JAN. 1, 1885:—Co.'s Standard	$4,371,014; State Standard	$9,896,773
	JAN. 1, 1886:—Co.'s Standard	7,064,473; State Standard	13,225,053
	INCREASE:—Co.'s Standard	$2,693,459; State Standard	$3,328,280

Death-claims paid.	Income from Interest.	Insurance in force.	Cash Assets.
1881, $2,013,203.	1881, $2,432,654.	Jan. 1, 1882, $151,760,824.	Jan. 1, 1882, $47,228,781.
1882, 1,955,292.	1882, 2,798,018.	" 1883, 171,415,097.	" 1883, 50,800,396.
1883, 2,263,092.	1883, 2,712,863.	" 1884, 198,746,043.	" 1884, 55,542,902.
1884, 2,257,175.	1884, 2,971,624.	" 1885, 229,382,586.	" 1885, 59,283,753.
1885, 2,999,109.	1885, 3,399,069.	" 1886, 259,674,500.	" 1886, 66,864,321.

During the year 18,566 policies have been issued, insuring $68,521,452.

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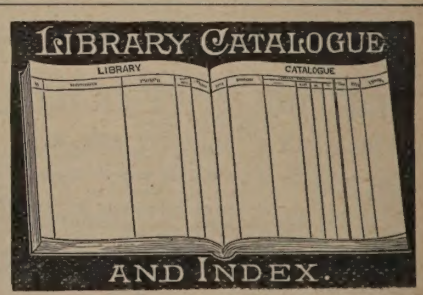

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 25, 1886.

The Week.

THE danger of the passage of any law requiring the Secretary of the Treasury to pay out all the money in the Treasury except the $100,000,000 which constitutes the greenback redemption fund, is very slight. Such a measure, if passed by the House, would pretty certainly be stopped in the Senate, and would surely encounter the Executive veto. It is most humiliating, however, that the House should have any such measure under serious consideration, and the hardship is all the greater since the Democratic party is pushing this destructive policy against its own Administration, the Republicans on the Ways and Means Committee and Mr. Abram S. Hewitt alone resisting the attack. The Democrats in the House are certainly doing all they can to drive the Independent voters back to the Republican party. When they go they will have a reinforcement of Democratic Mugwumps sufficient to make politics interesting in the next campaign.

Mr. Bland was defeated again in the Coinage Committee on Wednesday, this time in a most unexpected manner, by the vote of Mr. Norwood, of Georgia. The latter gentleman had received the same petitions from the business community of Savannah in favor of suspension of the coinage that "old Joe Brown" had received in the Senate, but he treated them very differently. He conformed his action to the wishes of his constituents, while Mr. Brown, by the gift of omniscience, discerned that the petition of the Savannah merchants had a printed heading, and must therefore have come from some other State than Georgia, where the art of printing is unknown and where merchants cannot read, and ought therefore to be held of no effect. Mr. Norwood's vote in the Committee left Mr. Bland, as it were, high and dry. He is now in worse shape than ever, so far as his Committee is concerned. But the friends of honest money are in much better shape. They are now in a position to force the fighting.

Attention has been drawn to the clauses in Mr. Morrison's Tariff Bill relating to lumber, the suggestion having been made that it is not intended to admit pine and spruce lumber free of duty. The two clauses are the following:

"FREE OF DUTY.—Lumber, hewn and sawed, and timber used for spars and in building wharves. Timber, squared or sided, not especially enumerated or provided for.

"DUTIABLE.—Sawed boards, plank deals and other lumber of hemlock, whitewood, sycamore, and basswood, and all other articles of sawed lumber when planed or finished: for each so planed or finished 50c. per 1,000 feet, board measure."

There is certainly no ambiguity in these clauses All sawed lumber except hemlock, whitewood, sycamore, and basswood, is to be admitted free, and all planed and finished lumber is to be charged 50 cents per 1,000 feet. It is very likely that this part of the bill will pass, whatever may be the fate of the remainder. The Western farmers have grown tired of paying an ever-increasing tax in the way of stumpage to a few owners of pine lands, and the whole country has been slowly but sensibly aroused to the dangers flowing from the destruction of the forests and the denudation of the uplands which constitute the natural reservoirs of the country. We do not see any sufficient reason for taxing hemlock and basswood more than pine and spruce.

There seems to be very little that is good and a great deal that is irredeemably bad about the appointments which the President made on Wednesday for Collector and Naval Officer at Baltimore. From a private letter received by us from a citizen of Baltimore whose knowledge and judgment in the matter cannot be questioned, we quote the following:

"Mr. I. Freeman Rasin, who has been appointed Naval Officer of this port, has for at least eighteen years been the chief lobbyist in Baltimore. He has long been at the head of the most powerful of the local factions. Even among politicians of his own school he has acquired a reputation for unscrupulousness and faithlessness passing the ordinary measure of professionals. To carry his point he has never hesitated to cheat at primaries. Through his tools and by his orders the worst of the election frauds of the last ten years have been perpetrated. Every one can tell you of more or less well authenticated stories of his having sent for persons interested in legislation pending before the City Council and the State Legislature, and telling them that they would have to pay a precise sum to win. Of one such incident I was myself personally informed three years ago by a gentleman, of the highest character, upon whom the demand had been made. Either the Civil-Service Reform Association or the Reform League will doubtless take the matter up. Ex-Senator Groome is a respectable gentleman of mediocre abilities, entirely under Gorman's control."

Mistakes like these, after the Higgins and Thomas appointments have shown the character of all of Gorman's friends, seem entirely without excuse.

It really begins to look as though Ohio might become a decent State. The Legislature, with a Democratic majority in the Senate and a Republican majority in the House, has passed a law which provides that in the four cities of Cincinnati, Cleveland, Columbus, and Toledo the Governor shall appoint boards of commissioners, consisting in each case of four persons of good character, divided equally between the two parties, and that these Commissioners in turn shall appoint all the election judges and clerks, who must also be of good character and selected from the two parties. Ohio people congratulate themselves, apparently with good reason, that this system will put an end to the outrageous election frauds that have so long disgraced the State, which invited them by an election system worthy of a community of barbarians.

Saco is a Maine town of 6,389 people, which used to be as free from disease as other places of similar size. The prohibitory law of Maine forbids the sale of liquors except for mechanical or medicinal purposes, and establishes in every large town an agency for their sale for such purposes. At a recent temperance meeting in Saco, official statistics were presented showing that in 200 days 16,000 prescriptions were put up at the local liquor agency, being an average of eighty a day. The effect of prohibition upon the public health evidently demands investigation.

The Senate is giving a good deal of time to the Blair bill, but the great importance of the proposition fully justifies the close attention which it is receiving. We are glad to see that the considerations which we have urged against the project during the past month are being employed with effect in Congress, as for example, by Senator Morgan, of Alabama, who has made a strong speech against the bill, citing the case of Connecticut. Senator Hawley sustained the position that the experience of his State is a forcible argument against the project, and laid proper stress upon the fact that its Board of Education considers the pending bill an unwise measure. General Boynton, the veteran Washington correspondent, says that there is no doubt that the better judgment of many Senators who do not come out promi nently in opposition to the scheme is against the policy of the bill. A similar change of sentiment is clearly perceptible in the press. When the proposition was originally broached, many newspapers hastily accepted the plausible pleas in its behalf which were made by the Rev. Mr. Mayo and other friends of education, and advised the passage of the bill. Now that the fatal objections to the scheme are indicated, several of these journals have ceased to advocate it, others give it but a halting support, and still others, like the New York *Times*, admit that it would not be advisable to pass the bill.

Senator Ingalls, of Kansas, pointed out another radical defect of the Blair bill when he urged that Congress had no right to appropriate money for educational purposes which must go in large measure to the Northern States, which do not need it. We have urged that the bill should be defeated because its passage would be so demoralizing to the cause of education in the South; but Mr. Ingalls does well to show that its influence would be only less bad upon the North. The only device by which a cloak of constitutionality can be thrown over the measure, is to apportion the money among the different States in the proportion which the illiterates in each bear to the number of illiterates in the whole country. A Northern State with a small percentage of illiteracy, but a large total population, may thus establish a claim to a greater share of the fund than a Southern State with a large percentage of illiteracy but a small total population. Of the whole $77,000,000 which it is proposed to appropriate, New York would receive $2,721,066, or considerably more than the $2,503,170 allotted to Arkansas; Pennsylvania, $2,825,324, or almost two-thirds as much as South Carolina's $4,582,792; Ohio, $1,633,718, or not far short of half Louisiana's $3,945,051; and Massachusetts, $1,152,-

116, or nearly $160,000 more than Florida's $993,548. Senator Ingalls pronounced it "an act of grand larceny on the Treasury" to take out money raised by taxation and pass it around on such a scale. In the name of Kansas, he refused to have his State share in any such larceny. Senator Hawley has made a similar disclaimer for Connecticut. The Massachusetts Senators will probably feel bound, for consistency's sake, to support again a measure which they were persuaded hastily to favor two years ago, but the Boston *Herald* brings the encouraging news that the bill "is not likely to have the support of all the Massachusetts Republicans in the House of Representatives." Senator Evarts, who is bound by no previous committal upon the question, ought to repudiate all share in the subsidy on behalf of New York; but unhappily Mr. Evarts is now running for the Presidency upon the platform of "the old flag—and an appropriation."

The Atlanta *Constitution*, as the leading newspaper of a commonwealth which justly calls herself "the Empire State of the South," does little credit to either its State or itself when it—rather shamefacedly, we are glad to observe—pleads that the nation should come to the help of Georgia's schools. It is true that the public schools of Georgia fall far short of being as good as they ought to be, but it is also true that Georgia is abundantly able to make them worthy of so prosperous a State. Georgia, as the *Constitution* would be the last paper in the country to deny, is one of the richest States in the whole South, and is hardly surpassed by any in the steady and rapid development of its resources. Yet Georgia is doing much less toward the education of her children than other States which have not only less wealth, but also a greater load of ignorance. Florida in 1880 had only about one-sixth the population and less than one-eighth the resources of Georgia, while the percentage of negroes to all the inhabitants was about the same in the two States; yet Florida expended $172,178 upon her schools in 1884, and Georgia only $653,868, or not two-thirds of what she ought to have raised to keep pace with Florida. Mississippi, in 1880, had but three-fourths of Georgia's population, and only about half her amount of wealth, while nearly 58 per cent. of Mississippi's inhabitants were negroes, against only 47 per cent. in Georgia; yet Mississippi expended $803,876 upon her schools in 1884, or $150,000 more than Georgia. The *Constitution* really must not ask the country to believe that the State which it represents as being at all other times rich, progressive, and prosperous, becomes suddenly so poor, when it comes to the matter of raising a school fund, that it cannot do even as well as Florida or Mississippi.

Senator Frye's proposed Pan-American Convention reminds us, and was perhaps intended to remind us, of the similar step once proposed in a vague sort of way by Mr. Blaine. The Blaine scheme was shrouded in sufficient mystery to enable anybody to claim any advantages from it that the most lively imagination could suggest, without showing how they were to be gained. Mr. Frye's is open to the serious objection that it offers a plan for securing them. Among the declared objects of the Convention is the following:

"Second—Measures toward the formation of an American customs union, under which the trade of the American nations shall, so far as is practicable and profitable, be confined to American waters, and there shall be *a free interchange of the peculiar natural and manufactured products of each.*"

What on earth can Mr. Frye be thinking about? The most peculiar natural product of South America which Mr. Frye proposes to admit duty free is wool. This is the one thing whose admission free of duty would be likely to make the greatest commotion in the State of Ohio. What will the wool-growers think of Mr. Blaine when they read this?

The *Herald* publishes a very sweeping but obviously just decision of the United States Supreme Court, to the effect that the law of Congress which authorizes the arbitrary seizure of a merchant's books and papers by Custom-house officers is unconstitutional and void, being plainly obnoxious to Article IV. of the amendments which guarantees "the right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects against unreasonable searches and seizures," and also to Article V., which declares that "no person shall be compelled in a criminal case to be a witness against himself." This decision falls in very pat with Secretary Manning's able and thorough discussion of the machinery of the tariff laws, sent to Congress a day or two since, the purport of which is that the laws are not by any means sufficiently stringent to enable him to collect the existing duties on imported goods. And now comes the Supreme Court and sweeps away the main reliance for the discovery and proof of frauds and undervaluations which has been in force ever so many years. In view of this decision one's mind naturally reverts to the great black-mailing case against Phelps, Dodge & Co., which depended for its success upon a seizure of books and papers as arbitrary and ruthless as was ever known.

The tyranny and cruelty of which trades unionism is often guilty have seldom been displayed in a more repulsive light than in Newark to-day. The compositors employed by the *Daily Advertiser*, of that city, have not hitherto belonged to the Typographical Union, although they have been paid higher wages than the Union rates, and have had no complaint to make on that or any other score. A committee of the Trades Assembly recently waited upon the proprietor, and requested that the *Advertiser* office should be enrolled under the auspices of the Typographical Union, to which he offered no objection, provided the men desired to become members of the organization. The Committee, however, served notice that seven men who were employed in the office, including one who had been in its service for forty years, would not be admitted to the Union, because they abandoned a strike in which the office was involved about five years ago, when they returned to work without permission from the central authority. It thus became evident that the sole object of the movement to make the office a Union office was to punish these seven men for an alleged offence committed five years ago, to deprive them of their present means of supporting their families, and to turn them adrift with little chance of finding work elsewhere, as their names would be everywhere "posted" by the Union. The proprietor refused to consent to such injustice and inhumanity, as any man of proper feeling would have done, and the Trades Assembly promptly retorted by ordering that the *Advertiser* be boycotted. It is encouraging to learn that the American love of fair play is manifesting itself in Newark, and that the *Advertiser* is doing a brisker business than before, since this outrageous attempt was made to destroy it for simply doing its duty.

The Rutland (Vt.) *Herald* lately took a most gloomy view of the conditions and effects of farming life in New England. The familiar statement was again repeated that the farming class yields a larger percentage of insanity than any other, and this was accounted for on the ground that the average farmer and his wife and daughters are under-nourished, grievously overworked, and much subject to anxiety and nervous stress.

"To take a New England farm and make it pay means toil, incessant toil, early and late; physically the farmer, and especially the farmer's wife, is often severely overworked to the extent of a broken-down nervous system. The food of the farmer is no better, not always as healthful, as the food of mechanical city workers; and the fatigue, exposure, anxiety, and overwork of the average farmer is more than is ordinarily encountered by the city worker of the same intelligence," etc.

A correspondent of the *Evening Post*, which had reprinted the article, writes to that paper to say that twenty-five years of experience upon a farm, and much observation, lead a farmer's wife to very different conclusions. It is true that she writes of Connecticut and not of Vermont, but the conditions of the same class cannot be widely different in the two communities. No doubt there is difference in ease of living among farmers; a little advantage in point of capital, or intelligence, or even temperament, will cause that. The insanity results, however, if they were known, would be really significant of average condition, and the popular conviction certainly is that farming life does yield more than its due proportion of insane patients.

It may be doubted whether this conviction is well founded. We have before us the latest reports of the Danvers and the Worcester Lunatic Hospitals in Massachusetts, a State which, touching both Vermont and Connecticut, has very similar conditions of climate and soil. The males engaged in agriculture in Massachusetts amount to almost exactly 9½ per cent. of the whole male population. Yet of the admissions to these two hospitals during the last year reported the farmers numbered less than 6 per cent. of the whole number of males, while of wives or daughters of farmers, specified only in the Danvers report, the proportion was barely 3½ per cent. of the females. These proportions become more significant when contrasted with the returns from other classes of society. Laborers, for instance, furnished 19 per cent. of all males, and wives or daughters of laborers (reported from the Danvers Hospital only) supplied about 8½ per cent. of all females, while full 20½

per cent. of the admissions of females to both hospitals were from the class of domestic servants. Finally, what may be considered most striking of all, is the fact that of the whole number (nearly 800) embraced in both reports, the proportion of patients of "no occupation" is a little more than 6 per cent. for men and a little less than 6 per cent. for women. The proportion of the whole population represented by each of these classes excepting the farmers, whose number is known by the census, must be a matter of estimate, but no estimates can disturb the conclusion from these reports that the farmers and their women-folk furnish very much less than their natural proportion of insane patients. The representation from the very small "no occupation" class, equalling that from the great agricultural division of society, calls to mind Dr. Robson Roose's paper on "Wear and Tear of London Life," in the last *Fortnightly Review*. Dr. Roose says, on the authority of "a distinguished American physician" (whom we take to have been the late Dr. James R. Wood), "that the number of the insane is greater in a community in proportion to the political and religious freedom of the population; that is, to the opportunity they enjoy of working out their own purposes, whether in relation to this world or the next, in the manner most agreeable to themselves. The explanation, of course, is, that in such communities the causes of insanity are always numerous and wide spread." This is a lightning-flash of insight to put beside the popular theory, the substance of which is that it is from lack of "causes of insanity" that farmers go mad.

The Rochester *Democrat and Chronicle*, discussing our recent contrast between the rapidity with which the political generation of the war period is passing away, and the length of time that the generation of Revolutionary soldiers and statesmen remained upon the stage, speculates as to the causes of the difference, and is inclined to conclude that "the lives of men who are foremost in affairs have been shortened rather than lengthened" during the century since the foundation of the Government. We think upon more careful investigation it would find another element, still more potent, in the earlier age at which the men of the Revolutionary period attained prominence than those of the Rebellion era. When the civil war broke out in 1861, Lincoln, Hamlin, and Andrew Johnson were each 52 years old; Fremont and Douglas were each 48; Seward was 60; Chase, 53; Cameron, 62; Stanton, 46; Greeley and Sumner, each 50; Wilson, 49; Fessenden, 55; Trumbull, 48; Wade, 61; "Thad" Stevens, 69; Banks, 45; Hendricks, 42; Curtin, 44; John Sherman, Morton, and Colfax, each 38; Grant, 39; Tecumseh Sherman, 41; McClellan, 34; Hancock, 37; Sheridan, 30; Seymour, 51; Tilden, 47; Hayes, 38; Garfield, 29; Logan, 35; Lamar, 36. Here are thirty-three men, then prominent in politics, or destined to prominence in the field, of whom a full third had completed their fiftieth year, and but three were under 35, while the average age of all was nearly 46.

On the other hand, when the Revolution broke out in 1775, Washington was 43; John Adams, then a delegate in the Continental Congress, 40, and his colleague, Thomas Jefferson, only 32; Madison, just entering on public life in Virginia, but 24; Monroe, a boy of 17, contemplating joining the patriot army the next year, and eight years later a member of the Continental Congress at 25; Hamilton, a college student of 18 in this city ready to be Washington's aide-de-camp at 20, and a member of the Continental Congress at 25; Rufus King, afterward United States Senator from New York as late as 1825, a Harvard student of 20, preparing himself to be an officer in the army at 23 and a member of the Continental Congress at 29; Charles Pinckney, afterward Congressman so late as 1821, a boy of 17, who was to be one of South Carolina's representatives in the Continental Congress at 19; William Jackson, afterward Secretary of the Constitutional Convention of 1787, a lieutenant in the army at 16 and Assistant Secretary of War at 23; while in the Continental Congress sat such already prominent men as John Jay, not yet 30; Robert R. Livingston, 28; Frederick Frelinghuysen, but 22, among colleagues nearly half of whom were men under 40. Without further multiplying illustrations, it is evident that the chief reason why men who were prominent in the Revolution continued prominent so long afterward that the last President of that school did not retire until 1825, was because they were as a rule so very young when they assumed public duties; while the chief reason that the politicians and soldiers of the Rebellion period are dying so much sooner after the close of the struggle is because they were very much older men than their prototypes of the last century when the struggle opened.

We shall probably hear, before many days, a great outcry from the Gloucester fishermen against the preparations making by the Canadian authorities to protect their fisheries under the revived treaty of 1818. One of the clauses of this treaty forbids our fishermen to trade with the Canadians and Newfoundlanders for bait, ice, and other articles indispensable for fishing. When the advocates of a fishery commission pointed out this matter to the Gloucester fish protectionists they replied that this trade was just as advantageous to the Canadians as to our people, and that trading was a natural right anyway, and that if they were not allowed to go ashore to buy bait, etc., the sellers of those articles would paddle their canoes out to the fishing fleet and do the trading beyond the three-mile limit. But now we are told that the Dominion authorities will take steps to prevent this contraband traffic by stationing cruisers along the shore to keep all the bait at home. It is difficult to see how this trouble is to be met. We keep our people from trading in the most innocent articles, except when and as our laws permit. We are not allowed, for instance, to buy a ship of foreign build under any circumstances, nor is a foreign-built ship allowed under any circumstances to carry a passenger or a pound of freight from one American port to another. In point of principle there is no difference between this kind of prohibition and the prohibition of bait trading and ice trading in Newfoundland. Upon the whole, it seems likely that the additional cost of fishing will amount to at least 1 cent per pound, which is the rate of duty on fish concerning which all the row is made.

The Dilke scandal in England grows a little more mysterious every day. How the Judge came to grant a divorce on the husband's report of the wife's confession, without any corroborating testimony, has never been clearly explained, but we suppose that the failure of the wife to put in any defence operated as a default on her part, and enabled the husband to get judgment against her. But then Dilke was a co-respondent, and did not either appear or offer any evidence, and yet, although the judgment against the wife indirectly convicted him, the charge against him was somehow—nobody seems to know how—dismissed. As matters stand, the proceeding has all the air of a divorce by collusion between the parties, and the public in England evidently so regards it. Under these circumstances, it is in England the duty of the Queen's Proctor—the law officer of the Crown in the Admiralty and Divorce Courts—to intervene, and have the proceedings reopened, and this he will probably now do. According to the latest accounts nobody ought to desire this more than Sir Charles Dilke himself, for he is now said to have all along had a complete answer to the charge against him, but was prevented from making it by the advice of the wicked Joseph Chamberlain, who insisted on his keeping silent. But this was such obviously bad advice that if offered in this country, by Blaine to Logan for instance, it would be looked on as an attempt to "knife" a hated rival. Sir Charles Dilke is now said to see his mistake, and to be anxious to make his statement. That he should not have seen that a truthful denial of an act of great baseness was always seasonable and becoming, to use no stronger words, is very extraordinary for a man with as much experience of life as he has had.

The new rôle of Lord Randolph Churchill as head of the Irish Orangemen is in all respects worthy of this really remarkable mountebank, who was seven months ago coquetting with the Parnellites. But his performances in Ulster the other day can only help the Home-Rulers by disgusting the British Radicals. No party in England can ever afford to make much of Orange support, because the Orange creed contains only one article, and that is that Protestants should have all political power and Catholics none. Every English statesman who has ever tried to improve the condition of Ireland has had to face their hostility and defy their threats.

The formal surrender of the Greeks to "superior force," which was announced in England on Tuesday, will form another sorry episode in Greek history. The frantic appeal they have put forth to the English and Irish to save them from the British fleet, commanded by a Prince of the blood, will make their situation a little more ridiculous. They are now in the position before Europe of having again tried to better themselves by pretending to be going to fight, in the hope that the Powers would make Turkey give them something in order to keep the peace.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 17, to TUESDAY, February 23, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Republican Senators decided in caucus on Wednesday that the Edmunds resolution relative to the respective powers of the President and the Senate in the matter of nominations should be favorably reported in open session of the Senate. Mr. Edmunds's resolution covers these points: First. That the Senate does not approve the answer of the Attorney-General in refusing to give information as to suspensions. Second. That the Senate cannot confirm persons nominated to succeed suspended officials where the reasons for suspension are not given. Third. That the Senate does not approve of the removal of ex-Union soldiers without cause. The resolutions were presented in the Senate on Thursday.

The present situation in the contest between the President and Senate is stated as follows: The reports that the Republican Senators are not in accord as to the resolutions presented by Mr. Edmunds are not well founded. Whatever differences of opinion there may have been in the first instance as to the policy to be adopted, the Republicans are now a unit in their support of the resolutions. These resolutions themselves are a compromise, and represent the concession that had to be made to those who were opposed to a policy of wholesale rejections. They have been misinterpreted in a good many quarters, as is apparent from the character of some of the press comments outside of Washington. Only those nominations are to be rejected as to which information, when asked, is refused, and it is quite clear that all nominations will be rejected where the information, meaning by that term the "papers," is withheld. Care will be taken not to call for information where the Republicans do not have what they call a "good case." The papers will be called for in a great many post-office cases. It is probable, for instance, that the Postmaster-General will be asked to furnish the papers in the case of every Presidential postmaster in the State of Virginia.

In the Senate on Wednesday a bill was introduced appropriating $250,000 for a Grant monument in Washington. It was passed on Tuesday.

The Education Bill was again under discussion in the Senate on Thursday, and was opposed by Mr. Ingalls (Rep., Kan.) and Mr. Coke (Dem., Tex.). Mr. Riddleberger (Read., Va.) spoke in its favor, and Mr. Evarts followed on Friday. It is believed that the bill will be defeated.

The Senate Commerce Committee has decided to report favorably upon the bill to permit the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company to bridge the Arthur Kill, but the height of the structure has not been determined.

The Republican members of the Senate Judiciary Committee will report against the confirmation of Mr. Goode as Assistant Attorney-General.

The House on Thursday passed the Fitz-John Porter Bill by a vote of 171 to 113. On Friday a resolution was passed authorizing the President to furnish a gold medal to Joseph Francis, of New York, for his distinguished services as an inventor of life-saving appliances.

In the House Coinage Committee on Wednesday Mr. Norwood, of Georgia, who had voted with the Bland men, announced that his constituents opposed a further coinage of silver dollars. The recent decision to report adversely on Mr. Wait's resolution for a suspension of coinage was then laid on the table by a vote of 7 to 6.

The Ways and Means Committee on Tuesday morning had an animated discussion on the various propositions that were submitted as to the manner in which the Morrison Tariff Bill should be considered. The Republicans insisted that the Committee should hear delegations of manufacturers and others who might be affected by the measure. The Democrats insisted that the hearings given by the Tariff Commission and since were sufficient to make known the views of the protectionists, and that it was important that the bill should be reported to the House as soon as practicable. Finally the Democrats made what they call a concession, and permitted the Committee to adopt a resolution that hearings will be given to parties in interest until March 12, when the Committee will proceed to act upon the bill. This delay is much greater than Chairman Morrison had expected or desired.

There is to be determined opposition to the bill. Mr. Morrison says he has presented the bill to give the Democrats an opportunity to determine whether or not they will support their party platform.

Secretary Manning reports that the Morrison Tariff Bill will reduce the revenue only about $12,000,000 instead of $20,000,000. When the bill was reported it was stated that the reduction of taxes would be about $5,000,000 by the extension of the free list, $10,000,000 by the sugar cut, and $5,000,000 by other changes. Mr. Manning finds that as it is stipulated that the reduction in the sugar duties shall not be applicable to countries laying an export tax, and that 74 per cent. of the sugar imported into the United States comes from Cuba and Porto Rico, both imposing export taxes, the reduction will be only $2,000,000.

The House Naval Committee has practically agreed upon a comprehensive plan for the reorganization of the navy. It is proposed to build six cruisers and a number of torpedo boats.

Rear-Admiral Jouett telegraphed the Secretary of the Navy from Aspinwall on Friday that the United States steamship *Galena* had sailed for Key West, Fla., with the steamship *City of Mexico* as a prize. The *City of Mexico* was bought some time ago by friends of ex-President Soto, and has on board a part of the expedition which has been preparing for some time to descend upon the coast of Honduras.

United States District-Attorney Dickson was attacked in Salt Lake City on Monday evening by a son of George Q. Cannon and two other men, who struck him in the face with a stone. His injuries are not serious.

About two o'clock on Monday morning the Chinese residents were driven out of Oregon City. They were wakened by a mob who drove them on the steamboat *Latonia* and paid their fares to Portland. Forty-two, in all, were driven out. They were employed in woollen mills.

In the Virginia Senate on Wednesday the bill prepared by Lieutenant-Governor Massey to facilitate the settlement of the public debt of the State was introduced. It authorizes the Governor to appoint three citizens of Virginia as a Board of Commissioners to confer with the bondholders, and to acquaint them with the material and financial condition of Virginia, and explain the facts which make the settlement under the Riddleberger act just and equitable, and its acceptance by them necessary for the protection of their interests. The Commissioners are empowered to take steps to arrange with West Virginia for a just proportion of the State debt as it existed prior to the 1st of January, 1861, to be borne by West Virginia and not by Virginia. The bill further provides that the amount secured to be paid by West Virginia shall be divided pro rata among the holders of West Virginia certificates which have been issued under the different acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, or which may be issued before the 1st of January, 1887.

In the New York Assembly on Thursday an amendment to a civil-service bill, that no competitive examinations be had for soldiers and sailors, was defeated 39 to 66.

The strike in the Pennsylvania coke regions has virtually ended in a victory for the strikers.

Henry Watterson, editor of the Louisville *Courier-Journal*, is improving in health and will probably recover.

John B. Gough died in Philadelphia on Thursday afternoon. He was born August 22, 1827, at Sandgate, Eng. When a boy of twelve he came to this country, learned the bookbinder's trade and earned a fair salary for a boy. He became intemperate, and, on account of his mimetic powers, was very popular with his companions. At one time he appeared on the stage in Boston. The theatre was soon closed for want of money, and Gough lost his earnings as well as his position. He was married soon afterward, and established a bookbindery of his own, but his intemperance increased, and his wife died within a year. Gough signed the temperance pledge in 1842, at the suggestion of a Quaker named Stratton, and then began to speak at temperance meetings. His natural eloquence gained him a great reputation. Since then he has lectured all over this country and Great Britain. It is estimated that more that 300,000 people have signed the pledge by reason of his efforts, and that at least 9,000,000 have heard him speak. He lived in a comfortable home at Worcester, Mass.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone has assumed the office of Lord Privy Seal. This is taken as an indication that he has difficulty in filling that Cabinet position.

Parliament reassembled on Thursday. Mr. Gladstone stated, in the House of Commons, that, after the Government had concluded the financial business they had to place before the House, they would be able to state a part, if not the whole, of the Irish measures they intended to introduce. He expected, he said, to be through the financial business about March 22. Mr. Gladstone announced further that the Government had no intention of renewing coercion in Ireland. Alluding to the foreign policy of the new Government, Mr. Gladstone said he would follow the Eastern policy inaugurated by his predecessor, Lord Salisbury.

Mr Parnell was on Thursday night questioned with reference to Mr. Gladstone's statement that the proposed Irish measures would not be introduced until March 22. He replied: "The situation, as it existed after the defeat of the Conservative Government two weeks ago, has not been altered in any way by the declaration of the Prime Minister. I think it is only reasonable the new Ministry should be allowed the time Mr. Gladstone asks for the consideration of these proposed measures with regard to Ireland." Mr. Parnell again insisted that the home-rule question must precede all other Irish measures, and added: "I am further of the opinion that if the land question be left to the determination of an Irish Parliament, landlords will obtain a more favorable settlement than if they be thrown upon the mercy of the present Parliament at Westminster."

The leading members of the Conservative party met in London on Thursday, to confer upon the course the party should pursue in regard to Irish affairs. Lord Salisbury presided. Lord Randolph Churchill and 150 other prominent Tories were present. The meeting was very enthusiastic. Lord Salisbury predicted a union with the Conservatives of the section of the Liberals which follows Lord Hartington and Mr. Goschen. He urged the Conservatives to do all that was possible to bring such a union into effect. Some of the speakers commented severely on Lord Randolph Churchill's attack upon Catholics and his intimacy with the members of the Parnellite party. The meeting resolved to make home rule a test question in the House of Commons, and for this purpose will support the Parnellites in their demand to have it precede land reform in the consideration of the House.

In the House of Commons on Monday Mr. Gladstone announced that the Government did not intend to suppress the Irish National

League. In moving the appointment of a select committee on procedure, he said it was the Government's intention to facilitate business rather than to adopt clôture measures. Captain O'Shea met with a chilling reception in the House on Monday. It is asserted that Chief Secretary Morley has so instructed the police and military authorities as to render it virtually impossible to effect evictions.

In the House of Commons on Friday night, during a discussion on a vote for the Irish constabulary, Mr. Dillon expressed the strongest desire to make smooth Mr. Morley's path, because, as he said, he knew that Mr. Morley wished to leave Ireland as soon as possible. Mr. Morley replied in an unconcerned manner, repudiating Mr. Dillon's motive of sympathy. He said that the question how long English ministers would rule Ireland was rapidly approaching a solution one way or the other. Loud Parnellite cheers greeted Mr. Morley's remarks

The impression is gaining ground in London that the present Cabinet will prove unworkable, and that it will be impossible to hold it together. Mr. Chamberlain denies that there is any dispute or difference of opinion concerning the Government's policy toward Ireland between himself and his colleagues in the Cabinet.

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, President of the Local Government Board, has quarrelled with his Radical colleague, Sir Charles Dilke, and abandoned him utterly. The reason given by Mr. Chamberlain's friends is, that Sir Charles refused to adopt Mr. Chamberlain's advice to testify under oath that he was not guilty of the offences charged against him as co-respondent in the Crawford divorce suit. On the other hand, friends of Sir Charles say that he was dissuaded from testifying by Mr. Chamberlain. They reassert the innocence of Sir Charles.

Sir Charles Dilke met the Chelsea Liberal Council on Friday, and declared that he had no intention of resigning. By a vote of 294 to 6 the Liberals declared their confidence in him.

The hearing in the case of the Socialist leaders, Hyndman, Burns, Champion, and Williams, who are charged with inciting to riot, contempt of law, etc., in connection with the recent demonstration in London, was begun in the Bow Street Police Court on Wednesday morning. The counsel for the Government quoted from speeches made by the accused, showing that they incited the mob to breaches of the peace. They will probably be prosecuted for misdemeanor. The hearing was adjourned one week.

A great Socialist meeting, numbering 50,000, was held in Hyde Park, London, on Sunday. Speeches were made from three stands. Burns delivered an effective oration, in which he deprecated any attempt at looting or rioting, attributed the previous rioting to mockeries of clubmen, and appealed to the audience not to take their ransom prematurely, nor to give the police spies a chance to traduce them. Hyndman, Williams, and Champion spoke in their usual strain, but without using violent language, although earnestly demanding a social revolution in the positions of capital and labor. When the meeting was ended the crowd moved in an orderly manner to the exit at Hyde Park Corner. There, without warning, bodies of mounted police made a furious rush into the crowd, especially in the vicinity of the leaders' wagonettes. Many blows were dealt, and the police were hooted. The temper of the crowd was rising, but in response to the appeals of the speakers they behaved admirably. Thirty thousand people have applied to the Mansion House in London for relief.

The Chief of the Metropolitan Police force of London has resigned on account of the recent severe censures growing out of the riots. A thorough reorganization of the force is probable.

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, President of the Local Government Board, was visited on Tuesday by a deputation of unemployed workingmen, who stated their grievances and asked what the Government meant to do to relieve the prevailing distress. Mr. Chamberlain, in his reply, deprecated riots and all similar forms of disturbance to manifest the needs of help. He said he was opposed to emigration as a means of relief, unless the distress were chronic. This opposition was based on many grounds, not the least among which was the fact that the colonies would refuse to welcome large numbers of paupers, because, among other reasons, their influx would cheapen the labor market. Mr. Chamberlain added that he hoped the Government would soon be able to establish the British laborer upon the soil he tilled. Pending the accomplishment of this, he (Mr. Chamberlain) would not cease urging the local boards to start relief works, such as paving and improving the streets, to furnish the means of subsistence to such as were in absolute need.

At the meeting of the Chambers of Commerce in London on Tuesday, Mr. Forwood, Conservative member of Parliament from Lancashire, and a prominent shipowner of Liverpool, presided. He attributed the present depression in British trade to the appreciation of gold, assisted by the competition of foreign products and manufactures turned out by skilled labor improved by technical education. The Dublin Chamber of Commerce offered and the Glasgow Chamber seconded a resolution "against weakening the union between England and Ireland," because of "the disastrous nature of the results which would ensue to the commercial and trading interests of Great Britain."

The Earl of Aberdeen, the new Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, made his state entry into Dublin on Saturday. There was little enthusiasm. Some students in the procession were attacked by the crowd and wounded.

Lord Randolph Churchill arrived at Belfast on Monday and was received with unbounded enthusiasm. Many processions with Orange colors paraded the streets. The crowd unharnessed the horses from Lord Randolph's carriage and drew it through the streets. When he rose to speak, the cheering lasted more than five minutes. He said it lay with Ulster to say whether Ireland should remain a part of the empire. He denied that the Parnellites were true representatives of the will of the Irish people. As for Mr. Parnell, his only title to be continued as leader in the party lay in actions of which no one could be justly proud. By playing upon the terrors of the peasantry and by means of brutal outrages upon human beings and animals, he had secured five-sixths of the Irish members of Parliament. He appealed to all, regardless of creed, to declare in favor of a freer and closer union. If the appeal failed, he said, he would not mind leaving the issue to the people of Ulster. He believed the storm would blow over, however, and that the Union would emerge stronger than it had ever been. The meeting adopted a resolution to oppose Nationalism and to call upon the people of England and Scotland for help.

Mr. Parnell, in an interview on Tuesday in regard to Lord Randolph Churchill's Irish tour, said his visit was likely to end in smoke. It was not generally known that the proportion of Catholics to Protestants in Ulster was forty-nine to fifty-one. Lord Randolph was a most contemptible politician. He would have taken either side just as suited his purpose at the moment. He was virtually on the National side and against the Orangemen just before taking office. He was extremely unpopular with the Orangemen then. His militant orations may be summed up in one word—"talk." The Orangemen do not intend to fight. The last Orange demonstration in Ulster proved this. As soon as a few Orangemen were pricked with bayonets by a handful of policemen, all bolted. Lord Randolph, he added, was no more violent than was to be expected. Mr. Sexton, in an interview, said the speech rendered Lord Randolph impotent to affect English opinion. His position on the Irish question was one of bad faith. Everybody knew that if the elections had made Lord Salisbury independent of the Orange members, Lord Randolph would now have been engaged on a home rule bill.

The Irish party will hold a meeting at the Cannon Street Hotel, London, on St. Patrick's Day. Mr. Parnell will preside. The object of the meeting will be to issue to England the ultimatum of the Irish people concerning home rule. As the date selected for this event precedes by but five days the 22d of March, the date set by Mr. Gladstone for the commencement of the Government's work on Irish legislation, it is believed that the Nationalist leader means to force a crisis on the home-rule question. Mr. Parnell has also arranged to have his party hold fifty meetings throughout Ireland simultaneously with the one he will preside over.

Lord Tennyson has sent a despatch to Senator Hawley, thanking him for the stand he has taken on the subject of international copyright.

A committee of the French Chamber of Deputies on Friday, by a vote of ten to seven, rejected a proposal for the expulsion of the princes, and by eleven to six passed a motion giving the Ministry power to expel them if necessary.

Prince Jerome Napoleon (Plon-Plon) publishes a letter in Paris in which he protests against the proposed proscription of the French princes, and insists that such treatment would be unfair. The Bonapartists, he declares, were defenders of the Revolution. What the republic requires to increase its strength and prestige, he says, is reform of its methods of government. The expulsion of the princes would tend to the destruction of the republic. Prince Napoleon also takes occasion to criticise the manner in which the President is chosen. He says that the people should be allowed to elect their own Chief Magistrate, and that the method which gives the power of selection to the National Assembly should be abolished. The manifesto has created a sensation in Paris, and the press demand the expulsion of Plon-Plon.

A bill has been introduced in the French Chamber of Deputies to enable the city of Paris to raise a loan of 250,000,000 francs to be used in public works.

The Greek Ministers of War and Marine having threatened to resign unless war against Turkey was declared, owing to the popular eagerness for hostilities, the Powers sent a final note to Greece before blockading her fleet in Salamis Bay. The Sultan refused to grant any concessions to Greece.

The British Minister at Athens telegraphed on Tuesday that Greece had formally submitted, but Premier Delyannis will prepare a protest to the Powers that Greece submits only to *force majeure*. Mr. James Bryce, Under Foreign Secretary, said in the House of Commons on Tuesday night that the Government did not entertain the opinion that the present was a favorable time to approach the Sultan with a view to securing accession of territory to Greece. The statement was cheered by the Conservatives.

The Portuguese Ministry have resigned. The King has summoned the Progressists to form a new cabinet.

The Berlin *North German Gazette* (Bismarck's organ) says: "The prosecution is imminent of numerous Germans who style themselves doctors on the strength of diplomas purchased in America. There are 3,400 such doctors in Berlin alone."

RESPONSIBILITY IN THE NAVY DEPARTMENT.

THE plan of reorganizing the Navy Department outlined by Secretary Whitney in his annual report has been formulated in a bill now before the House Naval Committee. The favorable impression which we had formed of the plan makes us regret all the more to find introduced in it a most objectionable feature, the effect of which will be to increase the very evil which it is intended to obviate. This is a provision for a "Board of Council," to be composed of the chiefs of the several bureaus or departments, together with three officers of the navy to be appointed by the Secretary. In reading this section of the bill we feel as if meeting an old familiar face, which has appeared at our door from time to time with a modest tender of services, now in this capacity and now in that, ever since the abolition of the old Board of Navy Commissioners in 1842. In the hands of Mr. Herbert's committee the Board has thrown off its old modesty, and asks for nothing less than the decision of all questions of naval policy which the Secretary may submit to it. Its former tenders have been so varied in their character, and made under so many guises and aliases, as to leave the impression that it would be satisfied to perform almost any service, not positively menial, if it could only secure the much-coveted privilege of a footing in the Department.

At the first blush nothing could appear more reasonable or more natural than the organization of such a board. Secretary Whitney has himself taken pains to inform us that he knows very little about the workings of the complicated machinery which he has in charge, and that he deeply feels the need of sound professional advice. What better plan can be devised than that Congress should require him to choose three officers of rank and experience to join their powers to those of his chiefs of bureau, and thus enable him to substitute the combined wisdom of seven experts for his own inexperience? It seems almost cynical to hint that anything sinister can lurk under so prepossessing an exterior. But when we proceed to inquire more closely into the grounds for the board, we find a suspicious circumstance which no one has ever ventured to explain. It is that the proposed law only directs the Secretary to do what he already has ample power to do, and does actually do whenever he finds it necessary and practicable. He can of his own motion organize any kind of an advisory board he wants. He can to-morrow order his chiefs of bureau to form themselves into a board, just as other Secretaries have done in times past; and if he thinks that three other officers would be useful in the board, he can command their services without a word being said by Congress. Wise men look with distrust upon legislation to do that which is already done without legislation; and if Secretary Whitney ever lies awake o' nights, he can very profitably employ his thoughts during the still small hours in pondering over the question why he should want Congress to legislate him into the performance of a very simple duty. We would assist his meditations on this subject by first pointing out what will appear to be the strongest reasons in the affirmative, and then showing how insufficient they are.

There are certain passages in the Secretary's annual report which seem to point very strongly to the desirableness of such a board as that now in question. The case of the *Omaha*, which he there cites, is just to the point. This ship was surveyed at a navy-yard and found to need extensive repairs. The repairs were ordered as a matter of pure routine, without any searching inquiry into their advisability. Before they were finished they cost as much as the building of a new steel cruiser, and resulted in turning out a ship which "could neither fight nor run away from any cruiser built contemporaneously by any other nation." It is supposed that nothing of this kind could have occurred had the Secretary referred the matter to a competent board. And if asked why the Secretary does not avail himself of his existing power to refer the matter to a board whenever it arises, the answer would no doubt be, that such a board would not be invested with the responsibility of one ordered by law.

The fallacy of all this is shown by the fact that only two weeks ago Secretary Whitney himself put a far more effective plan into execution without impairing his own responsibility. It was reported to him that the *Juniata*, now lying at the Brooklyn Navy-yard, required a suspicious amount of repairing. Having the case of the *Omaha* in mind, he declined to approve the repairs as a matter of routine, and sent his constructor-in-chief to make a personal examination and report. The constructor performed this duty under a sense of personal responsibility to the head of his Department which a board could never be made to feel, and the result was a large reduction in the estimates for repairing the ship. It is quite safe to predict that the case of the *Juniata* will not be parallel to that of the *Omaha*. Yet the two Secretaries who brought about these results were equally unsophisticated in naval affairs, and worked with the same organization and with the same kind of men. The only difference is in the spirit which animated the two heads of the Department. Like master like man, is true from the President downward through every grade of the public service. When the master looks upon his department as a political machine, or runs it as a mere matter of routine, he gets one kind of service; and when he makes clear to his subordinates that their official heads depend upon their fidelity to the public interests, he gets a different kind of service from the same men.

The great objection to the proposed board is that it does away with the individual responsibility of each subordinate to his chief, and of the head of the Department to the public, and establishes a system under which no one person will be responsible for anything. It is Congress saying to the Secretary of the Navy: "We recognize the fact that you know nothing about naval affairs, and we therefore give you seven good men and true whom you will consult on all questions of naval policy, and who will give you the best attainable advice. You will have nothing to do but preside at their meetings and follow their counsel." Then when a new Secretary comes into office, he will find the board all ready to receive him and take care of him, and will be saved from all necessity of learning anything about such technical matters as ships and guns.

The Navy Department is the last one on which any such plan should be tried. It is the one in which class feeling and class interests are the strongest, and in which these interests are most apt to clash with those of the public. A majority of the seven members of the board will be officers of the line, which means that they will be under a moral and social pressure of the strongest kind to do all they can for the promotion of the interests of these officers as a class. The very fact that the public know so little about naval affairs makes this the easier to do, and at the same time makes it the more necessary that the Department should have a single responsible chief, incapable of being moved by the influences which are sure to surround him.

THE PROHIBITIONIST FALLACY

WE print elsewhere a letter from a Baltimore Prohibitionist touching the duty of the State toward liquor-dealers and manufacturers whose business is ruined by prohibitory legislation. The United States Circuit Court in Kansas has decided that they are entitled to compensation, and we think it right. But Mr. Lawrence Turnbull furnishes us with an elaborate analogical argument showing that they are entitled to nothing. Their claim, he says, is no better than that of manufacturers injured by changes in the tariff, or that of lottery-dealers whose business was in many States destroyed by prohibitory legislation, or that of gas companies damaged by the introduction of electric lights, or that of the owners of opium dens shut up by the police, or that of butchers ruined by the prohibition of butchering within city limits, and so on.

It is always extremely difficult to argue with a Prohibitionist on any topic connected, however remotely, with alcoholic drinks, because he will insist on assuming, what the great mass of civilized men resolutely refuse to concede, that the manufacture and consumption of intoxicating drinks, either in large or small quantities, is *per se* a crime, or an anti-social act which ought to cover its perpetrators with infamy. No matter how often and how solemnly you may warn him at the outset of the discussion that you will grant him nothing of the kind, and no matter how cheerfully he may promise not to argue from it, he is sure to work it in before long, either directly or indirectly, covertly or openly, as his minor premiss, and ask you, with an air of innocence, how it is you are opposed to the legalization of brothels when you do not object to the licensing of taverns, or why you are so fierce against murderers and robbers when you are so mild with men who sell whiskey to the fathers of families.

We believe we have more than once intimated to Mr. Turnbull that we cannot discuss prohibition with him on this basis, or on any basis which does not contain the admission that the moderate consumption of alcoholic drinks has been approved time out of mind by the great majority of the human race, and is

not now regarded as sinful or harmful by the majority of the wisest and best men of all civilized communities. But here he is at us again with his "opium den" and lottery illustration, and his criminal and "guilty" and "inhuman" and "unpatriotic" distillers, brewers, and dealers; and wants to know how it is we do not agree that the total destruction of their property without any compensation would be "less than exact justice for them," and why we wish to see them taken better care of than the people whose business is incidentally injured or ruined by legislation.

Well, the reason is, briefly stated, this—that in the cases Mr. Turnbull mentions, such as the gas companies injured by the electric light, the manufacturer injured by the tariff, and the butcher by his exclusion from the city limits, the loss is caused by an improvement effected, with or without the aid of the State, in the very business in which the sufferers are engaged. Gas companies suffer from electricity because electricity gives a better light; the manufacturer suffers because the lowering of the tariff gives the consumer his goods at a lower rate; the butcher suffers that his customers may have better meat; the stage-owner, to use an illustration of our own, because the railroad furnishes better transportation. In almost every case in which incidental injury is inflicted on property by legislation, the injury is due to the recognition or support by the Legislature of some better way, some way more conducive to public safety and comfort, of doing the business in which the injured property-holders are already engaged. For this every rational man who goes into a business of any kind must be and is prepared. The introduction by others of improvements on his processes, which may ruin him, is one of the risks of his calling which he always has in mind. But for the prohibition of his business as a public nuisance he is not prepared, and ought not to have to be prepared, and against this risk the Constitution protects him.

Now, applying this rule to the Kansas distillers and brewers, and warning Mr. Turnbull that we will not submit to having them treated as notorious criminals, for whom total confiscation is even leniency, what do we find? Why, that a business which has been carried on from time immemorial, with the approval of all civilized communities, and with the full sanction and protection of the law in this one, and in which large amounts of capital have been invested, is suddenly and directly stopped by law. The law does not injure the brewer or distiller "incidentally," by encouraging some better mode of making beer or whiskey, or by encouraging the production of some equally attractive and more wholesome drink. It simply tells them that the State has come to the conclusion that their trade is injurious and must cease, and offers no compensation for the deception caused by the long period of State approval. Nothing of this kind has ever been done to any other calling pursued through long periods with general approval and believed by the bulk of Christendom to be in itself harmless. The State may have a right to change its mind suddenly about any man's lawful business, and prohibit it, but it has no right to change it at his expense, and cannot escape its responsibility to him by calling him names or telling him ruin is too good for him.

HOW THE FASHIONS ARE STARTED.

Everybody knows how powerful is the influence of fashion in matters of dress; how rapidly an article which has ceased to be fashionable gets to look odd and even ugly in the eyes not only of fashionable people, but of people who care little or nothing about the fashions; and how surely, even if slowly, a decided change in fashion forces its way even among the humblest and most secluded. When trousers came in as a substitute for breeches they exposed the wearers to the utmost ridicule, but they not only held their own in the fashionable circles in which they first appeared, but finally drove the breeches out of the remotest hamlets and farm-houses, and a man in breeches, until the recent knicker bocker revival, felt very foolish or bashful. Courts have until lately always been the primal source of fashion. The dressiest king or queen in the leading court—that of France until lately—showed the dressy people of the world what they ought to wear every season, by wearing it, though its material and make-up were doubtless always settled in consultation with or on the suggestion of a tailor or dressmaker. The French court never since the Revolution exercised such an influence on female fashions as during the Empress Eugénie's short reign. She loved dress, and spent enormous sums on it, and under her there arose that new and striking social phenomenon, the male dressmaker, who tells women what will suit them and gets it ready for them. Since her dethronement, dressmakers and tailors in Paris have been thrown on their own resources, having no official personage to try their devices on. President Grévy hardly cares what he wears more than President Lincoln cared, and somewhat the same thing may be said of his wife. As regards the leading politicians in France, it may be said in general terms that they are considered in the Paris clubs to be among the worst dressed men in the world nowadays.

In England the Prince of Wales has been for the last twenty-five years the great promulgator of fashions for men and the Princess for women, and he has succeeded in some degree in bringing Frenchmen within his jurisdiction. English fashions are, in fact, more or less "the rage" among the pleasure-seeking portion of French society, which cultivates monarchical traditions and "le sport." But the French tailors and dressmakers do not succumb to any foreign influence, and still try valiantly to maintain the old French influence in matters of dress. A writer in the *Temps* has recently been giving an interesting account of how they do it. The leading tailors in Paris appoint a committee every season, whose duty it is to get up a "fashion plate," and this settles, both for the Parisian tailors and those of the provinces, what changes are to be made in men's clothes for that season. But the dressmakers in Paris have no organization like that of the tailors, and do not meet and provide fashions through a committee. Nevertheless every season witnesses the most startling changes both in the material and the cut and the ornamentation of women's clothes—changes far more complicated and difficult than any which take place in those of the men.

Under the Empire a fashion was started by trying a dress on the Empress, or one of her immediate circle, the Princesse de Metternich, or the Duchesse de Morny, the Maréchale d'Albuféra, or the Comtesse de Hon, at a ball or a court reception. If it was liked, it set the fashion for the season, and the court ladies wore it as a sort of livery. Nowadays the same thing is done through a circle of about twenty fashionable women, who employ the same dressmaker and meet in his "salon d'essayage." They are of all parties: Legitimists of the Faubourg, Imperialists, Orleanists—in fact, a little of everything except Republicans—and they sink their differences when they meet at the dressmaker's, to discuss his proposals. What they adopt carries the season. Occasionally they succumb a little to the influence of foreign courts; for instance, it is announced that orange is to be the dominating color in female toilettes during the coming season, owing to the fancy for it felt by a Russian princess of the blood. And the soft woollen stuffs which French women have been lately wearing are an importation from England, started by the Princess of Wales to encourage the suffering woollen industries of the North.

The fashion once set in this way, its diffusion among all classes and conditions of women now takes place with a rapidity formerly unknown. This is done through the intervention of the great stores, known as "Magasins de Nouveautés." A dress, for instance, has been approved of and worn by a well-known fashionable woman. All her set soon get the same thing. The society papers describe it and the smaller dressmakers of the capital copy it, and it makes its way among the dressy well-to-do people of lower social grades. But this, after all, carries it but a very small distance. It has to penetrate to every town and hamlet in France, and be seen within six months on every shop-girl, and maid-servant, and seamstress, and even peasant girl in the more populous districts. This is brought about by the Magasins de Nouveautés, which, when a dress is once fairly in vogue, order from the manufacturers immense quantities of stuff resembling it, but at about half the price, and the manufacturers supply it often at a loss, fearing to lose other orders. Copies of the dress are then turned out in such numbers and at such prices that every woman who cares for "the mode" soon has one, at a cost which a sewing-girl can afford. By the time this comes to pass, we need hardly say, the women of the world have dropped it.

MISERY, DISCONTENT, AND AGITATION IN ITALY.

Lendinara, January 4, 1886.

It is generally held that a revolution to effect a change of government would be fatal to the interests, probably to the very existence, of this country. Yet with such we are threatened, not by organized socialists or conscientious republicans, but by misery such as I verily believe does not exist anywhere else on the face of the civilized globe. The poorest class of workmen in the cities are badly enough off, but a roof over their heads, a pavement under their feet, and wooden

or stone walls around, they do find, albeit the overcrowding is fearful, viewed from the point of health, decency, and morals. But if you go to the outskirts of any town or city in Tuscany or the Marches, where the division-of-profits (*métayer*) system exists, you will find numberless families crouching together on the bare muddy soil, with Indian-corn canes for all wall and roof. Some few of these hovels have a brick chimney, others no fireplace at all. When you inquire what is the food of the family, you will find that it consists solely of *polenta* (Indian meal), often of very inferior quality, or damaged by damp and mildew. The water, drawn from the nearest ditch, full of animal and vegetable matter, is not only hurtful to the health generally, but, combined with *polenta*, produces the fearful disease known here as *pellagra*. Statistics have been compiled, inquiries made, fierce discussions held as to the origin of this comparatively new and awful scourge. I can pretend to throw no new scientific light upon the subject, but from minute researches extended over various provinces, in one case for ten years, I can affirm that I have never seen man, woman, or child affected with *pellagra* (save in the case of hereditary disease) without finding that the patient had been living exclusively on *polenta* and water, good, bad, and indifferent. Asked by a friend of mine, a member of Parliament, to assist him in collecting information for a new code of health for the rural districts, I accepted those of Venetia, Padua, and the Polesine, and, as far as *pellagra* went, every new inspection confirmed the *polenta* theory. As for the dwellings, "from bad to worse" must be the verdict. In the outskirts, and even within large cities such as Adria, I found Naples in miniature, minus the underground grottoes: two, three, and even four families stived in a room, six and even eight in a hovel; no drains of any sort; human and animal filth accumulated at the door; scrofula, consumption, asthma prevailing, and records of annual diphtheria and smallpox. But where the use of wheaten or rye bread prevailed, or, as in some parts of Venetia, barley-and-rice soup, *pellagra* was absent; and when you remember that those affected by this fell scourge go through every form of madness—melancholy, imbecility, idiocy to raving lunacy—it will be understood that exemption from *pellagra* almost sounds like health.

As the friend—a medical man—at whose request I had undertaken the tour was extremely anxious on this head, we revisited together most of those places where *pellagra* specially prevailed. One set of cases struck him especially. Dropping down (literally) from a broad, white, high road along one of the embankments of the Adige, we came upon some hovels scooped out just below and brought forward on the level. There were no pavements, but the walls were of bricks and the roofs tiled. The *medico-condotto*—that is, the parish doctor who accompanied us—told the story of each family. He was at that moment in search of the wife of the landlord, if such a dignified name can be given to the owner of the hovels, and, as no one could find her, it was supposed she had drowned herself, having attempted this every time she had been removed from the lunatic hospital at Venice: the husband himself and the children were all *pellagrosi*. In another house there were two idiot children who had inherited *pellagra;* in another an old man lay, not mad enough to be sent to the hospital, nor yet sane enough to be allowed to go out to beg alone, in sad contrast to his healthy young son, a conscript just returned for a holiday! All these people that I have mentioned lived exclusively upon *polenta;* there was but one healthy family in the row, consisting of a husband and wife and five children of various ages, and it turned out that the father of these was a fisherman, who told us that he and his boy, obliged to stand in the water every morning, drank a "dram" (which you must understand is about a halfpenny worth of *sciampagnin*, a horrible concoction, but distilled, I believe, from the very rags of the grape-skins). Then they told us that they ate up all the fish they couldn't sell. So, considering that every other surrounding of misery, dirt, and nakedness was alike, as these alone were exempt from *pellagra*, here is another piece of strong circumstantial evidence that *polenta* is the guilty party.

Another decided proof of the fatal effects of exclusive living on Indian meal may be deduced from the fact that in all the hospitals where the doctors are allowed to treat their patients as they choose, "regardless of expense," they simply put them on a diet of meat, raw or very slightly cooked, white wheaten bread, and a certain amount of spirits or good red wine or Marsala; and invariably, when the case has not reached the last stage of lunacy, in a few months, and often in a few weeks, the patient recovers, to relapse again as soon as he returns to the old régime. In one commune that came under my knowledge, the doctor, a rough-and-ready sort of fellow, tired of the constant grumblings of the municipal authorities every time he went to them for an order for a patient to go to the hospital (the daily cost of each person being about a franc), made them an offer to send no more patients to the hospital (save those too far gone at that moment to be treated at home) if they would undertake to allow him to supply common wine and white bread (for there was no butcher in the town) to those in the first and second stage. The authorities agreed, and the plan has succeeded perfectly—the doctor, whose parish is not a large one, seeing himself that the patients in question do eat the bread and drink the wine themselves. If further proofs be wanting, they may be found in the fact that after the inundations of 1882 *pellagra* decreased at least fifty per cent., because the poor inhabitants, though compelled to live in their damp and tumble-down dwellings, were fed on soup, white bread, and meat twice a week during the four winter months.

Now, I am treating of general misery and of this special form of it in normal times and seasons, when, saving two months in the year, the agricultural populations can reckon on earning eightpence a day a man, sixpence a day a woman, fourpence a child (women and children, though, are only used for hoeing, weeding, plucking corncobs, grapes, and tending silk-worms in the mulberry districts). But take such an exceptional season as this: before all the corn could be sown heavy rains set in, then snow, then thaw, then snow followed by frost, and then snow once more. With the exception of chopping wood, no work has been done in these northern fields since a week before Christmas Day. Such slight jobs as could be done are performed by the ploughmen and herdsmen resident on the soil. Though these are by no means in an enviable position, still they have a house over their heads, and a certain portion of wood, maize, and wheat is allowed them; but the day laborers who live from hand to mouth, what can they have been living on for the last six weeks? Savings they cannot have possibly; work cannot be performed, out-door relief there is none—only in the very large towns are there soup kitchens, and these rarely gratuitous. Monks and friars have been stripped of their possessions, there is no State charity and precious little private; therefore, in order to live, these multitudes must either go daily from house to house begging for scraps of broken food, or they must steal, and the fact is they manage to keep body and soul together by a judicious combination of both systems. But perhaps some one will ask, Are there not such things as congregations of charity? There are such, but they are a disgrace to the name even as are the so-called Monti di Pietà, or pawn-shops. I have examined their accounts, being authorized to do so, and have felt shame that wealthy municipalities should assign such a miserable pittance to be doled out by unwilling distributors; and these small sums, after all, even if properly distributed, only reach poverty-stricken widows or young and helpless orphans. How, then, can any one be surprised that crime is not only on the increase, but that Italy carries off the unenviable palm of standing first on the crime-list after Spain in Europe? Often and often when visiting the Neapolitan prisons of Naples, on finding the same prisoner in the same ward after an interval in which I knew he had been released, the same answer to my question, "What have you been and gone and done again?" has been proffered: "Ho fatto una piccola mancanza tanto da dormire e mangiare" (I have committed a very little fault just to eat and sleep). So I suspect do others than Neapolitans during these hard times, but these are only the very poorest and the most ignorant.

Englishmen have often said to me, "Why don't your people do as we do, agitate and agitate and agitate until they get the vote and can then make their own laws?" and most surprised they are to learn that fifty per cent. of those who possess the vote don't use it. Nor is this abstention confined to the clerical party, for, if the truth be known, the Catholics do vote under the rose, nor has Leo XIII. taken any special measures to prevent them; on the contrary, his attitude seems to be, "Vote where you please as long as you vote for the right persons; only don't ask me to sanction your so doing." It is the working classes and peasants who don't take the trouble to go to the urn, who say, "Whether Tom, Dick, or Harry is elected deputy, whether the Liberal, Retrograde, or Moderate party are in a majority, I find no difference either in the amount of taxes I pay, or in the protection I get from the police—which is none at all—or in the administration of justice, if ever I have the ill-luck to need it. By going and voting I only make enemies, for it is nonsense talking about the vote being secret: everybody knows how everybody votes, and you can't please everybody, let alone yourself." These convictions are so deep-seated that no reasoning or persuasion can alter them. Only on special occasions, when the populace has been wrought up to an unusual degree of wrath, can you get such a vote as was given to Professor Sbarbaro lately in one of the quietest, most highly cultured cities of Italy, Pavia. There, "just to spite Depretis," who was supposed—and the suspicions are grounded on many precedents—to have secured the absolution of the most fraudulent bankrupt that the Italians have known, and the severe punishment of a half-cracked professor (who showed up the minister's young wife and the wife of another minister, both of whom make and meddle too much in politics), over nine thousand votes were given to the said professor, then in prison for libel. He was duly elected, and immediately released, and has now taken his seat in the Chambers.

The reason that lies at the bottom of contempt for parliamentary institutions may be found in the fact that Parliament passes no laws which people care about in their daily life. Were an Italian Dickens to arise, certainly his first theme would be the Italian Parliament, which has outdone any Anglo-Saxon institution in the art of "how not to do it." With all the gaunt misery which I only hint at and don't attempt to describe, just imagine that not one single act of Parliament has been passed to better the condition of the absolutely poor or the working classes, not even to "give unto the poor that which is

his." Twenty-five years ago the reform of charitable institutions was promised, and their wealth is far more than enough to open hospitals for the *pellagrosi*, and to enable the communes to feed such as may yet be saved, to create orphanages, alms-houses, and places for the absolutely destitute who are too ill or too old to work; to open industrial schools, really popular loan banks, to assist mechanics and small farmers whom a little capital would save—to do everything, in short, that is necessary to alleviate the inevitable suffering created by the sins of omission and commission of the whole community, and to give such moral training and technical education as shall render it impossible for future generations to show such a hideous list of crime and of misery.

A law which weighs most hardly upon the poorer classes, and which was pointed out as a crying abuse in the good old days of Cavourian Piedmont, is the law that allows a stupid or revengeful policeman or prætor or magistrate, or who not, to cast a man, woman, or child in prison, to keep him there weeks, months, and years without ever bringing him to trial, very often without his knowing what he is accused of. There are at the present moment, according to the latest statistics, taken previous to the agrarian agitation, 20,000 untried prisoners in the various parts of Italy; you may be quite sure that not more than half, if so many, will ever see the inside of a court of justice. Now, apart from the injury and injustice done to these people and their families, it should be noted that each individual costs the state a franc per day, without, of course, calculating the expense of prisons, jailers, and the ordinary outputs of such establishments. So another seven millions goes in wasteful cruelty. This system of preventive imprisonment was to have been abolished in 1860, but it suits Government and often private individuals to get persons put away "for a convenient season"; and as ministers and authorities are irresponsible, no action can be brought for false imprisonment by the unfortunate victims when they are set at large.

At the present moment two political trials are creating considerable sensation. The first is being held at Rome, eight individuals being there on trial for a "republican conspiracy." Now the authors, one very old and one very young man, Count Marini and Francesco Albini, are two of the most harmless mortals imaginable, but aggravated by the present state of things; and, a paper in which they wrote having been suppressed, they took to the old system of conspiracy, made plans of prisons in order to liberate the *future* members of the Universal Republican Alliance, and distributed inflammatory pamphlets in the barracks. Only one thing prevented their transforming monarchical into republican Italy, and that was that they could not get a single person of note, even among the "Puritans," to listen to their silly schemes. When such people as Aurelio Saffi, the old Roman triumvir, the stanch and devoted disciple of Mazzini, with his band of enthusiastic followers, will have nothing to do with secret conspiracies, but maintain that the republic will come of its own accord when the majority want it, you may be quite sure that the throne and Constitution are in no danger. If, on the discovery of the inflammatory proclamations, the authors had been arrested, tried, and punished, no one would have felt any interest in them save compassion for their absurdity, while every one admits that a crime it is and will remain to conspire for the *forcible* overthrow of a Government established by popular will. But you see these eight men, of whom only two are concerned in the plot, have already suffered a year's imprisonment, and hence are regarded as victims.

A far more serious trial comes on in Venice, and that is of the supposed chiefs of the agricultural agitation in Mantua and Verona. If your readers can call to mind Mr. Arch's career from the time when he was considered the chief of the peasants' rebellion to the present, they will understand what these twenty to forty men have been *hoping to begin to do*, namely, by combination to raise the scale of agricultural wages, without having, poor souls, the slightest notion how to set about it. First, they had no funds, but they held a few meetings, talked very fiercely about their misery, wrote some fierce articles in two newspapers unknown to fame, advised all the peasants who listened to them not to work for less than a certain sum of wages, and threw out hints that there would be fresh strikes at reaping time. I must add that the revolutionary work distributed by the leaders was Mazzini's 'Duties of Man,' which evidently the public prosecutor has never read, or assuredly never would have included it in his "acts of accusation." Be that as it may, syndics, proprietors, prefects, commanders of military corps, heads of police, met in council to devise some means of averting the awful catastrophe threatening property and the state. Of course all the culprits and their suspected accomplices were seized, handcuffed, and thrust into prison. Several hundreds were arrested, but, no fault being found against them, and it being impossible to invent one, by degrees they have been let out, and in the course of a year (for it is a year also since these preventive arrests were made) the numbers have dwindled down for the Mantuan province to about twenty-two, for the Venetian to about ten. This trial is indeed creating great excitement, the absurd "act of accusation" being published by all the newspapers. In any other land than Italy every one of the accused would be absolved, but here it is still a crime, punishable with two years of imprisonment, to concert in order to raise the price of wages unless it be proved that such rise is necessary. Now, as all who are called upon "to prove" are paymasters, the poor men may come badly off. This calamity is due, like the rest, to the failure of members of Parliament and successive governments to abolish the present law on strikes and to substitute a fair one of masters and men. Can you wonder, therefore, that in a large meeting of workingmen delegates held at Mantua, it was decided unanimously that workingmen should keep clear of all political parties, and carry on their work of resistance and emancipation on their own account, and without any interference or assistance from Government? J. W. M.

Correspondence.

INDEMNITY FOR PROHIBITION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The principle underlying Judge Brewer's recent decision in the United States Circuit Court at Topeka, Kan., that the State is bound to indemnify individuals for losses resulting from the passage of a prohibitory law, which is so thoroughly endorsed by the *Nation* in its last issue, is, at first sight, an equitable one; but if examined closely, it will, I think, be found to be entirely too broad for any consistent, equitable, or practicable application.

The principle is that if the State practically, though not actually, confiscates private property through any legislation for the public safety, or advantage, or convenience, it is in all cases bound to make reparation to the individual the value of whose property has been thereby depreciated or destroyed. Is this principle sound either in morals or economics? And *does* its violation amount to "legalized robbery by society in its organized capacity"?

It is admitted that if the State *actually* takes and uses or destroys the property of an individual for the public benefit, as when a dwelling is demolished to make room for a street or other public improvement, the individual is to be indemnified. But where the injury is consequential, and not direct, it is impossible to lay down any rule of compensation that is equitable and at the same time practicable. In morals, no distinction can fairly be drawn between prohibitory legislation, so called (though all law is prohibitory in some aspect), and merely regulative legislation, which has the same effect in destroying the values of private property. A few changes in the tariff would as certainly destroy the value of certain manufacturing plants and industries as an enforced prohibitory law would destroy the value of breweries and distilleries. In the one case, as in the other, the public good is the motive and the justification of the law—the destruction of private property values only an incidental, but an inevitable, result; and in the majority of cases it is not a result of which the Legislature or the courts are bound in morals to take any cognizance. Society in its corporate capacity has never entered into any contract with the individuals composing it to maintain all economic and social conditions unchanged, so that private property rights may remain unimpaired; and it violates no principle of justice in its constant legislation, which is all the while practically confiscating the property of some individuals, so long as the legislation is honestly designed for the public good, and is carefully considered, and the injury which results is inevitable and indirect. The Emancipation Proclamation destroyed at one stroke untold millions of property; but though in this case the injury was direct, it was never proposed by the advocates of abolition to compensate the owners of slaves, even in the loyal States, or where the owner was loyal. The laws suppressing lotteries, which were once legal in several of the States, bore disastrously on many individuals, but no one suggested that the State should make good their losses. The *Nation* probably approves the prohibition of opium dens, but I should be surprised to learn that it had recommended that the worthy proprietors of these establishments should be reimbursed their sunk capital.

The legislation which authorizes the building of railroads throughout the country in every instance destroys or greatly impairs the value of vast amounts of private property by changing the channels of trade. The city ordinances requiring the use of electric lights depress gas stocks. The prohibition of butchering within municipal limits has ruined many a butcher. A law, such as has been proposed, requiring cattle to be carried in a certain class of cars, would destroy an immense capital invested in the present transportation trade. Similar cases are almost innumerable; but there is no practical remedy for private losses brought about in this way, and the victims have to content themselves with their individual share in the benefits which result, or are supposed to result, to the public from the legislation which works such havoc with their property interests.

If the principle approved by the *Nation* was to be allowed, how could it be equitably and consistently applied? If the brewers and distillers are to be compensated for losses, so must be all the dealers in drink, wholesale and retail, all the hop, rye, wheat, and barley farmers, all the machinists, the coopers, and the various subordinate industries which depend upon the death-dealing trade. And if all these are to be indemnified, why not the lottery merchants, the opium venders, the owners of disused turnpikes, and of depreciated gas stocks, and of railroad stock ruined by competing lines authorized by the Legislature; and all

the thousand and one industries destroyed or depressed by the shifting of trade resulting from changes in the law?

If any individuals are to be excepted from this law of compensation, surely those who are engaged in the drink traffic should be. They will meet with much less than exact justice if the whole value of their property is destroyed. They have, through public indifference, been allowed to engage in a trade which is fearfully injurious to society, and which has entailed incalculable loss upon every individual in the State; estimating by the lowest standard, the money value, this trade has inflicted upon the State a destruction of values far, immeasurably far, in excess of any possible loss which will be visited upon the victims of a prohibitory law. They have engaged in this trade, not in ignorance, but with a full knowledge of its deadly character; no considerations of patriotism or humanity have restrained them from their war upon society. The State has tolerated them, and has, thus far, been a partner in their guilt; it has, however, been sufficiently punished already by the results of the trade, and is not, in justice, to be further mulcted, that its enemies may go scot free.

In this connection it must be remembered that the *whole* of society has not tolerated these social pests; but a large minority has always fought them with all the means at command. This trade has never respected the protests of this minority; and now that this minority is slowly growing into the majority there is no sense or justice in asking them to indemnify their foes, whom they have so fairly warned that they would destroy them, when they once obtained the power. If society turns upon them and rends them, it is only doing unto them as they have done unto society. The whole trade now defies the law wherever it has been passed, though it has all the sanction that any other law has, namely, the will of the majority expressed through the ordained channels. If, according to the fine-spun theory of Judge Brewer, they ever had a right to indemnity, the majority of liquor-dealers and manufacturers in the prohibitory States have lost it by their violation of the law.—Respectfully,

LAWRENCE TURNBULL.

BALTIMORE, February 1, 1886.

THE MARYLAND APPOINTMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your Baltimore letter reminds one of the man who called on Hercules, instead of putting his own shoulder to the wheel. If the people of Maryland find fault with the appointment of Higgins and Rasin, they have none but themselves to thank for these obnoxious persons. The appointment of Higgins was recommended by all the Maryland delegation in Congress with one exception. If citizens of that State insist upon sending to Congress persons in whose statements no confidence can be placed, they must expect to suffer for it. To blame the President for every appointment is unreasonable. He has important and responsible duties to perform, the discharge of which occupies his whole time. No President has ever given closer or more conscientious attention to them than Cleveland. Of necessity, he has to leave the selection of persons to fill the minor Government offices to his Cabinet officers and subordinates. They, in their turn, cannot be expected personally to know every person appointed, and they must rely upon somebody's advice. Upon whose advice can they rely more naturally and properly than upon that of their own party associates? The idea seems to be that the Administration has nothing to do but make appointments. It came into office, however, not only with pledges as to civil-service reform, but with pledges to do all in its power to revise the tariff and suspend the coinage of silver. Both these are matters of the utmost importance to the welfare of the country, and, in fact, deserve a great deal more attention than they have received.

Your correspondent complains that elections in Maryland are carried by fraud. It is very easy to assert this; but if it be true, as very likely it is, why not prove it in the courts? Tilden won his first laurels as a reformer by vindicating in court the title of Azariah C. Flagg to the office of Comptroller of the State of New York, in the face of fraudulent returns. When the Tweed Ring became unbearable, our people rallied and drove it from power. If your correspondent should say that the judges in Maryland cannot be relied upon to administer justice impartially, the same remedy is open that was open to us when we suffered from Barnard, Cardozo, and McCunn. The Bar Association was formed; it united in pressing proceedings for the impeachment of the obnoxious judges; money was raised by subscription to defray the expenses of the proceedings, and the result was absolute success. Fraud cannot be successfully concealed if it is opposed by vigilance and persistent courage.

Many people seem to think that the President of the United States is as absolute as a Turkish Pasha, and as powerful as omnipotence. If they would only remember that this is a popular government, that the representatives of the people ought certainly to have some voice in its administration, and that the Executive ought certainly to be able to rely to some extent upon their statements, the critics would be a little more moderate in their expressions. To be sure, parties in this country have done little else for ten years but fight over patronage and talk about obsolete questions. But a party has a higher function than this, and the Administration deserves praise, not blame, for devoting part of its time to the revenue and currency of the country. CIVIL-SERVICE-REFORM DEMOCRAT.

NEW YORK, February 20, 1886.

FOREIGN METHODS OF CUSTOMS VALUATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The investigation of undervaluations by the Senate Sub-Committee on Finance at the New York Custom-house brings the matter into such prominence that a brief description of the methods employed in France and Germany may perhaps be of value.

In both countries the object of the customs laws is, by a detailed enumeration in the laws themselves of the objects on which duties shall be imposed, and of the rates of those duties, to reduce the discretion of the customs officers within the narrowest possible limits. To do this, specific duties have been adopted wherever possible. But in a complicated customs law, which imposes duties on a great variety of objects, it is, of course, impossible to exclude altogether ad-valorem duties, in which case alone this question of undervaluation can come up. Where ad-valorem duties are thus unavoidable, the French system is as follows: The declaration or entry of the importer is to be taken as the valuation on which the duty is to be assessed. If, however, the customs officers believe that there has been an undervaluation, they have the right to take the goods themselves at the valuation given by the importer, with an additional five per cent.; and, after paying such sum, to sell them for the benefit of the Government. (L. 4. Floréal an IV. and L. July 2, 1836). This is certainly an efficient means of preventing undervaluation, but in many cases may work injustice to the importer, and may result in loss to the Government, as goods will not often, at a forced sale, bring a fair price.

The German method is not so simple or so arbitrary. The law governing the matter is the old German Customs-Union law of the first of July, 1869 ('Bundesgesetzblatt des Norddeutschen Bundes 1869,' p. 317, No. 30). This was adopted as the law of the present Empire by Article 40 of the present Constitution. Section 93 of this law treats of valuations for the assessment of ad-valorem duties. Here, as will be seen, the French law has been copied, but important modifications have been made. The declaration or entry of the importer, which he is obliged by the law to make, is to be the basis of the valuation on which the duties are to be assessed. If the customs officers consider such declared valuation to be too low, they have the same right as in the French law —*i. e.*, they may take the goods at the declared valuation, with an additional five per cent., and, after paying such sum to the importer, may sell them for the benefit of the Government. But both the customs officers and the importer may, if they prefer, ask to have an appraisement made of the goods by experts. Of these there are to be two, one to be designated by the importer, the other by the local customs officer. If these two experts cannot agree, they are to appoint an umpire. If they cannot agree in the appointment of such umpire, he is to be appointed by the President of the Court of Commerce, or, where there is none in the locality, by the presiding judge of the civil court of first instance. Now if the decision reached by these experts shows that the actual value of the goods does not exceed by five per cent. the declared valuation, the duties are to be assessed on such declared valuation, and the costs of the appraisement are to be paid by the customs office. If, however, the appraised value does exceed the declared value by at least five per cent., the customs officers may make use of their right of purchasing the goods at the declared value with an additional five per cent., or may assess the duties on the appraised valuation; while if the appraised valuation exceeds the declared valuation by *ten* per cent., the rate of the duties to be assessed is to be increased fifty per cent. In both these cases the importer is to pay the costs of the appraisement.

By this method of ascertaining valuations the rights of both the Government and the importer are protected. Both are represented in the tribunal making the appraisement, and both will hesitate before calling for such an appraisement on account of the costs which the losing party must pay. Further, the procedure is very simple; there is no appeal; and the result will in all probability be more satisfactory than it would be were the appraisal made simply by Government officers, either alone or in conjunction with merchant appraisers selected by the Government, as ours are now. For in this case the tendency will always be to favor the Government at the expense of the individual. This is always so where such questions are decided by professional officers. Again, with the salaries now paid to our examiners, who are the only responsible appraising officers that inspect the goods, it is impossible to obtain men capable of determining the real value.

Secretary Manning says, in his report on the "collection of duties," that the buyers of the large importing and jobbing houses in New York "receive twice or even three times as much as is the range of salaries paid to examiners in the New York Custom-house who examine similar articles." (Report, page 22.) By the German method, on the contrary, persons of expert knowledge make the appraisement. These could readily be obtained by our system, which, in theory at least, makes service as a merchant appraiser, like service on the jury, obligatory, and allows one appointed to act in such a capacity to get rid of

this duty only by the payment of a fine.—I am, yours respectfully, FRANK J. GOODNOW.

COLUMBIA COLLEGE, NEW YORK, February 13, 1886.

THE SILVER SITUATION IN A NUTSHELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As I understand the situation, the Government has vast accumulations of silver dollars for which there is practically no demand, and therefore is in the position of a manufacturer who has an overwhelming stock of goods on hand for which he finds no demand. I understand, too, that the silver States and Territories shun the buzzard dollar as the Republicans say the Democrats do soap and water. I further understand that these same silver-producing regions are the most eager to force the Government to buy more silver (raw material) and coin more dollars (manufactured product), and that in their efforts they have many able helpers, Senator Beck, for instance.

If the above statements are substantially correct, there can be no argument which will lead a business man to fall in with any party asking the Government to continue the coinage of the silver dollar. His first impulse (and it would be reinforced by his most mature conclusions) would be to stop the coinage, and of course to stop the purchase of any more silver bullion. We always have the raw material (silver bullion) in the open market, and the machinery in the mints; and if ever the people want more silver dollars, they can be turned out on a week's notice.

Would Senator Beck do differently in his own business? Suppose the Senator had been for years buying $4,000 worth of leaf tobacco monthly, to turn it into plugs for chewing. Suppose there had been little or no demand for the plugs, and that all his warehouses, barns, sheds, and other storage were choked with bales, bags, kegs, and barrels of plug tobacco. Would he go right on buying the leaf tobacco? Suppose a lot of politicians and tobacco-leaf growers should call upon him, wrap him up in an American flag, and beseech him to go on in the glorious work of making plug tobacco (while they worked their own teeth exclusively on chewing-gum). Would he be likely to do so? Why should the Government manage its affairs with less sense and judgment than Senator Beck does his? Why should Mr. Beck demand that it should?

It seems to me, as it must to most level-headed business men, to be the clear duty of Congress not only to stop the coinage of silver dollars, but to melt down into silver bullion a large part of them now on hand, sell the bullion, and put the proceeds back into the Treasury, charging the loss to the nation's experience account.

Respectfully, MANUFACTURER.

MANSFIELD, OHIO, February, 1886.

THE POLICY OF YALE AND HARVARD: A COMPARISON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Toward the end of the last century Dugald Stewart thus characterized the unprogressive tendencies of certain European universities: They are ". . . not without interest to the historian of the human mind. Immovably moored to the same station by the strength of their cables and the weight of their anchors, they enable him to measure the rapidity of the current by which the rest of the world is borne along."

I have recently attempted to estimate, by comparison, the rapidity of the modern educational current which has carried Harvard to the position of a first-class university—with no small sense of shame, as a graduate of Yale, that it should stand as the representative of that stationary buoy which marks the spot from which the rival college has been wafted forward by the winds of progress. Till 1865 these colleges were almost equal in undergraduates, in the faculties, in graduate students, in popularity, prestige, and influence. In all of these respects Harvard has since distanced its more conservative competitor.

It is but a weak and ignorant criticism that complains of faults, with no effort to display their causes and suggest their appropriate cures. In the present case, the question of cause is mostly a question of differential comparison. In 1865 there was little practical difference between the two colleges, either of government or of instruction. Theoretically more liberal with regard to elective studies, Harvard was at that time too poor to develop the system to practical maturity. So far as location is concerned, the advantage was, and always will be, on the side of Yale. The freedom from the proximity of a great and wicked city, the more cosmopolitan tone of the students, and the accessibility to the American metropolis, are positive advantages which will always weigh in the estimation of parents and guardians. But, in spite of such natural superiority, the administration of Yale College has been unequal to the task of developing a policy which will suffice to keep her abreast of the times. Its apologists call this policy a "safe conservatism"; but when the spell of after-dinner eulogy has passed away, it becomes patent that our college has indeed been preserved, and this is all.

The first great change accomplished at Harvard coincides exactly with the beginning of its progressive era. It had already, in 1810, shaken off the obsolete system of college government under which Yale persisted till 1872, and in 1851 it became no longer necessary that certain clergymen and others should sit among the overseers, to which body they were summoned *ex officio*, with no reference to the duties they were supposed to perform. But in 1865 the graduates were invited to choose the entire Board of Overseers. The results of this policy have fully justified its adoption. Thirty gentlemen of distinction, influence, and ability are now the custodians of the College trusts, and responsible for their administration. Under their management the University has displayed a progress unparalleled in the history of modern education, and the necessary funds have flowed in freely from the alumni whose representatives they are.

Yale's policy has been just the opposite. In the year of grace 1885 the influence of the Yale alumni in the election of a feeble minority of the Corporation has been denounced by the College treasurer as "inexpedient," and the display of interest in a recent election has led to its characterization as an "unseemly contest." He would have us understand that the graduates are the "beneficiaries" of the College, not its founders nor even its supporters. They have no claim to any voice in its management. In this respect Yale is where Harvard was in 1851.

The second cause which has determined the progress of Harvard is the great extension of optional studies which has taken place under the administration of President Eliot. It is not my purpose to enter into any argument of the merits of the optional system. It has existed at Harvard for forty-five years, during the last fifteen of which it has had broad extension and thorough trial. Facts speak for it. It is undeniably popular among both students and instructors. It has been denounced by Yale's venerable triumvirate and their backers as wasteful and demoralizing. Yet they yielded so far to popular clamor, some five years since, as to formulate the system of limited election which now prevails in the two upper classes. If elective studies are good, why were they not adopted years ago? If, on the contrary, they are bad, why adopted at all?

The following table shows, for the college year 1885-86, the number of hours weekly which the student can devote to the studies of his own choice:

HOURS OF ELECTIVE STUDIES (PER WEEK).

	Yale.	Harvard.
Freshman Class	None	9
Sophomore "	"	All
Junior "	9	"
Senior "	13	"

In this respect, then, Yale stood till five or six years ago just where she stood in the eighteenth century, and stands to-day almost exactly where Harvard stood in 1841. Of course the opportunities of choice are far greater at Yale to-day than they could be at any American college forty-five years ago; but they are still far inferior to the advantages which Cambridge now affords.

Subjoined is a table showing the courses given in the Academical Department of each university, and the number of hours of instruction offered weekly in each course:

	Yale.	Harvard.
Semitic Languages	1	17
Indo-Iranian languages	4	12
Greek	13½	39½
Latin	17½	37½
Greek and Latin Philology, etc	....	6
English and Rhetoric	10	24
German	15	20
French	18	26
Italian	6	10½
Spanish	6	10½
Philosophy and Ethics	11	25
Political Economy	4½	14
History	11½	24
Roman Law	1½	4½
Fine Arts	....	10½
Music	....	14
Mathematics	30½	42½
Physics	4	23½
Chemistry	2	24
Natural History	11	49½
International Law, etc	1½	....
Linguistics	½	....
Hygiene	1	....
	170	434½

In other words, the Harvard undergraduate has the allurement and opportunity of over two and a half times the amount of instruction that is offered by Yale. In this respect the latter is somewhat behind where Harvard was in 1871, when 168 hours were offered in the elective courses alone.

Thoroughness of instruction is a more difficult factor to estimate, and one which I approach with great diffidence. I shall be contented with a table of comparison showing the courses given in political economy, which, in importance to the citizen, yields to no other science. At Harvard the instruction is given by a professor, an assistant professor, and an instructor. At Yale one man performs all these functions and is Professor of Social Science as well. The time occupied by each course is reduced to the number of hours per week annually offered:

YALE.		HARVARD.	
Elementary course.	1½ hrs.	Elementary course...	3 hrs.
Longer elementary course	2 "	History of economic theory	3 "
		Economical history of America and Europe	3 "
		Tariff legislation	1 "
		Financial legislation.	1 "
Discussion and investigation	1 "	Discussion and investigation	3 "
		Independent research *say*	3 "
For Seniors	4½ hrs.	For Sophomores, Juniors, and Seniors..	17 hrs.

From this it is apparent that something more is offered at Harvard than a merely superficial knowledge of a subject which few men have the time to pursue in after life. Yale now devotes scarcely more time to the subject than Harvard did in 1872.

It may be well to note in passing that wh le psychology is a *required* study for four terms at Yale, political economy is an *optional* study, which can be pursued at utmost for but two. It is difficult to discern the principle on which this discrimination is based, unless, indeed, that

otherwise a smaller attendance would flatter the one course given by the President of the University!

There can be little doubt that these facts explain the ever-increasing flow of students toward Harvard alongside of the decreasing numbers at Yale. The former offers greater and better facilities for study, and we can blame only human nature if parents, guardians, and ambitious young men go where they can get the most for their time and their money.

It cannot be said that it is easier to enter Harvard than to enter Yale. I was recently assured by a Yale graduate, who has prepared many young men for each college, that it took the average boy a year longer to prepare for the former than the latter, and that the examinations were, if anything, more strict and severe. It used to be said that any man who could pass the Harvard entrance examinations could graduate with very little work. It seems that in former years there may have been some foundation for this assertion, but it is as emphatically contradicted by the statistics of late classes. In the table below are the average percentages of those receiving degrees in the various classes:

	1870 to 1874.	1875 to 1879.	1881 to 1884.
Yale	76.	75.	75.
Harvard	93.	76.	74.

It will therefore be seen that out of 100 freshmen but 75 graduate at Yale, and but 74 at Harvard.

I have endeavored, in the foregoing, to point out some of the essential differences between the administrations of our two greatest universities. The result of these two policies has already been displayed in the wonderful increase of Harvard and the stationary position of Yale. Yale needs not only reform, but a reformer. The latter position can be filled only by the President of the University, who must be a man possessing the qualities indicated in my previous letter. It will not do to cherish a time-worn superstition that this person must necessarily be a Yale graduate, a college professor, or a clergyman. Untrammelled by any such prejudices, it is the duty of the Corporation to call the fittest man to the position, wherever and whosoever he may be. There are two men, both of whom have once been numbered with the Yale Faculty, who are eminently fitted for the task. Both of them have won international reputations as administrators. Either of them is worth at least ten thousand dollars a year to the University. I do not think that the New York alumni will permit a lack of funds to stand as an excuse for not calling one of them.

EDWARD D. PAGE.

February 7, 1886.

THE VIRGINIA COUPONS DECISIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The dissenting opinion referred to in the *Nation's* article on Virginia coupon bonds will be found page 330 114 United States Reports. In the last cases there were no dissenting opinions filed, the minority of the court allowing themselves to be bound by the majority opinion in the cases of 1884. This renders the position of the bondholders stronger, in that they need not fear a continuing dissent, finally resulting by change of court in a reversal, as happened in the legal-tender cases.—Very truly,

JOHN H. MORISON.

40 WATER ST, BOSTON, February 18, 1886.

Notes.

GINN & Co. will begin next month the publication of a *Political Science Quarterly*, a review devoted to history, economics, and jurisprudence, and edited by the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia College. Primarily it will concern itself with the investigation of questions of present interest in the United States, and the endeavor will be made to have the treatment intelligible to readers who are not specialists. "But the editors," says the prospectus, "by no means take the position that we have 'nothing to do with abroad.'" Further, "they will impose no tests of political or economic orthodoxy," but (a most wholesome check on windy debate) "every article will be signed; and every writer who alleges facts not commonly known will be expected to cite his evidence. The editors will neither take unsupported statements on faith, nor ask the public to take such statements on authority." The first number will contain an introduction by Prof. Munroe Smith, and articles on "The American Commonwealth: Changes in its relation to the Nation," by Prof. John W. Burgess; "Legislative Inquests," by Frederick W. Whitridge; "American Labor Statistics," by Prof. Richmond M. Smith; and "The Conference at Berlin on the West-African Question," by Daniel De Leon. This enterprise seems to us full of promise, and to be a notable evidence of the growth of serious political thought and study in this country.

Henry Holt & Co. will soon add to their "Library of Foreign Poetry" a new translation of Goethe's songs, ballads, and selected miscellaneous poems, by Commander William Gibson, U. S. N.

A memorial of the late George Fuller, by many hands, in prose and in verse, with choice illustrations from this artist's works (a complete list of which and of their present owners will be given), is promised shortly in a limited edition of 300 copies by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A new volume of verse by Whittier, containing the poems he has written since the publication of "The Bay of Seven Islands" in 1883, is to be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A new monthly magazine, the *Forum*, is to be launched directly in this city. It will in form be modelled after the English reviews. Its field is but vaguely described in the circular before us.

Mr. John Morley's 'Rousseau,' in two volumes, follows 'Voltaire' in the new and irresistibly attractive uniform edition of Messrs. Macmillan. The two works belong together by every relation of their subjects, whether between themselves or in the author's mind; and if the purchaser of this edition stopped anywhere, he could not well take one without the other. Both are masterpieces of condensation and generalization.

Last week we had 'Whitaker's Almanack,' and now Mr. Spofford's 'American Almanac' (American News Co.) comes to hand—the ninth issue, if our reckoning is not at fault. Want of public appreciation of this useful work accounts, we suppose, for the neglect into which the stereotyped portion has fallen, even to downright illegibility in some cases. The publishers should look to this, especially since they have always been too careless of the typographical appearance of their annual. In this respect Spofford cannot compare with Whitaker.

We give a ready welcome to Part i. of Vol. v. of 'The Encyclopædic Dictionary' (Cassell & Co.)—none the less a volume because called a "Part," and properly Vol. ix.—with its vocabulary extending from *mem.* to *parbuckle*. The fulness of this vocabulary is the great recommendation of the work, as we have more than once remarked. But there are numerous other aspects in which the Dictionary must be regarded with favor. Its encyclopædic character is well exhibited in definitions like those of Mennonite, mesmerism, meteor, monitor, moon, Mormonism, morphology, Muhammadan architecture, Navigation Laws, negro, nihilism, non-juror, Old Catholics, parabola, etc.

Prof. H. Sweet regrets, in a letter to the *Academy*, that the New English Dictionary was not established on a more modest but more convenient and businesslike scale than the present magnificent one. This is not pleasant language to hear from an Englishman concerning a work which is to be his country's greatest philological glory, and the best dictionary in any language. From another source one might ascribe it to the narrowness and jealousy of a university town, but such words are not to be used of Professor Sweet. Shall we apply to him the saying that an Englishman is never so happy as when he is grumbling?

The twelfth volume of 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt) is completed with Parts 178–180, which end with *Phoxos*. There is a beautiful map of Paris and vicinity, and two of Austria-Hungary—one ethnographical, the other physical; as well as one of Palestine. Excellent color printing is displayed in the plate showing the diseases of plants.

The lesser Brockhaus has long passed the halfway mark with Part 42, ending with *Maurogeni*. *Colonies* and *Congo* are allowed a measure of space in decided contrast with the general brevity of the articles in this handy reference book; and the most striking of three maps is one showing the outlying possessions of the European States. There is also a colored plate of edible mushrooms, besides the customary woodcuts. The death of General McClellan, whose name occurs in this instalment, has not been overlooked.

The eleventh edition of Berghaus's Chart of the World (Gotha: J. Perthes; New York: Westermann), in which, by the way, the nomenclature is English, has been revised as usual, and is the freshest compendium of information for the merchant, the tourist, or the navigator. The German colonial fever has helped to swell the number of steamship routes laid down; railroads and submarine cables have multiplied; the Congo Free State and the Russian advance in Central Asia have developed new lines of transportation and communication. The principal changes noted in the physical facts of the earth's surface naturally relate to the north polar ice-belt, whose positions at a great many epochs in the present century are carefully delineated. Indeed, the Chart is a convenient register of Arctic exploration.

The appearance of Mr. Harrisse's 'Christophe Colomb' and of C. F. Duro's 'Colón y Pinzón' has prompted Prof. Eugene Gelcich to gather up his notes, made during many years, for a defence of Columbus against his detractors as a navigator (*als Nautiker und als Seemann*). His learned and elaborate paper is printed in the Journal of the Berlin Geographical Society, No. 118.

The seventh annual report of the Geographical Society of Bern, of which the text is (as happens) French or German, has a largely American complexion. It opens, appropriately enough, with a tribute to Arnold Guyot, the editor's countryman, and there are also papers on the city of Mexico and its suburbs; on the civil war in Central America, which ended in the death of Barrios; on the Argentine Republic, and especially the Province of Tucuman. One of the two maps is given to Guatemala; the other illustrates an article called "Life on the Congo," a rosy view.

Science for February 12 reproduces the map of Burmah, Siam, and the Shan States published in the Royal Geographical Society's Proceedings for January. Its details will be a great comfort to editors and students who have to follow the progress of the English occupation of the first-named country.

The interest excited in Mr. Samuel Brearley's report to the Harvard Club, in criticism of the elective system at Harvard, has caused it to be

put on sale with G. P. Putnam's Sons, 27 West Twenty-third Street, New York.

The Boston *Journal of Education* for February 18 is wholly a memorial number in honor of the late John D. Philbrick, formerly superintendent of the Boston schools, and for forty years prominent in educational circles. But the *Journal* ought to have suppressed the wretched portrait which disfigures its first page.

Under the rather questionable title, 'A Forgotten Genius: Charles Whitehead,' Mr. Mackensie Bell has lately published (London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Scribner & Welford) a biography of an erratic, gifted, and miserable Englishman, who held a fair position in English journalism half a century ago, acting as assistant to Dickens, writing poems and novels, some of which succeeded, and all of which had qualities that demanded critical consideration, and who took to drink and at last died wretchedly, alone among strangers, in a hospital in Australia. Mr. Mackensie Bell examines all of Whitehead's works in prose and verse at great length, and makes abundant extracts therefrom; but it can hardly be admitted that the evidence he adduces proves the right of his hero to remembrance. He even ventures on a comparison with the case of Edgar Allen Poe, just now a more fashionable type of genius and weakness than either Richard Savage or François Villon; but Mr. Mackensie Bell ignores the great difference between Poe and Whitehead. Nevertheless, his book is interesting and careful; and it contains a curious anecdote of Rossetti's remembering a sonnet of Whitehead's, and transmuting its base metal into his own fine gold.

During the last year the *Revue Bleue* has published many interesting letters received by the late Adolphe Crémieux, and these with others are now issued in a little volume, 'Autographes: Collection Adolphe Crémieux' (Paris: Hetzel; New York: F. W. Christern). Crémieux was the chosen lawyer of many of the leading lights of literature and art, a man of high character and great ability. His wife was a charming woman and a fine musician. In his collection are characteristic letters from Hugo and Dumas, Liszt, Rossini, Halévy, and Auber, from Talma and Rachel, connected by a slight thread of explanatory text. Of Talma there is (p. 15) a pertinent anecdote showing that he, like M. Coquelin in our day, is of Diderot's opinion that an actor should not allow himself to be mastered by the emotion he depicts; and (p. 93) there is an anecdote quite to the same effect. The main interest of the collection, however, is in the letters and anecdotes of Rachel, which fill more than a hundred pages. As a member of the same race and faith, Rachel came early for advice to M. Crémieux. She was profoundly ignorant, having read, even in the plays she acted, only her own part and its "cues." She could not spell at all; she writes from London that "M. Stanoppe est un homme fort comiffaut" (p. 211). Crémieux wrote her letters for her to copy for several years until she erred from the straight and narrow path. The letters she wrote to him, asking him to draft notes and replies for her, will hereafter hold a high place among the curiosities of literature.

Westermann & Co. send us Parts 3-5 of the 'Geschichte der Deutschen Kunst' now publishing by Grote in Berlin. They continue to treat of architecture and the subsidiary arts, and are embellished with fine wood engravings of churches and statuary, and with some admirable chromo illustrations.

Even for the origin of the movement cure we must go to China, and perhaps the latest work on the subject is that by P'an Wei, the present Governor of Hupeh, a brochure entitled 'Important Life-maintaining Methods.' He treats of massage and air-gulping, and furnishes material for a very amusing as well as learned article by Doctor Macgowan in No. 29 of the *Medical Reporter*. Twelve figures of calisthenic exercises without instruments are copied from the original.

Of late much has been made of photography in its application to astronomy, but not too much. The researches of the late Doctor Henry Draper in connection with the great nebula of Orion were about the first to show how powerful an adjunct to the tools of the astronomer photography had become. It was made plain that the sensitive dry plates were much more sensitive than the eye—in other words, that many things that could not be seen with a given optical means were easy to photograph with an equivalent apparatus. This line of research has been successfully followed up in England by Huggins, Common, and others, and in France by Paul and Prosper Henry, who now give notice, through the *Astronomische Nachrichten*, of the discovery of a nebula by photography. As yet it cannot be verified by the telescope.

An ideally fine portrait of the late General Hancock, half life-size (or "imperial panel photograph," as the technical designation is) comes to us from Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, who has taken extraordinary pains, with extraordinary success, to form a national portrait gallery of "men of the time."

—*Harper's* for March is predominantly geographical, for when the reader has exhausted the laborious article on Krupp and his guns, he has small choice left except to con the new map of Africa, as thickly studded with names as the plan of a mushroom Western town with corner-lots, or else to wander over the very dismal scenes of Turkoman raids and view the tombs of Cain and Abel with an *attaché* of the Afghan Boundary Commission, or to hear again the charms of rural Breton life, or to watch the change of the log-hut acres by the marshy river into the wealth and beauty of the splendid avenues and the smoke of the great industries of the city of Cleveland. This last is an admirable paper, with its vivid touch of early history and sketch of the genuine pioneer character, and its gradual unfolding of a subject hard to bring into the narrow limits; no one of the series to which it belongs has been more instructive in the essentials of the growth and worth of an American city. An article on dogs, by Hugh Dalziel, contains an amount of information, in regard to their management and care, difficult to obtain in so compact a form and of a very practical kind; and considering the unrivalled ignorance of man respecting the treatment of his best animal friends, who "have no rights," an eminent Christian official assures us, "because they have no souls," such an essay as this deserves to be "crowned" by some humanitarian society. The Easy Chair almost surpasses himself in the delightfulness of temper and literary tact of his monologues, which alone in this number remind us that literature is a fine art.

—Not so, however, with the current *Atlantic*, which still flies the flag of belles-lettres, and will, we dare say, till the tattered ensign goes down with the ship or is safely stored away in some museum library. There is nothing in the issue which has not in its kind the special quality of excellence which appeals to taste, apart from a mere curiosity or vacuity of mind to which the day's literature is mainly addressed. The first story, in which the character of the tale-teller is delightfully self-revealed, pleases by its mere daring and freshness, being as unreal as Jack's bean-stalk in a field of mere ordinary realistic beans, and therefore a heavenly relief to the eye; and our correspondents on the vexed question of "the real and the ideal," after cogitating this piece of indescribable fiction, may find some interest in Dr. Hedge's discussion of "the classic and the romantic," which is just over the way from them. To compress the article into an epigram, one would say that the classic is the thing seen and the romantic the thing felt. But let no one rashly identify the thing seen with the real, and infer heaven knows what—and so be lured off into a dance of phrases; for if he be wise he will remember it is always assumed that the classic, the thing seen, is a sort of Hesperian presence of the ideal; and here we pause with the first thread of the labyrinth. Dr. Holmes writes a defence of occasional verses, and gives two illustrations from his recent experience, of which the poem to Dr. Hedge rises above the level. Mr. Van Brunt speaks of the state of architecture, and Mr. Justin Winsor of libraries of Americana, an article which probably could not have found publication except in the *Atlantic;* and it is pleasant to observe, in this most literary of the monthlies, the welcome judgment that Grant's Memoirs is turning out to be one of the memorable books of the world.

—The latest addition to the Johns Hopkins University Studies is a pamphlet of some sixty pages called 'Dutch Village Communities on the Hudson River,' by Irving Elting, A. B., which makes the first number of the fourth series. It is a pleasantly written account of some of the facts connecting village life and common ownership in New York with the primitive customs of the race. The author writes with great knowledge of his subject, having evidently made an examination of the local records at first hand. The brochure can hardly be said to shed any new light on the questions at issue among the European investigators of village community life; indeed, Mr. Elting is unwilling to go so far as to commit himself to a decided expression of opinion that common property preceded individual ownership, and says: "A decision of this question, if it were possible, is not necessary for the present purpose of examining the village communities on the Hudson River." Notwithstanding this extreme caution, he concludes his essay with the following rather broad generalization: "From the banks of the Rhine the germs of free local institutions, borne on the tide of Western emigration, found here, along the Hudson, a more fruitful soil than New England afforded for the growth of those forms of municipal, State, and national government which have made the United States the leading republic among the nations. Thus, in a new and historically important sense, may the Hudson River be called the 'Rhine of America.'" We do not see how the evidence that Mr. Elting has collected tends to establish this. In New York and in the Southern States, we had always supposed that manorial rights played a more important part in the early system of landholding; while in New England it was precisely because the political unit—the town—was also a representative of tolerably equal landownership, reinforced by the commons system, that Massachusetts became the Cradle of Liberty. Of course the scientific mind must always be open to new hypotheses, and we are quite ready to have it proved that it was the primitive Hudson River, or even Long Island Dutchman, and not the "embattled farmer" of New England, who did most for "those forms of municipal, State, and national government which have made the United States the leading republic among the nations." But it ought to be clearly proved. "What is now City Hall Park in New York," says Mr. Elting, "was as late as 1686, *perhaps much later*, known as the Village Commons, where the droves of cattle were sent morning and evening to pasture." But, on the other hand, Boston Common is still

called Boston Common after a lapse of two centuries, and the survival or disappearance of the name is pretty much all we have in either case to indicate the permanence or impermanence of the institution in the affections of the people.

— Sir Henry Thompson's 'Food and Feeding' (F. Warne & Co.) has appeared in a fourth, enlarged edition; and we should be pleased if, some day, we might announce its fortieth edition, for it is perhaps the most useful, suggestive, and at the same time entertaining work on gastronomy in the English language, if not in any language. Brillat-Savarin's famous 'Physiologie du Goût' is more epigrammatic, spicy, and fanciful, but far less valuable from a practical point of view, not to speak of its numerous errors. Sir Henry's treatise is by no means, as its title would seem to imply, a dry, chemico-physiological compilation or book of recipes. It discusses such topics as schools of cookery, public dinners, toasts, *menus;* the question of wine, tobacco, mineral waters, and coffee at dinner; turtle and fish dinners; breakfast and lunch; salads, sauces, soups, stewing, frying, etc., etc. The average man, even among the educated, "cares more for quantity than quality, desires little variety, and regards as impertinent an innovation in the shape of a new aliment, expecting the same food at the same hour daily, his enjoyment of which apparently greatly depends on his ability to swallow the portion with extreme rapidity, that he may apply himself to some other and more important occupation without delay." Sir Henry vigorously combats this vicious propensity; emphasizing everywhere the extreme importance to health and happiness of good cookery, and stating the reasons why one method is superior to another.

— In giving, for instance, a receipt for wholemeal bread (p. 41) he points out as one of its advantages that it is more stimulating to the appetite than ordinary bread because "it retains the natural flavor of the wheat in place of the insipidity which is characteristic of fine flour." In the cooking of meat it is precisely this effort to "retain the natural flavor" that distinguishes English from French cookery. In English cookery the motto is, "Each animal, when served, to be characterized by its own proper flavor, which is on no account to be masked or disguised by others which are adventitious. . . . The French *chef* treats the white meat, veal and domestic poultry, with so many ingeniously contrived sauces as to render these two meats as good as six. So successful is the achievement that he is too often tempted to extend his art to dark-fleshed game, and, seeking to adorn it with new flavors, destroys the original savor and aroma in which consists the value of the dish." It is in vegetable dishes and soups that French cookery is superior to English. Even more than meat a French cook is apt to spoil fish with his sauces. Sir Henry combats the old superstition that fish contains certain elements which adapt it preëminently to renovate the brain; but in another sense, as he shows, fish is the best food for brain-workers, for it is more easily digested than meat, and demands less physical exercise for its assimilation. In another chapter he remarks that "Milk is essentially the food of the growing animal. . . . Those who take much exercise, or follow laborious occupations, may make it a useful portion of their dietary. It is rarely suitable for sedentary persons." The vegetarian controversy is very sensibly settled by the remark that "man is clearly omnivorous; while *men* may be advantageously vegetarians in one climate, mixed eaters in another, and exclusively flesh-eaters in a third." Against one phase of vegetarianism Sir Henry protests vigorously, namely, the use of dried and compressed vegetables which is getting so common in hotels and elsewhere, to save trouble: "All the finest qualities of scent and flavor, with some of the fresh juices, are lost in the drying process; and the infusions of preserved vegetables no more resemble a freshly made odoriferous soup than a cup of that thick, brown, odorless, insipid mixture, consisting of some bottled 'essence' dissolved in hot water, and now supplied as coffee at most railway stations and hotels in England, resembles the recently made infusion of the freshly roasted berry."

— The future essayist who first writes about the "curiosities of catalogues" will not suffer from lack of amusing material. In a recent English catalogue of a second-hand bookseller there are two entries which may be called to his attention for the evidently unconscious humor of the compiler's recommendatory notes:

509 MATRIMONY.—How to be Happy though Married: being a Handbook to Marriage. impl. 16mo, *cloth elegant*, 5*s nett* 1885. The title is borrowed from one of Skelton's Sermons; a copy has been accepted by the Princess Beatrice.

682 SUNDRY BOOKS.—A parcel of 50 (religious) from the Library of the late Rev. H. T. Ellacombe, *suitable for distribution among poor parishioners*, 10*s* the lot, A BARGAIN *v. d.*

It would be interesting to get the opinion of H. R. H. the Princess Beatrice and of the poor parishioners.

— In connection with the recent new regulations, of which we have spoken, the Italian Government last month issued decrees, changing by promotion or otherwise the personnel of the principal libraries, and giving to the institutions themselves rank and appropriations according to their relative importance. The following librarians-in-chief receive the title of Prefect: Domenico Gnoli (a chief living poet, better known by his pseudonym, Dario Gaddi), prefect of the Victor Emanuel Library, Rome; Desiderio Chilovi, *bibliothecist* pure and simple, Biblioteca Nazionale, Florence; Carlo Castellani, bibliographer, Librarian of St. Mark (Biblioteca Marciana), Venice; Isaia Ghiron, Hebraist, author of many works, historical, numismatic, biographical, the Brera Library, Milan; Niccola Anziani, palæographer, Laurentian Library, Florence; Gaspare Gorresio, a well-known Sanscrit scholar, University Library, Turin; Vito Fornari, a philosophical writer and critic, National Library, Naples. The title of Librarian is given to Olindo Guerrini, poet and critic, University Library, Bologna. These appointments are generally in the line of the new policy—to put at the head of the great book collections, and in the subordinate positions as well, not merely learned men, but *librarians* in our American sense of the word. Heretofore in Europe, and particularly in Italy, these positions have been occupied, not by men of high technical bibliothecal attainments, feeling it their duty to make the libraries more and more accessible to the public, to prepare accurate and full catalogues, to publish bulletins, indexes, and the like, but by mere scholars, who have received their posts as a sort of recompense for their learning, and who have used the time which fairly ought to be given to library work in editing MSS. or preparing other works. The second, third, and fourth volumes of the series, *Indici e Cataloghi*, published by the Ministry of Public Instruction, are out. They are: 'Catalogo dei Manoscritti Foscoliani, già proprietà Martelli, della Biblioteca Nazionale di Firenze'—a catalogue of the Martelli collection of Ugo Foscolo MSS., of great interest, particularly the correspondence, in relation to the literary history of his times; 'Disegni di Architettura esistenti nella R. Galleria degli Uffizi di Firenze'—these architectural designs of the Regia Galleria being by the most famous architects; and of great importance will this catalogue be to students of architecture and architectural history; and 'I Codici Palatini della R. Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale di Firenze'—the portion, namely, already catalogued, but somewhat imperfectly, in Palermo's work on these MSS.

GRANT'S MEMOIRS.

Personal Memoirs of U. S. Grant. Charles L. Webster & Co. 1885. Vol. i, pp. 584, 8vo.

Nearly everybody, we take it, heard of General Grant's purpose to write his military memoirs with grave doubts of its effect upon his fame. From the beginning he made known, with characteristic openness, that the ruin of his business affairs made the *Century* Company's offer to pay a large price for some magazine articles a welcome one to him. He has repeated this fact in the preface to the present volume, only adding that what began as an apparent necessity, continued as a pleasing occupation when once it was begun. His countrymen, who were jealous of his fame as of a national possession, feared that a book written under such circumstances, by a man who had shown no desire or taste for literary work, could not prove satisfactory. They distrusted, also, the business management under which the memoirs would appear; for however high the character of publishers, there was danger that a great name might be used to secure great sales without due consideration of the effect upon that name and fame.

The result has happily disappointed these fears. Beginning with a disposition to compress his narrative into the barest outline of events, General Grant learned from the suggestions of friendly critics (as General Badeau has told us) to enlarge the scope of his first sketches, and impart much more vivacity and incident to them. The light of publicity in which he lived has given us, in a degree hardly ever known before in the case of a book likely to have permanent value, the steps in his literary education by which he was led from what might have been the bald reproduction of a military report, to the conception and execution of a memoir which no one can find dull, and which those readers who take pleasure in the analysis of a great man's mind and character will regard of inestimable price. Nine-tenths of the value of autobiography is in the revelation of the writer himself to the world. This book is no exception to the rule. The history of his campaigns may be got elsewhere. Badeau's book is more full and has scarcely less of Grant's authority, for he revised its statements and certified that it contained his views. In all essential things the present work may be said to be an abridgment and paraphrase of the other. As originally prepared, it was in itself the most absolute evidence of the authoritative character of Badeau's history; and the changes which were made after the publication of portions as magazine articles are evidence that the author would have had to modify others of his recollections or conclusions, if the whole could have been subjected to criticism in the same way.

It is, then, for the new light which they throw upon Grant himself that these memoirs will be prized. His personality was too strong to be hidden. When he took his pen to tell the story of his career, the things which flowed most easily from his mind were the judgments and opinions of men and of events in the gross, and not the detailed incidents which the experienced writer would use to fill and color his narrative. We learn what was the Grant method of viewing things, and are greatly helped in forming truthful ideas of his powers and his peculiarities. As to his style, it has the principal element of thoroughly good writing; since we are made to feel

that the writer's only thought, in this regard, is how to express most directly and simply the thing he has to say. His ideas are always clear, his arrangement of them is always lucid, the expression of them is free from mannerism or strain after effect; and therefore, as writing, the result cannot fail to be satisfactory.

The first volume, beginning with Grant's boyhood and service in the regular army, brings his career down to the close of the Vicksburg campaign. By whatever considerations he was induced to make his sketch of the Mexican war fill so large a space in the narrative, it was a fortunate thing that he has done so. More than a hundred and fifty pages are devoted to this subject, and we doubt if there can anywhere be found so intelligible and useful a brief account of the military operations in Mexico. He goes back to the experiences of his youth with the broad judgment matured in the great campaigns of the civil war. His estimate of Scott and Taylor is an unprejudiced retrospect of men who had been his youthful admiration, and his kindly but discriminating judgment of their campaigns may well become a standard authority upon that period of our history. If one were disposed to question his capacity as a writer, this portion of his book would decisively settle the question. That this is original work, no one can gainsay. His materials, except his personal reminiscences of the time, are only such as any writer may command; but the vigor of the narrative, the strong grouping of salient points, the sagacious criticisms, the quick eye for the telling features of a battle or a movement, are all noteworthy, and show that his powers were of no ordinary kind.

When he comes to tell the events of the civil war we look, first of all, for evidence of the growth of his knowledge of his own powers, for it would be absurd to suppose that a man with a career behind him which must be accounted in most things a failure, could have had any very clear consciousness of his own abilities. He does not inform us of his real hopes or expectations at the outbreak of the war. He helped organize the first company raised in Galena, and never went back to the little leather shop to do any business again. Yet he refused the captaincy of that company, while intimating to his friends that he would find a place in the military service somewhere. He showed his zeal by drilling the company, and accompanied it to Springfield, where he was invited by Governor Yates to serve for a time as assistant to the Adjutant-General of the State in organizing the Illinois contingent under the first enlistment. It seems probable that he looked for some public call upon West Point men who were out of the army to return to the regular service, and was disappointed that the Government did nothing of this kind. On the 10th of May, while waiting near St. Louis to muster in some Illinois regiments, he witnessed the initiative taken by Captain Lyon, and the capture of the camp of the Confederate "Home-Guards" near that city. On the 24th he addressed a letter to the War Department, tendering his services and indicating the command of a regiment as the post for which he felt competent. It was probably one of the new regiments authorized for the regular army which he had in mind, for the national Government appointed the officers of no others, and we may thus infer that his hope was for a reinstatement in the regular service. He doubted his ability to perform properly the duties of a colonel, but thought he could at least do as well as the volunteer colonels whom he had mustered into the service of the Government. No answer, however, came to his offer of service, and he failed also in an effort to see McClellan for the purpose of renewing the offer in person; McClellan being now at the head of the Department of the Ohio and a Major-General in the regular army.

Grant seems now to have given up the hope of reëntering the regular service, and upon the issue of the call by President Lincoln for three hundred thousand men, he was appointed by Governor Yates Colonel of the 21st Illinois regiment. Had he been willing to accept the captaincy of the Galena company, he would probably have been made Colonel of the 11th into which it was mustered; but he had wished first to test the possibility of resuming his profession permanently, and, having failed in this, he threw himself heartily into the volunteer service, in which he was to make his fame. His staff service with the Governor made him some valuable friends, and no doubt led to his early appointment as Brigadier-General before he had taken the field. He had no taste for the semi-clerical duties of the Adjutant-General's office, saying of himself, humorously, "The only place I ever found in my life to put a paper so as to find it again, was either a side coat-pocket or the hands of a clerk or secretary more careful than myself." We may be sure, however, that the public men who had come in contact with him had seen the thoroughly earnest but simple business air of the man, and had learned to have faith in his quiet, impassive character.

His first field service was in beating up the quarters of a Confederate Colonel Harris, a little way back from the Mississippi River in Missouri. He describes the weight of responsibility he felt, and the nervous uneasiness with which he approached what promised to be a field of battle. He would have felt none of this, he says, if he had been a subordinate. It was the responsibility for the handling of men, and for the results, that brought his heart into his throat. But the enemy had run at the news of his approach: "My heart resumed its place. It occurred to me at once that Harris had been as much afraid of me as I had been of him. *This was a view of the question I had never taken before; but it was one I never forgot afterward.*" The words we have italicised are a characteristic revelation of the effect of this lesson of experience upon his mind. Many military officers, even generals of high repute, never learned that lesson, which contains the secret of every vigorous campaign. To take the unknown for the wonderful is proverbially common. It is the reason why men will tremble at a burglar's noise in the house at night, who would face an army of tramps if they could see them. It is what makes army commanders believe exaggerated reports of their enemy's strength, and conduct feeble operations against a weaker foe. Grant was not alone in seeing that his enemy had been in more fear than he, but he was singular in remembering it always after; that is, in gaining permanent confidence and courage to take a bold initiative, with steady and clear appreciation of the moral superiority it gave him over any opponent but one whose nerve and judgment were as good as his own. This is the commander's courage, a thing *toto cœlo* different from that of the subordinate or of the soldier in the ranks. These throw the responsibility for the unknown upon their chief: they use only the common courage of facing bravely what they see. The mode in which Grant has put this is as characteristic as the thing itself. He does not generalize upon it or attempt to analyze it. It is simply a concrete fact; he saw that his enemy was afraid of him, and intuitively concluded that he should find it so in other cases.

Another interesting revelation of his mental operations is found in his final attack at Fort Donelson. The naval attack had been beaten off, and he had seen the fleet retire discomfited. His army had found strong entrenchments in front, and had made no impression on them. He visited Commodore Foote, and learned that the gunboats must go down the river for repairs. He began to think a siege might be necessary. General Wallace says it had been actually determined on. In his absence the enemy took the initiative, and was only beaten back by the conjoined efforts of McClernand and Wallace, after the first had been worsted. Coming on the field, he is told that the enemy had come out laden with ammunition and with three days' rations. What others thought an indication of confidence and preparation for a long fight he instantly saw to mean an effort to cut their way out and to escape. His mind jumped to the conclusion that it also implied that the enemy must have concentrated his forces to do this, and that if he could strike quickly at the other end of the line, he would capture their works with little resistance. This made him content to let Wallace keep up a mere show of attack, while he hurried to General Smith with the order to assault headlong on our left. The success was the legitimate result of quick, almost intuitive perception of the true meaning of little facts, and the promptest and strongest action upon his interpretation of them. He was sure they meant—it is better to say he *saw* they meant—but one thing; and his will followed the perception with scarce interval enough to call it reasoning. That is Grant's part in the battle at Fort Donelson, and we must admit that it is the master's part. The march from Fort Henry was an audacity learned in his first march against Colonel Harris, but it was within an ace of failure, when the new and unexpected circumstance of the enemy's sortie gave a momentary opportunity which was instantly seized so as to lead to victory. We may be sure he forgot the second lesson as little as the first. The one was boldness and initiative in the strategy, the other was the quick tactical concentration of attack upon the weak spot which was disclosed in the battle. Add to these, tireless patience in biding his time when it was necessary, and indomitable perseverance in hammering away when nothing better can be done, and we have the principal elements of Grant's military character, which satisfactorily account for his career.

Yet he had lessons still to learn, and his campaign of Shiloh taught him by a severe experience the danger of over-confidence and of having his headquarters too far from the front. It need hardly be said that so apt a pupil learned the lesson well, though the soreness with which he ever remembered it prevented his speaking of it with the freedom with which he referred to his other advantages gained in the school of experience. The official records now make it too plain for fair dispute that neither Halleck, Buell, nor Grant believed the Confederates could rally for a strong counter attack so soon after the fall of Fort Donelson as the 6th of April. Halleck intended to take the field in person when Buell's army should join Grant; Buell moved southwestward from Columbia, Tennessee, steadily but without any haste; and Grant had his headquarters at Savannah, nine miles below Pittsburg Landing, on the opposite side of the river. He did not take the pains to arrange a meeting with Buell on the 5th, the day of his arrival at the same place; he arranged a private friendly visit with General Ammen, an old neighbor who was in Buell's command, for the evening of the 7th at his Savannah headquarters. He informed both Halleck and Buell on the 5th that the enemy's army was at Corinth, and Halleck wrote that he expected to leave St. Louis early in the week beginning with Sunday, the 6th, to meet his assembled army at the front by the time the concentration of Buell and Grant was accomplished. Then the enemy at Corinth was to be attacked, and Grant had expressed the opinion that that place would

"fall much more easily than Donelson did when we do move." Grant's divisions at Shiloh were encamped with reference to convenience of access and eligibility of camp-grounds, and with no expectation of fighting a defensive battle on that field. General McClernand had disputed the seniority of C. F. Smith, who had been in command at Pittsburg Landing till an accidental injury of which he died had made him relinquish his post. No assignment of another was made by Grant, who expected to be with them in a few days, and the division commanders were independent of each other unless an exigency should arise in Grant's absence for united action, when McClernand would have been entitled to command by seniority, under the articles of war and military regulations.

This was the situation when, on the morning of the 6th, about 8 o'clock, the roar of cannon was heard at Savannah, announcing the enemy's attack in force at Shiloh. That Grant then made haste to reach the field, and that when there he did all that his unflinching courage and clear military understanding could do to give unity and plan to the stubborn defensive fighting of his divisions, we could infer certainly from what is now known of his character, if the earlier misstatements in regard to it had not been already corrected by official evidence. It is settled by the testimony of Confederate as well as national officers that the weight and impetus of the Confederate attack had exhausted itself before Buell's command or any part of it had crossed the river, and that Beauregard had issued his orders withdrawing his troops from their advanced positions. Grant had also notified Sherman that he should resume the offensive in the morning. Knowing Grant as we now know him, this is what he was every way most likely to do. At the time, when he was not well known, it was hard to believe that he could have retained the unconquerable will to do this after a long day's battle in which his troops had been driven back mile after mile. On the 7th, with the efficient aid of Buell's splendid command, a decisive victory was won. But we cannot dwell upon this: our present purpose is only to follow the course of Grant's development or education—it matters little which we call it. He was never again found in a position where he was unprepared for a return blow of the enemy, nor were his headquarters ever again separated from the troops of the line during an active campaign.

His Vicksburg campaign also began with errors and untoward events, though they were due to different causes from those which had operated at Shiloh. His sudden abandonment of the line of movement through central Mississippi for that of the river cannot be defended on military grounds. Sherman was clearly right in his criticism of it at the time and in his memoirs. The truth seems to be that Grant was so alarmed at the probable results of a permanent division of his forces by the assignment of McClernand to command the river expedition, that the reunion of all was determined on at the cost of abandoning his true line of operations, which he had to regain by almost desperate means after months spent in fruitless toil in the bayous and upon the swampy banks of the Mississippi. When the situation had become desperate, he rose to the height of the demand upon his brain and courage, and broke out of his embarrassments by a gigantic effort which placed him again upon the high lands east of the river without a formal retracing of his steps. It would seem that the real question in his mind was whether his rôle should be a principal or a secondary one, and his transfer of his army from Oxford, Miss., to the levees at Millikin's Bend was the solution of a personal more than a military problem. When he had extricated himself, however, and from the moment he had gained a firm footing at Port Gibson, the campaign till Pemberton was shut up in Vicksburg is rightly regarded as the flower of his military career, the most perfect combination of bold strategic movement with successful field fighting which it was ever his fortune to make. It was this, when they had reached Haines's Bluff, that aroused Sherman's enthusiasm, and drew from him the memorable words in which he recognized the military genius and power of his commanding officer.

Grant's method of treating his mistakes differs with the situation. No one can be more frank or direct in self-criticism in minor matters, as when he says of himself that he lacked the moral courage to stop and consider when he was making his first little expedition against Colonel Harris. But in regard to things which became subjects of controversy, he was not free from the altogether human desire to defend the course he actually pursued. In regard to the days immediately preceding Shiloh, and in reference to the movement of Wallace's division to the field, his memory is not quite accurate as tested by the official records, which it is plain he did not have the time or opportunity to reëxamine with care, writing as he did in the confinement of the sick-room. We learn to know more of the man himself from his narrative, as we have said already, but we must still go to the great storehouse of the official records for the full correction of the history of the time; and had he lived to see his memoirs published, there can be no doubt that he would have recast some important passages. So, also, in regard to the Vicksburg campaign, he gives as a sufficient reason for his change of base, "the impossibility of maintaining so long a line of road over which to draw supplies for an army moving in the enemy's country." As an argument, this loses its force when we remember how much longer lines were protected by Sherman at Atlanta, and how little he himself regarded the cutting of Rosecrans's communications a reason for abandoning the campaign of Chattanooga. In such cases the personal reasons which influence a man's decision do not always become distinctly conscious to him, or, at most, he will regard them only as adding weight to the other grounds upon which he prefers to base his action. That his likes and dislikes of men powerfully affected his conduct, is too well known to be matter of discussion in Grant's case. In civil administration it became a misfortune of no ordinary dimensions; and while less need of considering this is felt in reading his military memoirs, it will by no means do to ignore it. Yet when all deductions are made, the volume already published is so valuable an aid to the comprehension of General Grant and his times that it cannot fail to have a permanent place in literature, and the continuation of the work will be looked for with genuine interest.

Marvels of Animal Life. By Charles Frederick Holder. Charles Scribner's Sons. 8vo, pp. 240. Illustrated.

THOSE who delight in stories of the wonderful in nature will find this book attractive. It is one of a number, bearing considerable resemblance in good qualities and in faults, recently published by different writers on popular natural history. The principal difference appears in the larger number of topics drawn from marine life. It is very entertaining, and contains a large amount of valuable information. The descriptions are full of life and the interest seldom flags. If the objectionable features had been left out, we should have in it such a book as is most desired for unscientific readers, who wish to gather facts, but make no attempt to be systematic in doing so. In the interest of these readers we shall direct special attention to the characteristics to which we take most exception. A desire to make the most of the stories told has induced some exaggeration and recklessness in statement. In gathering the marvels, some are introduced which should have been described as conjectures; yet, though the author adds nothing to the evidence and had no means of verifying, he does not hesitate to commit himself in favor of what he prefers to believe, even if in doing so he throws shadows of uncertainty upon matter of real value. Questionable information given as such may result in good, from the reader's desire to satisfy himself of the truth; but given as fact, sanctioned by the author, it either misleads or causes suspicion of his judgment.

A few instances, or a single chapter on the best known of the subjects, will serve for illustrations. "The most remarkable statement concerning these fishes made by this author [Schomburgk] is that the Hassar, which is the native name for *Callichthys subulatus*, constructs a regular nest of blades of grass and leaves in holes *just above* the water, where it deposits its eggs, and watches them until the young appear." Schomburgk's words are, "et was *unter* der Oberfläche des Wassers," and the name Hassar is applied to various species. "In Eastern seas we find the grass fish (*Nemichthys*), which is invariably seen upright among the grass it resembles." *Nemichthys*, however, is a deep-sea fish, found in depths of 500 to 2,500 fathoms, and certainly never yet seen in its native haunts by eye of man. *Toxotes* is said with unerring aim to bring down insects at a distance of three or four feet. A chapter is devoted to "Dry Land Fishes," whatever they may be. On plate x. is figured a nondescript "Martinique tree-toad with young clinging to its back." The toad, as the author calls it, breathes by lungs, has pads on the ends of its toes, for clinging to rocks, trees, leaves, etc., and has no swimming membranes; the tadpoles apparently have not lost their gills, have the membranes on the tail, which could not last long out of water, and, clinging to the back by their mouths, are unable to feed. What is it he has given us?

Passing such mistakes as Ceradotus for Ceratodus, Edoux and Toulezet for Eydoux and Souleyet, Acrohordus for Acrochordus, Rhamphorhynchus for Rhacophorus, etc., let us take up one of the weakest chapters, "Our Common Snakes." They are "covered with a coat of scales [?] which is shed in the summer months [?]." Their teeth "are merely for two purposes: first to poison and stupefy the prey [in all cases ?]; and second to prevent its escape." The venom is said to be "accumulated in sacs that are modifications of the salivary gland." "To use the poison the snake has merely to strike its prey, the muscles of the jaw being so arranged that, as soon as the fang enters the flesh of the victim, certain muscles press upon the glands, squeeze the poison through the little canal down through the hollow fang, and the work is done." Use of venom depends on the will of the snake, whether the fang enters the flesh or not. "The poisonous snakes may always be recognized by their broad flattened heads and generally short and thick bodies. They also, as a rule, possess a vertical keel running along the centre of each scale." This would prevent the admission among poisonous snakes of many of the Hydrophidæ and the entire family of Elapsidæ. "The non-poisonous snakes have long bodies, with the head small, no distinct neck, and the scales not keeled." This would shut out our most common species, the garter or striped snakes and the water snakes. That rattlesnakes only strike when coiled is not strictly accurate. "Paralyzed by fear, the victim is often incapable of flight and stupidly awaits its fate. This, I think, will explain all the so-

called cases of fascination." A better explanation of numerous cases is to be seen in the actions of snake and prey after the latter is stricken and the snake is watching its dying throes and waiting its fall. The author decides that snakes swallow their young for protection, and, without observations of his own, brings forward a lot of testimony most of which is hardly as positive as that cited for the snake that milks cows or the phantom ship, neither of which he chooses to believe. Many will see no compliment to the intelligence of his readers in the proof presented. Beauvois's story of the "five little serpents, each about the size of a goose-quill," is repeated. Plate xix. shows a large rattlesnake down the throat of which half-a-dozen young ones are scrambling. The young are not as long as the head of the mother; author and artist would be astonished to see how much larger at birth the young really are. Chateaubriand's fanciful story is once more placed before us. The copperhead is said to be the most dreaded, but, a few lines below, the water-moccasin "is perhaps equally to be feared." Of the moccasins Mr. Holder says, "They rarely attain a length of over twenty inches, and are short in proportion."

"A gentleman in Georgetown, S. C., writes: 'I had for several days noticed a very large moccasin coiled around the limb of a small tree near the pond. I concluded to capture it, and accordingly procured a large rabbit and placed it some way up from the pond, to toll her away from the water. She soon came down and disappeared under a large log; when next seen, she was near the bait, having traced it along the log on its opposite side. When she had nearly swallowed the bait, we made an advance; quickly disgorging it, she gave a shrill whistling noise, and five young snakes ran from under the log and ran down the throat of the old one. We cut off her head and found the five young, which made efforts to get away.'"

In the statement of a writer from Chesterfield, N. H., we find: "I saw a striped snake on the hillside, and noticed something moving about her head, and counted twenty little snakes from one and a half to two inches long. I made a move, and the old one opened her mouth, and they went in out of sight. I stepped back and waited, and in a few moments they began to come out. Then I made for the old snake, and killed her, and forced out several." "Another gentleman writes: 'Some years ago I came across a garter-snake with some young ones near her. Soon as she perceived me she hissed, and the young ones jumped down her throat, and she glided beneath a stone heap.'" "A party of hunters recently observed in Pennsylvania a black ball, two feet in diameter, rolling slowly down a hill, and found on examination that it was composed of hundreds of these reptiles [black snakes]." Mr. Holder says, also, that they are of a steel-blue uniform color, wild and untamable, "often engaging in encounters with other snakes, especially rattlesnakes, quickly killing and forcing them to disgorge their prey." In reality the color varies according to age from light bluish, spotted with brown, to glossy black; they are easily tamed, and swallow their prey alive. Professor Brackett's story tells that he found a lot of snakes' eggs, cut them open, liberating a number of young milk-adders, and that "soon the old snake appeared, and, after endeavoring apparently to encourage the young family thus suddenly initiated into the world, put its mouth down to the ground, and every one that had been liberated from the egg voluntarily and hastily disappeared within the abdomen of the old one." The black snake also is asserted to possess the peculiar habit of taking the young in its mouth. It is known to lay eggs and to be ophiophagous. An Ohio farmer, seeing a large water-snake in Deer Creek, "procured a pole for the purpose of killing her. One stroke slightly wounded her, and she immediately made for the water. After she had swum about her length, she wheeled, placing her under jaw just out of the edge of the water, and opened her mouth to the fullest extent. Some dozen young snakes, three to four inches long, then seemed to run, or rather swim, down her throat, after which she clumsily turned in search of a hiding place. He opened her, and found about twenty living young snakes, two or three seven or eight inches long. This shows them to have the same peculiar habit noticed in so many others." In a breath, some dozen three to four inches in length become about twenty, some of which are seven or eight inches long. The book would be incomplete without a chapter on the sea serpent.

A comical feature is the distribution of the pictures. In the chapter on "Meteors of the Sea" we find "American Gobies Crawling on the Shore"; in that on "Finny Light Bearers," "A Martinique Tree-Toad"; in "Old Friends," a "Sailor-Fish Wrecking a Canoe"; in "Our Common Snakes," a "Hermit Crab in a Tobacco Pipe," the "Pemaquid Sea Serpent," "Elasmosaurus," and "Camarasaurus"; in "Lost Races," a rattlesnake and an "Insect that Mimics a Twig"; in "The Tigers of the Sea," a caterpillar and a "Mammoth Adrift on an Icefield"; in "Living Lights," an "Extinct Sea Cow"; and in "The White Whalers," a "Gigantic Pyrosoma," a "Group of Flying Tree Toads," and an "Extinct Flying Reptile."

Moon-Lore. By the Rev. Timothy Harley, F.R.A.S. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1885.

THE author of this venture in "light literature," as he playfully terms it, has written an entertaining volume in a sprightly style. It is not an astronomical treatise, but confined in its scope to the knowledge man had of the moon before the days of telescopes and exact science. One might be surprised at the mass of this pre-scientific lore, had not comparative mythology and anthropology popularized much of its information. The man in the moon is, naturally, the leading character, and opens the play; then there is the woman in the moon, the hare and the dog and the rabbit, and all these in their life "play many parts," so that the moon seems well-inhabited. Many of these myths are interesting, and one—the story of Buddha's hare—is of the noblest order of religious parable. The remainder, and larger portion, of the volume is occupied with chapters on Moon-Worship, Moon-Superstition, and Moon-Inhabitation; and all these subjects are treated with fulness, intelligence, and a certain antiquarian charm in the composition which pleases the vacant hours. It seems to be a complete monograph on the subject, and in the division on superstition one will recognize many beliefs of his grandfathers and some still held.

It is interesting to note, further, that the author is a clergyman, and that, being thoroughly well-informed in the work of the modern comparative method which has made havoc of the supernaturalism of the religious sentiment, he loses no opportunity to assert the harmlessness of such knowledge and the desirability of it in common with all science. In not a few cases he diverges from the direct course of his narrative to deliver a five-minute sermon, and the effect is sometimes odd. Listen to this: "Whether we or our posterity will ever become better acquainted in this life with the man in the moon is problematical; but in the ages to come . . . he may be visible among the first who will declare, every man in his own tongue wherein he was born, the wonderful works of God. And he may be audible among the first who will lift their hallelujahs of undivided praise when every satellite shall be a chorister to laud the Universal King." The reader is then exhorted to learn "the music of eternity" by "high and holy living," in order that he may join in "the everlasting song," and so, "in one beatific moment," see more than hitherto "of the man in the moon." The entire seriousness of this is not the least attractive element in it; and we cannot refrain from quoting further from the last page of what is really an admirable work in its department, a sentence in which science and religion have reached a seemingly perfect fusion in the exaltation of "that Universal Father of Lights, with whom is no parallax nor descension." Too long contemplation of the moon is said to have uncanny effects, sometimes.

Victor Hugo. By Algernon Charles Swinburne. Worthington Co. 1886.

THE time for writing calmly of Victor Hugo has not yet come. Mr. Swinburne's rhapsody proves this. The book is merely a reprint of the articles published by him in the *Fortnightly Review* immediately after the death of the poet, together with that which appeared in 1883 when the final part of 'La Légende des Siècles' was published. It seems as if a short preface ought to have indicated this, which would have explained the haste apparent throughout. As a panegyric it has all the beauties of Mr. Swinburne's exuberant and enthusiastic style; it has none of the merits of a deliberate exposition of the great poet's work. It is an unmixed eulogy, spirited and genuinely sympathetic, but seldom discriminating, by a warm admirer, in many respects a disciple who has numerous points in common with *le maître*. The following passage, taken at random, may serve as a mild specimen of the writer's attitude:

"It will of course be understood that when I venture to select for special mention any special poem of Hugo's, I do not dream of venturing to suggest that others are not or may not be fully as worthy of homage, or that anything of this incomparable master's work will not requite our study or does not demand our admiration."

For Mr. Swinburne, Victor Hugo is a poet "not less than the best or lower than the greatest of all time," and the roll and the surge of his measured music are no less wonderful than those of Homer or Milton, or the English version of Job or Ezekiel or Isaiah.

Iconoclasm and Whitewash, and Other Papers. By Irving Browne. New York: James Osborne Wright. 1885.

THE sensational title of this volume is the worst thing about it, for it misrepresents the contents. The first essay, which bears this heading and recounts the various changes in traditionary and anecdotal history and in the reputations of both the good and the bad, is also the least interesting of the four because its subject-matter has been well threshed before. "Bibliomania," "Shaksperian Criticism," and "Gravestones" are all better, except that the last is almost too serious for its subject. The essays, taken together, belong to a kind of writing, like Donald Mitchell's, which is fast disappearing—to the leisurely, discursive, genial, anecdote-loving, broadly-read style, with bits of out-of-the-way information, quiet humor, pleasant and humane thoughts, and an unfailing good taste. They are not meant for instruction, but mere entertainment, and they rest the mind. One of the brighter patches occurs in the review of some Shaksperian commentaries, where an account is given of the semi-mythical inquiry into the character of the "merry man" who was the nurse's husband in "Romeo and Juliet." The concluding essay, however, is a discussion in detail of taste in mortuary memorials, and from the examples cited the author appears to have a wide acquaintance with American cemeteries. What he has to say on this subject is wholly admirable.

Fine Arts.

THE MORGAN COLLECTION.

THE collection of pictures formed by the late Mrs. Mary J. Morgan, which is now on exhibition at the American Art Galleries, is especially rich in the works of the Fontainebleau school and of the other men of that wonderful generation, and no better occasion is likely ever to offer itself to art lovers for a study of the real qualities of the classic French landscape school, and of the one or two great figure painters that, somehow, one always associates with it. A glance at the catalogue, with its 8 Corots—several of them exceptionally fine and important—its 17 Diazes, its 5 Duprés, its 11 Millets, its seven Rousseaus, its 7 Troyons, and its 4 Daubignys, is sufficient of itself to show what a wealth of the art of this period is here, available for study; and though the art of other schools is less fully and satisfactorily represented, yet there is enough of such for comparison.

The first thing that strikes one in such a list as the above is that, while most of the artists contained in it are landscape painters, yet the figure painter Millet and the cattle painter Troyon take their places there as of right, and if one were to add the names of Delacroix and Decamps the list would still have a certain homogeneity; the only name in it that seems at all out of place being indeed that of a pure landscapist—Daubigny. This is only one proof of a general truth, that choice of subject forms no proper basis for classification in art. It is not what subject a painter chooses to treat, but his manner of treating it, that shows us to what school he belongs. If we would know whether or no such a man was a great painter, we ask, *not*, "Did he paint figures, or landscape, or merely still life?" but, "Was he a colorist or a draughtsman? did he submit himself to the actual and become a realist? did he weakly abandon himself to his imagination, and, finding nature 'put him out,' give up the struggle and become a dreamer? Or did he, grasping firmly at great truths and neglecting small ones, dominating the actual and submitting it to his imagination, yet never losing sight of truth, become a master?" These are the questions we ask ourselves, and to which we must somehow find answers if we would place any artist in his proper niche in our Pantheon. Tried by such tests, we find that the painters we are studying were, in their varying degrees, colorists and men of imagination. The two qualities go together, for no colorist ever was or ever can be a realist. Study carefully any one of the completed pictures by Millet in this collection—the little one called "Gathering Beans" is perhaps the most magnificent of them all—and then study any of the three by Gérôme. You will find that the revolutionary, the innovator Millet—the man who dared to abandon the beaten track of classicism, and to bring down upon his head the anathema of the big-wigs by painting the peasant as he knew him—is the most profound of poets and of idealists; and you will find that the polished draughtsman, the continuator of the classic tradition, is at bottom the coldest of realists, seeing nothing beyond the actual model posed before him, or only escaping from the actual by the help of scientific and calculated composition. Gérôme, in spite of his classical training, is the cool and scientific observer; Millet, in spite of his abandonment of tradition and his devotion to nature, remains the passionate *musician*, playing with his deep chords of blue and red and evolving magisterial harmonies from them. He is a colorist by nature, and it is necessary for him that each canvas should be perfect in its harmony, each note of color perfectly balancing every other, and direct imitation becomes impossible to him.

All the work of the school of painters we are discussing is alike in this. Look at the three grand and lovely Corots in Gallery A. Look at the fine and sombre Diaz in the same room: "Sunset After a Storm." Look at the remarkably similar "Twilight," by Rousseau, or Troyon's magnificent "Return from the Farm," with the black cow. These men are primarily painters of pictures. The canvas, as a whole—as a lovely piece of tone and color to look at and to enjoy for its own sake, as one might enjoy a piece of music—is first with them, and nature is second. They are artists, not imitators. There are little miracles of observation in Meissonier and in Gérôme, even in Vibert and Dagnan-Bouveret, of which they show no sign, but they have produced beautiful pictures and the others have too often produced little better than colored photographs—accurate records of observed facts. Even the classic and polished insipidities of Bouguereau and Lefèvre are at bottom only the products of a kind of emasculated realism, prettifying nature, but hardly aiming higher than to amuse by successful imitation of picked and chosen models, and alike devoid of imagination and of decorative feeling.

But the imaginative temperament of the colorist has its dangers when it is not controlled by a hearty love and reverence for nature. Pass from the great work of the great masters of this school to Dupré's "Symphony," and you feel at once that art has too far got the better of nature, and you revolt from the entire artificiality of the picture. One feels smothered in paint. It is well to be ideal and artistic, but there is health too in the love of nature, and while we willingly allow an artist to sacrifice the truth of literal imitation, are we prepared to allow also the sacrifice of essential truth? After all, there is a sound basis of right in the world's notion that painting is to some extent a statement of facts; and while we are willing that the painter should choose his facts, and sacrifice the small ones to the large ones, and imitation to essential truth, and while we demand of him that his statements shall be in beautiful language, as we do of the poet, yet we are no more prepared to admit that his statement shall be *false* than that the poet's shall be. And here, undoubtedly, lies the weakness of this great school of modern painting. The great ones sometimes, the smaller often, sacrifice nature to art too completely. In many of Diaz's landscapes, and in most of his figure subjects, and in nearly everything of Dupré's, one is in a world too thoroughly artificial for healthy human comfort.

It is a common error to imagine that the men whom "nature puts out"—in whom "natural objects deaden imagination" — are the men of the most powerful imaginations. Is not the truth, rather, that the strong imagination is that which dominates nature and moulds it to uses, and then works most mightily when it is seemingly most subjected to law, and that the imagination which flies nature and is "deadened" by it, is either weak in itself or is unsupported by sufficient knowledge to master its material? The weakness that flies nature, and the weakness that submits to nature, do not greatly differ, though the result is so different. The mighty men work calmly *with* nature, knowing always what to take and what to leave, neither slavishly copying the unessential nor weakly losing their grasp of the essential. As Fromentin has said of Rembrandt, the struggle of production in art is ever "the struggle between the actual as it imposes itself and the truth as the artist sees it in himself." It is cowardice to give up the struggle until one has attained something of that final reconciliation of the warring elements which is the triumph of art. And this reconciliation has nowhere in modern art been so nearly attained as in the best work of Millet. Of the weakness that denies nature no more apposite example could be found than the "Adoration of the Magi," by Monticelli, in this collection, in which one may look in vain for any indication that the artist had ever seen one fact of nature, or anything but the dreams of an imagination too feeble to embody them in visible and comprehensible form.

On the contrary, the great charm of Daubigny will always be that he combined with powers of imagination and composition not of the highest order, but sufficiently great to preserve him from mere realism, a clear perception and hearty love of the beauties of nature, and that his pictures refresh one like spring water after the feverishness of Diaz, and charm one like music after the mechanical imitation of much modern work. His little picture here, called "On the Seine," is an exquisite example of his most lovely qualities.

We have left ourselves little space to discuss other elements of the collection, such as the realism tempered by sentimentality of Breton, who, perhaps more than any other one man, is responsible for that form of modern art which has ended by sacrificing so much beauty and so many truths to the single truth of open daylight; or the brilliant charms of Stevens and Fortuny, or the nameless work that is neither realism nor idealism nor naturalism, but is only mechanism. Of this last class one would like to say something, but one despairs of doing any good.

MÉRYON'S ETCHINGS.

THE exhibition of Méryon's collected etchings, now visible at Mr. Keppel's gallery on Sixteenth Street, is worth having formed and worth seeing; it is especially useful in America, where there are positively no artists, etchers, or painters who attend to Méryon's specialty of street architecture. Méryon's example teaches how to make street-subjects look grand, impressive, interesting, without quackery or forcing. As Hamerton truly says, "his work was sanity itself"; it never yields to the temptation of picturesque raggedness, of piquant splotching, of vignetted margins. On his pencil sketch for the "Notre-Dame-Bridge" subject, here shown from Mr. Mansfield's collection, he has written, "Taken with a camera lucida"; and many of the themes have that aspect. The lines of walls are often ruled, and the rest of the time drawn as true as eye can guide hand; and to make a wall look crumbly he never resorts to Prout's forlorn trick of a dash and a point, like a Morse telegraphic despatch.

He attains beauty by his feeling for broad flashes of light, and by knowing how to make the paper work for him, the calm basking gleam being simply bare surface, with a calculated environment. Nothing can exceed his skill in knowing when to leave himself alone; thus the pediment of "St.-Étienne du Mont," where the warm freestone looks so much like an ivory cameo, has hardly any work in it at all: only the slight shadows of traceries and pilasters are kept perfectly large and flat, and this sunny gable prints itself on a sky made of ruled etched lines, as bold and hard as any tint laid by Dürer or Marcantonio in the infancy of engraving. His skies are simple reliefs for his architecture; their values are exquisitely true and wise, but they have no quality in themselves. When, to give these skies incident, he refrains from the etching-needle, and sketches-in cottony clouds with the dry-point,

these clouds are thoroughly bad in themselves—as inorganic as his vines and trees in other places; only their whites and grays are sensitively adapted to the contrast of a shadow-swept spire or a jutting gargoyle.

His fine instinct comes in when there is the quality of stonework to be expressed. The "Pont Neuf" is a picture consisting almost entirely of the inside of a great round arch in shadow; the skill consists in representing this shadow with lines spaced just right and made just deep enough, so as to keep the flicker of light beating up from under the bridge. There are proofs of this subject printed lighter and proofs printed darker—it is no matter: the variation only suggests the change made by some passing cloud; there is always the flicker of light beating up from the water, and this is the beautiful thing that it was essential to keep. In Gosselin's counterfeit of this plate, hung alongside, the shadow under the arch is true enough as to value, but it is done with pains and confusion, and the shadow is mere mud on the paper.

Méryon selects picturesqueness with lover-like passion, and then reports it with calmest lucidity; no better choice of "bits" could be made than his, yet he has none of the melodramatic lying usually to be detected in the lovers of "bits." The "Gallery of Notre Dame" is a kind of jungle of flowering Gothic colonnets; but the artist's effort is to range them, not to clash them together in a Hugo-like chiaroscuro. The "Notre Dame Pumping-machine" rises out of a net of interlaced timberwork, not at all easy to draw; but Méryon studies out the construction analytically, as Jacquemart did his famous bamboo lattice supporting the criminal's head. The corner turret in the "House of Marat," the stone demon on the cathedral tower, and portions of nearly all the other subjects, are just what most sketchers would treat with their most glittering embroidery, as vignettes; but Méryon never embroiders, and in all such places thinks chiefly how to keep his breadths of opal light. His touch was rather restrained and painful than inventive, and he uttered his deep knowledge of values in schoolroom terms, traditional and formal. This gives a quaint prophet-like gravity to every statement, and he is hardly ever more refreshing or better worth attending to than when he has to express some solid convent or other wall, checkered with square black windows, and looking in this treatment as if it had come from old time to stay into new time. What probably created Méryon's worth, to eyes a little tired of the silky lithographs of Célestin Nanteuil, was just this sober-sided austerity, inherited from seventeenth-century engravers who printed without "smudges." Méryon in the present series shows us his education. We see, for instance, his painful copy after Ducereau, the "Salle des Pas-perdus," a most back-breaking piece of drawing, with a double nave filled with rows of innumerable statues in perspective; and the "Old Louvre" and half-a-dozen other fine old things copied from Zeeman, each made up of crumpled and gritty lines like a Bewick. And out of this kind of apprenticeship, and out of reminiscences, too, of Piranesi, the artist constructs his style, using an antique sensitiveness to precision as a kind of fabric to support his modern sensitiveness to effects of light.

What is wayward and Blakelike about him is not his style, but certain definite inventions, as, the shoals of air-borne sharks flying about the Secretary of the Navy's office, and the "Pont au Change," seen here in several states, with the sky first a blank, then darkened with large birds, which change in a later printing to an argosy of balloons.

His madness is said to have been incipiently brought on by the toil over the plate of "San Francisco." This etching, thirty-nine inches across, is a sort of prospectus undertaken for the bankers, Bayerque & Pioche, and is a queer reminder of the shanty metropolis of 1855. He was to construct this panoramic view from a series of five daguerreotypes, inconsistent in perspective and in lighting; in the very middle of the scene, his documents became quite unintelligible, and he had to fill up the space with allegorical figures supporting a label. His letter to Burty describing his trouble in biting this plate—the rust had got at the copper and enlarged his lines under the varnish—reads like Cellini's account of his "Perseus." The task, however, was by no means gigantic; there are armies of young architects in Paris who would have thrown his shanties into perspective for him for a few dollars. But Méryon was so poor that at the epoch of his finest work, the "Rear of Notre Dame," he could not pay ten sous to his printer for a couple of trial proofs.

Méryon died mad in 1868 in the pauper madhouse, and was buried as a pauper in the graveyard of Charenton asylum, at the age of forty-seven. The present collection consists of about one hundred and thirty prints, some of them lent by Mr. Avery and Mr. Mansfield.

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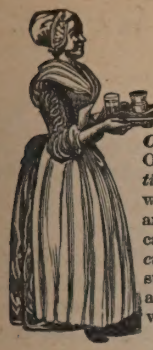

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Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1885, to 31st December, 1885		$3,770,094 30
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 4, 1886.

The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S special message to the Senate on the subject of anti-Chinese outrages breathes the spirit of humanity and Christianity. It adds one new fact to what was previously known of the Rock Springs massacre — namely, that all the participants in that fiendish outrage were, like the Chinese themselves, unnaturalized foreigners. It had been reported unofficially that a large number, perhaps a majority, of these miscreants were aliens. We are now officially advised that they were all of this class. We venture to call the attention of the Knights of Labor to this circumstance, and to ask them how their condition is helped by lending countenance to the assaults of European "pauper laborers" upon those of Asiatic origin. If it be true that the Chinese only come here to make a little money and then go home, that ought to be an argument in their favor, from the trades-union standpoint, as against a class who come here equally impoverished and with the intention of remaining permanently. If it be true that the population of the Chinese Empire is such as to make the immigration of its subjects to this country an alarming matter, it is equally true that the populations of Italy, Hungary, Bohemia, and Poland, from whom the turbulent masses like the Rock Springs murderers are recruited, are large enough for all practical purposes. Moreover, the Chinese immigration has been stopped, while the Italian, Hungarian, etc., is a continuing stream. The logic of the situation is that if the Knights of Labor lend their sympathy to either class of foreigners, it ought rather to be extended to the Chinese, by way of encouraging them to kill off or drive out the Rock Springs and Seattle mobocrats.

The President's discussion of the Chinese Government's claim to indemnity for the Rock Springs outrage is incomplete and unsatisfactory. It makes no mention of our guarantee, in the new treaty of 1880, of protection to the Chinese laborers already here in all their rights—a guarantee which ought not to have been necessary in any case, but which was given in return for the Chinese Government's acceptance of the modifications of the old treaty; and it asserts, wrongly as we think, that there is no principle of international law requiring us to pay damages in such cases. Moreover, it is a well-known fact that in an exactly similar case we demanded a money indemnity from China and collected it. We not only collected pay for all the damage suffered, but several hundred thousand dollars more, which remained in the Treasury twenty years or more, and never was paid back until a swindling counter claim of an American citizen against China was trumped up, which made it worth while for the Washington lobby to take an interest in the matter, the Chinese Government having agreed to pay the claim out of its money wrongfully held in the United States Treasury. A history of this transaction, beginning with the Canton mob and reciting our demand for indemnity, would have been the fitting sequel to the narrative which the President gives of the Rock Springs massacre. It is not true that this is a matter for the "benevolent consideration" of Congress. Viewed in the light of our own precedents, it is a matter for the exercise of impartial justice. If there should be another mob in Canton, as is not unlikely, and if the lives and property of American citizens should be sacrificed, who would pay the damage in such case? Another fact worth considering is that China now has a naval force of very respectable proportions, and that a second attempt on our part to frighten her with a display of guns in her own waters would certainly miscarry.

Mr. Hamilton Lindsay, of San Francisco, has written a letter to Mr. Perry Belmont, Chairman of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs, touching our obligations in the matter of protecting the Chinese against violence, which it ought to be difficult for any American to read without a blush. We pursued the Chinese in 1844 for a treaty of commerce and amity, and got them to sign one guaranteeing the persons and property of Americans residing in China against mob violence. The Chinese did not ask for, and we did not offer, a reciprocal stipulation providing for the protection of Chinese residing in the United States. There were few or no Chinese here then, and even if there had been many, we should probably have considered it beneath the dignity of a civilized nation to make any such stipulation. Christian Powers nowadays consider protection for life and property for all dwellers within their borders one of the primary duties of Government. In 1858 we pursued the Chinese for another treaty, and got from them a concession of absolute freedom of emigration for Chinese subjects, and absolute freedom of entrance into China for Americans, both on the most-favored-nation footing. In 1870, however, we found, or thought we found, that there were too many Chinese coming to us, and pursued China again for a modification of the treaty restricting their numbers, which China agreed to, and we in return solemnly bound ourselves to give the Chinese resident in the United States all "the protection, rights, immunities, and exemptions to which they were entitled under the existing treaties." Moreover, the Commissioners, in asking for the modification, declared that the United States Government recognized it as a "duty to maintain them [the Chinese resident here] in the exercise of their treaty privileges against any opposition, whether it takes the shape of popular violence or of legislative enactment."

What followed is both shameful and instructive. In October, 1880, a fortnight before the conclusion of this last modification of the treaty, there was an anti-Chinese riot at Denver, Col., attended with murder and pillage. The Chinese Minister at Washington asked for satisfaction, and Mr. Evarts, then Secretary of State, pointed out to him that the United States were powerless in the matter, inasmuch as Colorado was a sovereign State, and the arrest and punishment of the guilty parties concerned exclusively the State authorities. As to indemnity, he said he "knew of no national obligation . . . which rendered it incumbent on the Government of the United States to make indemnity to the Chinese residents of Denver who suffered losses from the operations of the mob." This was pretty cool, or at least must have seemed so to the heathen Chinaman, but it was not as smart as the answer he got afterward from Mr. James G. Blaine. The complaint was renewed when this statesman became Secretary of State, and he dismissed the Chinaman promptly, with the observation that Chen Lan Pin "would perceive that in no part of the treaty is there any provision reciprocal with regard to subjects of China resident in the United States," and he added that he concurred with the learned Evarts touching the absence of all responsibility on the part of the United States for murder and robbery committed on Chinamen in any of the States. To poor Chen Lan Pin's observation that China had treated with the United States, and not with the separate States, neither of these illustrious men made any reply. Blaine's discovery, and his unblushing use of it, that there was no reciprocal obligation on the part of America in the treaty, was perhaps as characteristic as anything in his remarkable career, not excepting the speech about the Little Rock bonds. And yet every session of Congress is opened with a solemn prayer to Almighty God, and Blaine is the candidate of the more moral of the two parties for the Chief Magistracy.

The opposition to the Morrison Tariff Bill has thus far been rather perfunctory than real. There has been nothing like the hostility which was brought against the "horizontal" bill in the last Congress. The reason for the less excited state of feeling at the present time is partly in consequence of the fact that the reductions on manufactured goods are very slight, and not sufficient to cause any greater importation of such goods than under the present tariff. In part, also, it is because the protectionists themselves see that the tariff must be revised some time. Among the ceaseless changes in human affairs, the changes in industry are the most incessant, the most radical. A tariff suited to American industry according to the protectionist philosophy twenty years ago is necessarily out of gear to-day, and is growing more so every year. New implements and methods are coming into vogue all the time, both here and abroad, which render the Morrill tariff nugatory or worse. Consequently, there is a growing irritation, among those who cling to "our industrial defences," against the old lines of defence, and a disposition to

consent to some new arrangement, provided it be not adverse to their own particular interests. This element of discord among the protected classes will surely break down the Morrill tariff at no very distant day, although the time may not have been reached as yet.

Mr. Morrison's bill is important chiefly in its additions of raw materials to the free list. These are mainly lumber, ores, salt, and coal. The manufacturers are all interested in the cheapening of these articles, but they have hitherto opposed any reduction in the duties on them in order to preserve the appearance of consistency, and to avoid giving offence to the producers of those articles. Such motives may still be sufficiently powerful to keep the phalanx unbroken, but it is growing weaker every day. The disagreement between the wool-growers and the woollen manufacturers amounts almost to open war. The differences between the New England iron manufacturers and the coal producers of the Middle States cannot be smothered much longer. Still less can the conflicting interests of the salt boilers on the one hand, and the farmers and pork packers on the other. The stars in their courses are fighting against the existing tariff, if not against protective tariffs in general.

On the 29th ult. Senator Eustis of Louisiana informed a wondering Senate that the Sub-Treasury at New Orleans had refused to receive silver dollars on deposit and to issue certificates therefor, and that the consequences were extremely embarrassing to business men in the Southwest. So he introduced and the Senate passed a resolution inquiring into the matter. The answer returned by the Secretary of the Treasury showed that the banks in the country tributary to New Orleans were trying to induce the Assistant Treasurer of the United States at that city to make his office a sort of clearing-house for silver, sending him silver dollars, and asking him to pay over the corresponding certificates to other banks. He declined to act in this capacity, for the two-fold reason that he was not authorized by law to do so, and because he had not a sufficient number of clerks to undertake such an addition to his system of bookkeeping. In this refusal he was sustained by Treasurer Jordan. The correspondence with the State National Bank at New Orleans has a pathetic side. The cashier of that institution writes under date of January 2:

"I should thank you greatly if you could arrange some plan by which the country banks could be accommodated in this matter, as I fear, silver will, if non-convertible, drive both gold and greenbacks from circulation, and greatly impair the circulating medium of this section, at least."

And again under date January 11:

"We are being overflowed with silver dollars, and unless we can exchange them at the Treasury for silver certificates it looks as though silver would soon be our only circulating medium."

The answer returned to the cashier was that silver certificates would be delivered in exchange for silver dollars as rapidly as the dollars could be handled by the force employed at the Sub-Treasury, and that this would be done on the democratic principle of first come first served, but that a general banking business could not be carried on under existing laws or with the present number of clerks. The apprehensions felt in the Southwest lest silver should soon be the only circulating medium are hard to understand, when we consider the almost unappeasable appetite for that metal that is said to prevail there.

The interview between Senator Evarts and the Committee of Savings Bank Officers at his office on Saturday about silver must have been an affecting scene, but he remained obdurate. Not one word could they get out of him, we are told, touching his position on this great question. Indeed, he seems disposed to treat it as his private affair, like his religion. In these days of excessive publicity, however, there is something rather fine in the Senator's determination not to let the working of his mind on this subject be seen by every inquisitive loafer. He probably asks himself, and not without excuse, whether there is not something morbid in this widespread desire to know where he stands on the silver question, and whether sensible people ought not to fight against it and try to overcome it. But we must remind him that to the savings-bank depositors in this State it is a matter of business. It is all-important to them to know whether they are going to get back the full amount of their deposits or only 75 per cent. of them, and they are therefore of course reasonably anxious to learn what view their Senator takes of it.

Professor Ellis Thompson gave at New Haven last week the most profound explanation of the smallness of our trade with South America we have yet seen. He said: "We buy of South America twice as much as South America buys of us. Why? Not because our commodities are too dear, but because we have no ships. England carries the greater part of our goods for us, and manages to make our purchases of South America pay for her hardware." We had no idea that the wickedness of that dreadful old creature England went so far as this. We wish the Professor, while he was about it, had explained how it is we buy so much of South America. How do our purchases get here? Not surely on pack animals. If they come here by sea, they surely come in ships; and if it pays to bring them here, why do not the same ships take back our goods in exchange? Even if England takes what we buy to pay for her hardware, why can we not keep her hands off of what we have to sell? Could we not send goods down by night in the return ships, unbeknownst to England? The Chilians say—in fact, they told the great South American Commission the other day—that the reason they do not buy more of us is that our goods are too dear, or, in other words, that they do business on business principles. Is it possible that Professor Thompson knows more about the matter than the Chilians themselves?

Representative Henderson, of Iowa, dug up the bloody shirt and made another attempt to wave it in Congress on Thursday. He cited the fact that 64 out of the 66 votes against the bill which was recently passed increasing widows' pensions from $8 to $12 a month were cast by Southern Democrats, and virtually charged them with disloyalty for such action. Mr. Henderson and his kind might as well understand that the day for this sort of demagogism is gone, never to return. The South is just as much a part of the Union as the North, and a Representative from South Carolina or Mississippi has just as good a right to oppose any measure which does not commend itself to his judgment as a Representative from Wisconsin or New York, without having his patriotism called in question. Congressman Hewitt of New York and Congressman Bragg of Wisconsin, the latter the gallant commander of the "Iron Brigade" in the Union army, voted against the increase of widows' pensions, and nobody has any more right to "arraign" the sixty-four Southern members who stood with them than he has to charge either Mr. Hewitt or General Bragg with disloyalty. The increase of widows' pensions above $8, the rate before the war, now that the cost of living has sunk to the ante-war level, was unjustifiable, and it is only to be regretted that more Northern members had not, like Messrs. Hewitt and Bragg and their sixty-four associates from the South, enough independence to oppose a measure which increases taxes by more than $6,000,000 a year.

As things look now, the only hope of saving the Federal Treasury from bankruptcy, through the demands upon it threatened by the various pension jobs now pending, is in the opposition of the "Confederate Brigadiers." So many Northern Congressmen of both parties have entered the race to capture the "soldier vote" by favoring any scheme which has been diligently worked up to formidable proportions by the claim agents, that unless Southern Senators and Representatives stand firm against these dangerous projects, they are likely to be carried through. In other words, Northern Republicans must appeal to Southern Democrats to save them and the country from the disastrous consequences of a demagogism which conquers the majority of Northern Congressmen of both parties. For it must be understood that any bill to increase the running expenses of the Government—whether by marking up pension rates now paid, increasing the pension roll, appropriating money for schools, or guaranteeing $2,500,000 a year interest on a scheme like the Eads Ship Railway, just reported favorably—involves increased taxation. As Senator Plumb, of Kansas, well said, in opposing the Blair $77,000,000 Educational Bill:

"Who knows where this money is to come from? The Secretary of the Treasury, in his annual report, recently submitted to Congress, estimates that the requirements of the national Government, including the sinking fund, will this year exhaust the entire revenue of the Government. Will any one vote for this bill if by so doing he is required at the next moment of time to impose taxes whereby the money to be appropriated shall be levied from the people of the United States?"

This argument ought to be driven home whenever any pension job or other unjustifiable scheme for increasing the expenditures of the Government is broached in Congress. Let men like Mr. Hewitt every time propose amendments raising the additional money thus required by restoring the tax on tea and coffee, reviving the income tax, or putting internal-revenue taxes back to the old schedule, and the dema-

gogues will be checkmated. Meanwhile let all good citizens be thankful that Southern Congressmen are disposed to do their duty, if some Northern men are afraid to do so, in fighting pension jobs.

Mr. Blaine has now got the second volume of his "History" into the market, and has supplied the newspapers plentifully with extracts, and his supporters begin to display renewed activity in the press. This ought to warn the other candidates that they have no time to lose if they mean to have their histories or other compositions ready for the campaign of 1888. Logan is the only one as yet who has been able to give out any extracts, but his history is coming, and will soon be laid before the world complete. For style we think he surpasses Blaine, and he has more imagination, and, what is very important, a better memory.

It is a long time since the trunk-line railways, or any railways, have taken so indefensible and dangerous a position as that which they have assumed in reference to the transportation of beef from the West to the East. Of course there are criminations and recriminations among the parties most immediately affected. Charges of "monopoly" are made against the dressed-beef shippers, and these are met by accusations on the other side that the railway managers are privately interested in stock-yards and abattoirs. The public will not be able to distinguish the truth where so much dust is purposely kicked up. They should, therefore, not allow themselves to be diverted by charges and countercharges, but rather keep a steady view of the grounds assumed by the railway companies, through their authorized commissioner, Mr. Fink, for the recent advance in the rates of freight on dressed beef. The position assumed by Mr. Fink is, "that the cost of transportation on a pound of beef from Chicago to New York shall be the same, whether the cattle are slaughtered in Chicago or slaughtered in New York." We observe that Mr. Armour contends that the advance in rates is considerably more than sufficient to equalize the naked cost, and we presume that he is right, because all the presumptions must be against a combination which takes its stand on the doctrine that *it* has the right to fix the price of beef in New York. This is a most fantastic notion, and one which, we supposed, had been abandoned long ago. It is certainly a doctrine which cannot stand long in this country. It embodies all the heresies that gave birth to the anti-monopoly leagues and the granger organizations and the granger legislation. It is obnoxious to sound political economy and to the spirit of the age.

The obvious and patent facts are these: A new and cheaper method of bringing beef from the producer to the consumer has been found. The cheapness consists in conveying the beef without the offal—in conveying the product of the animal instead of the animal himself, dispensing with the need of feeding and caring for him en route and of curing him if he falls sick, as he is apt to do. The railroad companies throw themselves in the way of this notable boon to the public, and say that it shall not be. They have the assurance, the audacity—we can call it by no softer name—to say that progress in the useful arts shall stop at their bidding. They have the indiscretion and the want of tact to make this avowal at a time when the public mind is in an extremely sensitive state, and when Congress is considering measures to curb their pretensions. By such steps they put it out of the power of statesmen and journalists who would be glad to defend them against the attacks of demagogues, to render them any effective assistance. They give themselves away altogether. We have heard of cases where isolated railways in the mining regions have put the rates of transportation on silver so as to get as much money out of it, whether it was delivered to them in the form of raw ore, or of concentrated ore, or of bullion. Instances have been cited where railways have fixed their rates so as to require lumbermen to ship the whole log instead of sawing it up and leaving the slabs and bark behind. Indeed, a multitude of parallel cases might be found, but none cou'd be found more flagitious than the one that is now the subject of hot dispute between Mr. Armour and Mr. Fink.

The Typographical Union and the Trades Assembly of Newark have receded from their demand that the *Advertiser* should discharge certain printers who did not belong to the Union, and have removed the boycott ordered on that paper. The demand and the boycott were so obnoxious to all just conceptions of fairness and of the rights of men, that public opinion bore them down with an irresistible weight even in a city unusually exposed to the terrors of boycotting. Although the *Advertiser* has gained a victory, it would perhaps be rash to assume that the Typographical Union will abandon its intention of driving out all printers who do not belong to their society and submit to their rules. This is a phase of trades-unionism which has been with difficulty smothered in-doors in the past, and there is much reason to fear that it cannot be so smothered much longer. It is this phase which led to the closing of the great McCormick Reaper Works at Chicago. Seven men in the moulders' room did not belong to the Moulders' Union. They must be discharged under penalty of a general strike. These seven men must be driven to do something which they did not want to do, under the threat of closing up an establishment which disburses $3,000 a day in wages. Mr. McCormick saw that compliance with this demand was equivalent to handing over the entire property to the strikers, and he concluded that it might as well perish by rust as by being administered by a committee of the Trades Assembly. It is a wonder that Mr. McCormick has not been boycotted. It would be so easy to serve notice on all the farmers in the Northwest that if they bought McCormick's reapers the Knights of Labor would not buy their grain.

A party of striking miners, in France the other day, attacked one of the engineers of the company, named Watrin, in his own house, and threw him out of an upper story window to the mob outside, who kicked him to death as he lay on the ground. In a debate which followed in the Chamber on a motion to censure the Government for prosecuting the murderers, a M. Basly read a long speech justifying the murder, and 188 Radical deputies supported him by their votes. This is the most marked expression we have had yet of the new Socialist doctrine that the right of war, that is, the right to kill in order to accomplish your purpose, resides in any body of men, however small, or even in individuals. The Nihilists have long practised it, but nobody until now has produced it in a legislative assembly. But it is part and parcel of the gospel of anarchy. It is thought that the debate will damage the Republic with the peasantry, who do not take freely to these urban views.

The speech of Herr von Scholz, Prussian Minister of Finance, on the recent motion in the Landtag in favor of international bimetallism, is published in the last number of *Bradstreet's*. It is a singularly clear and impartial statement of the views entertained by the Government of Prussia, and therefore of Germany, both being under the leadership of Prince Bismarck. Herr von Scholz begins by stating that he is not a fanatical adherent of a gold currency, but that, looking backward over a period of twelve years, he cannot help felicitating all the German States on the wisdom displayed in seizing the opportunity, which occurred in 1872, to put their monetary system in harmony with the progress of the age. It was not, he said, an arbitrary step, but a wise endeavor to conform to the already existing fact that gold only was in request as international money. If any persons complained of this, he would remind them that under the law they could still pay their debts in silver both at home and abroad. So could the Frenchman, the Italian, and the Hollander. If they did not avail themselves of this privilege, it must be because they believed that their credit would be impaired by doing so. And so with their Governments. Neither law nor treaty prevents them from paying their interest in silver at home or abroad. They are restrained from doing so by "the natural coercion of general conviction which constrains everybody, even without a treaty." Referring to petitions which had been received in favor of international bimetallism, the speaker said:

"These petitions, most of them containing but three lines, requesting to have bimetallism or international currency introduced as soon as possible, speak of it as a well-known unalterable thing, just like speaking of introducing a general obligation to send children to school or general military service. As yet I have not been able to find anybody capable of giving me but an approximately satisfactory answer to the question, What is international double currency? Gentlemen, one of the most eager agitators for bimetallism in France, M. Cernuschi, at the beginning of the agitation, gave a sketch of a treaty, as he imagined it, between the states of the civilized world, embodying international bimetallism. The friends of the subject have closed the book at this page, and spoken no more about the treaty. The countrymen of Mr. Cernuschi himself have preserved the profoundest silence regarding it. I never heard that any one in real earnest dared to acknowledge himself an adherent of this project; and though there are doubtless very clever, diligent, and talented men among the German bimetallists, who daily write articles, books, and pamphlets on the subject, I have not met with anyone yet who dared to propose a bimetallist treaty as he imagined it, and as he thought it might be signed after an exact scrutiny by every lover of his country."

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 24, to TUESDAY, March 2, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND sent a long message to the Senate on Monday afternoon, clearly defining his position on the question of the Senate's right to demand papers from the Executive in regard to removals made by the President. It is impossible to summarize the argument in a brief paragraph. Among the points made are, that the Constitution gives to the President the sole right of removal or suspension, and that he is responsible to the people alone; that those sections of the Tenure of Office Act which directed the President to report to the Senate his reasons for suspensions have been repealed; and that the papers asked for are not official, but personal and private, and under the full authority of the President alone. In conclusion the President says: "There are no grounds for an allegation that the fear of being found false to my professions influences me in declining to submit to the demands of the Senate. I have not constantly refused to suspend officials, and thus incurred the displeasure of political friends, and yet wilfully broken faith with the people for the sake of being false to them. Neither the discontent of party friends nor the allurements constantly offered of confirmations of appointees, conditioned upon the avowal that suspensions have been made on party grounds alone, nor the threat proposed in the resolutions now before the Senate that no confirmations will be made unless the demands of that body be complied with, is sufficient to discourage or deter me from following in the way which I am convinced leads to better government for the people."

The message created great indignation in the Republican ranks and surprised the Democrats. The latter generally approve the message, but add that the usages of the Senate were not, perhaps, observed in sending in the message at that time. The amount of real regard for the good of the civil service that the Senate feels in its fight with the President, is shown by the fact that it has confirmed the nomination of I. Freeman Raisin to be Naval Officer at Baltimore, against whose appointment the civil-service reformers of Maryland made so vigorous a protest on the best grounds.

In the Senate on Monday Mr. Pugh (Dem., Ala.), representing the minority of the Committee on Judiciary, submitted the views of the minority on the resolution referred to that Committee concerning the office of the District-Attorney for the Southern District of Alabama, known as the Duskin case. The report is three or four times as long as the majority report. It embodies no resolutions. It says that when President Cleveland came into office he found about 95 per cent. of the offices filled by Republicans appointed as a reward for party services. The party to whom the President owed his nomination and election has been exiled from all participation in the civil administration of the Government for nearly a quarter of a century. Notwithstanding these facts, the 650 nominations sent to the Senate in the suspension cases had been allowed to remain before the committees without consideration and final disposition. Referring to the demand for papers, the report says the minority admits that any and every public document or record on the files of any department or in the possession of the President relating to any subject whatever over which either house of Congress has any power, jurisdiction or control under the Constitution, is subject to the call or inspection of either house for use within its Constitutional powers and under its jurisdiction. But if all the power granted in the Constitution over the subject-matter is vested in the President exclusively, the only rightful custodian of all such papers is the chief executive officer. The minority, after making as diligent a search as time and opportunity allowed, feel satisfied that from 1789 to 1867, a period of seventy-eight years, not a single case can be found in which the Senate in executive session directed the head of any department or requested the President to transmit to the Senate in executive session documents relating exclusively or materially to removals of Federal officers by the President during the recess or the sessions of the Senate, and such direction was obeyed by any head of department or the President.

President Cleveland on Tuesday sent a message to Congress on the Chinese question. He reviews the Rock Springs massacre and the treaty obligations of the United States, and concludes that "While the United States Government is under no obligation—whether by the express terms of its treaties with China or the principles of international law—to indemnify these Chinese subjects for losses caused by such means and under the admitted circumstances, yet that, in view of the palpable and discreditable failure of the authorities of Wyoming Territory to bring to justice the guilty parties, or to assure the sufferers an impartial forum in which to seek and obtain compensation for the losses which those subjects have incurred by lack of police protection; and considering, further, the entire absence of provocation or contribution on the part of the victims, the Executive may be induced to bring the matter to the benevolent consideration of the Congress, in order that that body, in its high discretion, may direct the bounty of the Government in aid of innocent and peaceful strangers whose maltreatment has brought discredit upon the country, with the distinct understanding that such action is in no wise to be held as a precedent, is wholly gratuitous, and is resorted to in a spirit of pure generosity toward those who are otherwise helpless."

On Thursday the House voted to discuss the coinage reports for ten days from March 2.

In answer to a request from a sub-committee of the Committee on Ways and Means for information concerning the workings of the reciprocity treaty with the Hawaiian Islands, John E. Searles, jr., one of the Government Commissioners who visited the islands, has made a statement of facts ascertained in connection with his visit. "The total of duties remitted during the nine years the treaty has been in operation," he says, "is $22,808,025, while the total value of our domestic exports for the same period is only $22,872,371, or, in other words, if we had made the islands a present of every dollar's worth of goods they bought from this country, and collected duties on their sugars, we should have made no loss." He says there has been an actual decadence of American influence, and under the scramble for the benefits of the treaty the islands have declined morally.

Mr. Morrison (Dem., Ill.), from the Committee on Rules, reported in the House on Friday a substitute for the Hanback and Pulitzer resolutions directing an inquiry into the Pan-Electric Telephone matter. The resolution provides for a select committee of nine to fully investigate the Government's expenditures in the telephone suits, the issuance of stock of the Pan-Electric Company to any persons connected with the Government, and any attempts to improperly influence official action by or through the press. After a brief but excited debate, during which Mr. Gibson (Dem., W. Va.) bitterly criticised Mr. Pulitzer, whom he accused of shrinking behind the columns of his newspaper to attack men instead of attacking them on the floor of the House, the resolution was adopted.

The Urgent Deficiency Appropriation Bill, as agreed upon by the Appropriations Committee of the House on Friday, appropriates $634,453 for the present fiscal year.

The Diplomatic and Consular Bill was submitted to the House on Tuesday. The appropriations are substantially the same as last year, with the exception of a number of items which have been ruled out by the new rules of the House, which do not admit of changes of existing law in appropriation bills.

The House Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads completed the Post-office appropriation bill on Wednesday. It appropriates for the postal service during the next fiscal year the sum of $54,326,588, an increase of $625,598 over the appropriation for the present fiscal year, and a decrease of $659,579 as compared with the Department's estimates. The estimated revenue for the next fiscal year is $47,142,252, and the estimated deficiency (indefinite) is $7,443,914.

The House Judiciary Committee has taken a vote which indicates that a majority of two or three in that Committee is opposed to the Lowell Bankrupt Bill. The only Democrat on the Committee who favors it is Mr. Collins.

The House Committee on Territories has directed an adverse report to be made on Representative Townshend's bill to organize the entire Indian Territory into the Territory of Oklahoma. The Committee still has under consideration Representative Weaver's bill to organize Oklahoma and the public land-strip into a Territory.

The Electoral Count Bill, reported back to the Senate from the Committee on Privileges and Elections, to which it had been recommitted, is amended. It now contains a provision requiring the transmission to the Secretary of State, immediately after the appointment of electors, of a certificate setting forth the names of the electors and the canvass of the number of votes given or cast for each. By this means Congress will be enabled to take cognizance at once of the result of the election, whereas now it has no cognizance of the matter until the day arrives for opening and counting the votes. The Secretary of State is also required to publish these certificates in full in such newspapers as he shall designate, and at the first meeting of Congress he is to transmit copies to each house of Congress.

The Senate Committee on Commerce has agreed to report favorably the Dingley Shipping Bill with amendments.

The Senate on Monday rejected the nominations of Mr. Pillsbury and Mr. Chase to be internal-revenue collectors.

It has been reported that the Consul-Generals at London and Liverpool would resign if the bill passed which deprives them of the notarial fees. The friends of Consul General Walker at Paris say that he has never accepted these fees, but that he has permitted the Vice-Consul, Mr. Hooper, to keep them. Under this system the position of Vice-Consul at Paris has been more lucrative than that of the Consul-General.

The national debt was reduced during February $2,702,153 31.

The Virginia Senate on Saturday rejected by an overwhelming vote a proposition to amend the Constitution, so as to repudiate all of the bonds not funded under the Riddleberger settlement in one year after the ratification by the people of this amendment to the Constitution.

The Virginia House of Delegates on Monday passed the bill introduced some days ago by ex-Congressman Fulkerson, providing for the issue by the commonwealth of scrip which is to be made receivable for all taxes except capitation. This is regarded as one of the most far-reaching measures for forcing the bondholders to fund under the Riddleberger settlement ever adopted by the Legislature. If it is sustained by the Federal courts, this scheme will force the coupons down so low that the creditors will have no recourse but to fund them.

In the New York Senate the Gas Committee presented its report on Monday night, accompanied by three bills. They provide for the appointment by the Governor of three gas commissioners for the State. No dividend shall be paid unless earned, and no dividend shall exceed 10 per cent. of the actual capital as de-

termined by the commissioners. The earnings in excess of 10 per cent. shall be accumulated as a reserve to be applied toward a reduction of the price of gas. The price of illuminating gas is fixed at a maximum of $1 25 per 1,000 feet, and $1 for cooking and heating gas.

In the State Senate on Thursday a bill was introduced annulling all the rights, privileges, and franchises acquired by the Broadway Surface Road in this city.

In the Assembly at Albany on Thursday a bill was passed repealing the anti-deer-hounding law of last winter.

The report of Willis S. Paine, Superintendent of the New York Banking Department, in relation to the savings banks of the State, shows that the resources increased $28,609,137 in the last year, and the number of depositors increased 42,898.

Nathan L. Baker, of Portland, Oregon, and "Al" White, of Oregon City, who led the mob which drove the Chinese out of Oregon City, were arrested on Wednesday on complaint of Wong Chung, a Chinese contractor, and taken before the United States Commissioner, charged with violating section 5519 of the United States statutes. This section, which was passed for the special protection of negroes against the Kuklux Klan in 1874, is said to cover the Chinese cases exactly, and the authorities are of the opinion that the men can be convicted.

A band of masked men visited three ranches near Wheatland, California, on Thursday morning, and compelled the Chinese workmen to leave. They were marched to Wheatland and allowed to go where they pleased.

General Crook and Geronimo, the renegade Apache chief, met on February 22 at Laug's ranch, seventy-eight miles southwest of Deming. The chief and five bucks held a consultation, and asked permission to return peaceably to the reservation. General Crook refused the request, demanding their unconditional surrender. Geronimo refused to give himself up, and after a consultation left for his camp, keeping the white flag flying for ten miles or more. Geronimo is reported to have with him ninety bucks, besides women and children. No attempt was made to follow him.

FOREIGN.

It is reaffirmed that the chief complication of the home-rule question is the attitude of Mr. Chamberlain. He is still working hard in private against Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Morley and home rule. Only a few days ago at the Devonshire Club, the Whig headquarters, he made a speech declaring that he must have one law and one State. He has a land bill all ready. He has been attempting to cultivate an alliance with a leading Parnellite.

The Liberal Government on Tuesday indicated through a Ministerial utterance that they expect to fall on the Irish question. Mr. Morley, Chief Secretary for Ireland, in an address at the conference of Liberal delegates, said: "The Government is now face to face with the Irish difficulty, and will probably be compelled to make an early appeal to the country."

The British Government will probably soon start relief works along the west coast of Ireland where the distress is very great.

Sir Henry James (Liberal), formerly Attorney-General, spoke on Monday evening at Lancashire in justification of his secession from Mr. Gladstone's party. The creation of an Irish Parliament, he said, would call into existence a power the fear of whose hostility to England would ever exist. Neither he nor Lord Hartington intended to form a new party, but both would loyally support Mr. Gladstone's general policy. "Mr. Gladstone," added Sir Henry, "generously offered me the Lord Chancellorship and afterward an important office in the House of Commons. I was compelled to decline both of those offers in the absence of pledges which the Government was unable to give."

The Cork Corporation, by a vote of 31 to 10, has adopted a resolution favoring an Irish Parliament in Dublin, and declaring that that concession would not involve the separation of Ireland from Great Britain.

The reports that the Parnellites possess compromising letters from Lord Randolph Churchill pledging him in favor of home rule, are declared to be untrue. Parnellites, however, assert that he had personal interviews with the Irish leaders and offered them home rule.

The Parnellites are irritated at Captain O'Shea's action in opposing Mr. Healy's position on the question of granting medals to the Canadian volunteers.

Queen Victoria and Prince and Princess Henry of Battenberg witnessed a performance of Gounod's oratorio, "Mors et Vita," at the Albert Hall in London on Friday. There were thousands of people outside, who lustily cheered the royal party. When the Queen entered the hall the whole audience, numbering 7,000, rose and stood during the playing of the national anthem.

Queen Victoria is rapidly becoming a common topic of discussion in London. An extraordinary editorial in the *Standard* on Friday has made a sensation. It said: "It is time to say publicly what everybody has been saying privately for many years, that the Queen and the country over which she rules have been too long separated; that the separation cannot be continued much longer without serious and lasting injury both to the throne and the community. There is no room in the English constitution for a sovereign who lives in almost complete seclusion." It will be remembered that the *Standard* is the organ of all that is most conservative and loyal. The evening papers followed suit. The working classes throughout the country consider, and rightly, that the Queen has treated Mr. Gladstone on several occasions recently with a distinct personal slight. This they resent.

Mrs. Phelps, wife of the United States Minister at the Court of St. James, was on Monday presented to Queen Victoria at Windsor Castle.

The Queen's Proctor has decided to intervene in the Dilke case.

Lord Salisbury has been ordered to go to the Continent to recruit his health.

The Rev. Hugh Stowell Brown, the celebrated Baptist preacher, of Liverpool, is dead at the age of sixty-three. He was a locomotive engineer in early life. He was appointed minister of a church in Liverpool, in January, 1848, and soon became one of the recognized leaders of the Baptist body throughout the country. His greatest success was as a lecturer, and every Sunday afternoon he collected audiences of 2,000 or 3,000 artisans. He has lectured in this country and Canada.

Mr. Henry Stevens, the American bibliographer, died at his home in London on Sunday, after a long illness. He was born in Stevensville, Vt., and was graduated from Yale College in 1843. A few years later he took up his residence in London. He has bought American books for the British Museum for many years, and compiled records for individuals and States in this country as well as made many catalogues. His books are 'Historical Nuggets,' 'Rare Books Relating to America,' in two volumes, 1862; a 'Catalogue of American Books in the British Museum,' 1859, and 'Notes on the Earliest Discoveries in America.' Mr. Stevens sold the United States Government its valuable collection of Franklin manuscripts.

A sensation was caused in the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday afternoon. A strange man in one of the galleries arose excitedly, drew a revolver, fired it twice with downward aim, and then coolly threw a letter toward M. Clémenceau. The man was quickly seized and hurried out by the police. When the excitement had subsided a flattened bullet was found at the feet of the President of the Chamber. The prisoner said he was a soldier who had been so ill-treated by his superiors and ignored by the officers of justice that he resorted to the desperate expedient of creating the sensation in the Chamber of Deputies in order to secure attention to his grievances. He is probably insane.

The eighty-fourth anniversary of the birth of Victor Hugo was celebrated in Paris on Friday evening by a grand entertainment at the Théâtre Français. The audience was brilliant. Hugo's grandchildren were the guests of the audience. Scenes from "Le Roi s'amuse," and "Ruy Blas" and "Hernani" were enacted. Renan's "1802" was received with tumultuous applause.

Prince Kropotkin delivered a lecture in the Salle Levis, Paris, on Wednesday evening. He predicted a revolution at the end of the century which would sweep away governments, permanent armies, religion, and all abuses interfering with the liberty of subjects. He avoided political allusions. His speech was loudly applauded. He was followed by Louise Michel, who delivered a similar address.

The Paris *Journal des Débats* says that Lord Salisbury drew up a convention with the Porte for the cession of Crete to England, on the payment of £3,000,000 and a guarantee that Greece should be prevented from taking aggressive measures against Turkey. Mr. Gladstone, the *Journal* adds, hesitates to confirm the convention.

The Supreme Spanish Council of War has confirmed the sentence of the Minister of War imposed on Don Enrique de Bourbon, Duke of Seville, and Lieutenant-Colonel of the regiment of Albuera. This placed Don Enrique on the half-pay list. His offence was the utterance of disrespectful and abusive language against the Queen Regent, widow of the late King Alfonso, who was a cousin to the Don.

The marriage of the Archduchess Maria of Tuscany to the Archduke Carl Stephan, brother of the Queen Regent of Spain, was solemnized in Vienna on Sunday by the Archbishop of Vienna. The ceremony was very imposing, and was witnessed by the Emperor Francis Joseph and a host of members of the royal family.

Vienna is now suffering from a partial water famine, and is much agitated over the question of a supply. The monopoly of supply is at present held by the Municipal Council, and the water is all brought from the celebrated Hochquelle and Kaiserbrunn springs. The quality of the fluid is excellent, and the quantity was ample before the recent enormous growth of the city. It is now proposed to reserve the water from the springs for drinking purposes, and to draw upon the Danube for a supply for other needs.

The Italian Senate, by a vote of 91 to 6, has adopted a bill to equalize the land tax.

A treaty of peace between Servia and Bulgaria was finally signed at Bucharest on Tuesday.

All workmen of foreign birth have been discharged from employment in the Government dockyards at Berlin. This action has been taken because of the disclosures in the case of Captain Sarauw, recently convicted of having sold plans and information of German fortifications to Major Grizot, of the French General Staff.

There is a commercial crisis at Stockholm, Sweden.

The Canadian Parliament was opened in Ottawa on Thursday afternoon. The Governor-General's speech contains the following in reference to the fishery question: "Should negotiations between her Majesty's Government and that of the United States for the appointment of a joint commission to adjust what is known as the 'fishery question,' and to consider the best means of developing international commerce, fail to secure any satisfactory result, Parliament will be asked to make provision for the protection of inshore fisheries by the extension of the present system of marine police."

IMPRESSIVE WARNINGS.

Mr. Asbury Coward, Superintendent of Public Education in South Carolina, has borne very striking testimony, in his annual report for 1884, to the disastrous effect which the mere talk about Federal aid has exerted in that State. Mr. Coward, after citing other circumstances, like short crops, which had operated unfavorably to educational interests during the school year 1883–4, topped the list with this as the most important: "In addition to these drawbacks, the discussion of the policy of Federal aid for the suppression of illiteracy revived into active expression all the latent or hitherto silent opposition to the common-school system of the State." But there is even more startling evidence as to the bad influence which the bare prospect of receiving Federal aid has had in another Southern State. To careful observers of Georgia's wonderful material progress during the last few years, it has been a mystery that so prosperous a commonwealth did not do more to make her school system worthy of "the Empire State of the South." We have at last discovered the reason. It has been simply because her people had concluded that they were soon going to get liberal appropriations for this purpose from Washington, and consequently did not need to make greater efforts themselves to meet the necessities of the case. So long ago as November, 1882, Mr. Gustavus J. Orr, the State School Commissioner, in his report to the Legislature, condemned "the utter inadequacy of the sums which we are applying to the support of schools to the object to be accomplished"; pointed out "the urgent necessity of more liberal appropriations for school"; showed that a tax of only one-fifth of one per cent. upon the property of the State would keep the schools in operation six months, nearly twice the period that they were then open; met the former plea of poverty by the declaration that "the time has come when we can do better," and concluded: "*I am sure that we have reached a point where we can continue our schools in operation for six months* [nearly twice the period at that time] *without unduly burdening the people.*"

The Legislature failed to act upon Mr. Orr's recommendation. Why? The answer to this question is given in the following letter to the *Evening Post* from Mr. Woodrow Wilson, author of the work on 'Congressional Government' which has attracted so much attention, a native of the South who stoutly opposes the Blair bill, as do so many of the most clear-sighted Southerners:

"In the winter of 1882–83 I spent some time in Atlanta, Ga., while the Legislature was in session. The project of Federal aid to education was already then being pushed. One day I dropped into the gallery of the State Senate Chamber for an hour, and chanced to find a discussion in progress upon a proposal to increase the appropriation for education, as Mr. Orr had urged that the State was so abundantly able to do. Only a small minority favored the measure for heavier taxation. The majority supported a counter-resolution that the Senators and Representatives of the State in Congress be requested to do all in their power to secure the passage of a law giving aid from the Federal Treasury to education in the States. I heard one speech made in opposition to this begging resolution. It was a sturdy appeal to the self-respect and independence of Georgians, in view of what the speaker treated as the unquestioned ability of the State to support a school system worthy of so great and prosperous a commonwealth. No attempt was made by the majority to answer his argument, which, like Mr. Orr's plea, was indeed unanswerable. The majority kept silence, and contented themselves with passing the resolution appealing for outside help to do what by their very silence they confessed they were able to do themselves. It was evident that no increase in the State appropriation for public education would be voted so long as there was the least prospect of aid from Washington. The whole performance impressed me as a startling declaration, upon the part of a well-to-do community, of its deliberate determination to enjoy the easy position of a beneficiary of the national Government to the fullest possible extent, rather than to be independent and support a good school system by its own unaided efforts."

Last week there came to light two more strong proofs that the South does not need any educational appropriations from Washington. The annual report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction in North Carolina for the last school year shows that there had been an increase over the previous year in the school expenditures of $51,693, being nearly 10 per cent.; in the number of pupils enrolled, of 13,850; in the average attendance, of 12,583; in the number of schoolhouses, of 214; and in the length of the school year, of nearly a week. "Upon the whole," says the Superintendent, "our educational outlook is encouraging in every aspect except one," which is the annulling by the Supreme Court of two statutes relied upon to increase the school revenues, thus requiring an increase in taxation, which so thriving a State can easily stand. We have also just received the last annual report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction in Florida—a State where there are nearly as many negroes as whites, and consequently a heavy burden of black ignorance. The Superintendent reports that the public-school system is in a most prosperous condition, as will readily be believed when he proceeds to show that the number of schools increased during the last year from 1,504 to 1,724; and that "the number of school-children between the ages of six and twenty-one years (which is the school age by law), according to the school census taken in the year 1884, was 66,798, of whom, by the annual reports of the County Superintendents, there are enrolled for attendance upon the schools for the year ending September 30, 1885, 62,327, and in daily average attendance 45,850, *a percentage of enrolment and daily attendance equal to any State in the Union as reported from the educational departments.*" And we may add, much better than Mr. Blair's own State, since in New Hampshire out of 79,120 children between the ages of five and seventeen inclusive, shown by the census of 1880, Superintendent Patterson's last report shows that only 63,656 were enrolled in school, or less than 81 per cent. of all, against more than 93 per cent. in Florida, and the average attendance (45,159) was less than 71 per cent. of those enrolled, against more than 73 per cent. in Florida.

It is now going on four weeks since the Blair bill came before the Senate. The protraction of the debate has been in every way most fortunate. It has given ample opportunity for public opinion to crystallize in opposition to the ill-considered scheme, and the change in the attitude of the press is reflected in a similar change on the part of Senators. The *Tribune's* correspondent reports that the friends of the bill begin to feel that it is in danger. It is notorious that there would be no question of its defeat if it were before the Senate now for the first time, instead of having been hastily endorsed by a vote of 33 to 11 two years ago. Senator Plumb, of Kansas, told the exact truth when he said in his speech last week:

"Now I say, what every man knows, that I can count on the fingers of my two hands the members on this floor who are actually in favor of this measure, who will dare avow that they are for it as an original proposition, or as one that commends itself to their judgment. But one man says: 'I made incautiously somewhere a speech in favor of it, and at a time when I did not consider the surroundings'; and another man says: 'My Legislature say they want me to vote for it'; and so on all the way round. If there could be some way of voting upon this measure without meeting these conditions, it would have practically no support. I do not believe legislation thus enacted is likely to be wise."

Members of the United States Senate ought to be above voting for a measure which they now believe to be bad because they were carelessly drawn into approving it years ago. The country respects a man who says that sober second thought convinces him that his first opinion was wrong, but it can entertain only contempt for a man who privately condemns a measure and publicly votes for it to save his consistency.

VIRGINIA COUPON CASES.

The recent decisions of the Supreme Court in the Virginia coupon cases have already resulted in a special message from Governor Lee to the General Assembly of the State. He recommends the appointment of a commission "clothed with no other power, and to have no other duties to perform, but to urge the creditors to accept the settlement which Virginia has decreed," *i. e.*, the Riddleberger settlement of February 14, 1882. It is hardly to be expected that the creditors will accede to a settlement which is the very thing that they have been resisting ever since the act of 1882 was passed. But, although the position of the State nominally remains unchanged, and the Governor reiterates its determination never to abrogate the Riddleberger settlement, fortifying the need of repudiating a debt, once already scaled upon the same plea, with the time-worn statements of hardships undergone by Virginia during and immediately after the civil war, and leaning upon the broken reed of the dissenting opinion in the coupon cases of 1884; nevertheless, the creditors must derive some degree of comfort from the fact that "a people so jealous of their good faith, so sedulous to preserve their good name as the Virginians," condescend to persuade at all. "Château qui parle, et femme qui écoute, près de se rendre," says the old French proverb. Still it cannot be doubted that the bondholders would be ready to enter into any fair compromise, and it is to be hoped that the appointment of a commission, even with the limited powers which Governor Lee recommends, will be the beginning of a more reasonable and businesslike spirit in the State.

The position of affairs appears to be this: Matured coupons are outstanding to an amount in excess of the entire yearly revenue of the State. If any great number of them are used in payment of taxes, or to prevent the collection of taxes, the machinery of the State Gov-

ernment will be materially hindered if not blocked; or very likely the coupons will become a sort of depreciated currency like the notes issued in the days of "wild-cat" State banks. Certainly a very real detriment will ensue to the State. The creditors, on the other hand, will not be correspondingly benefited, as the coupons will be bought to tender in payment of taxes only at depreciated rates. The existing state of affairs, in short, injures both parties more than it benefits either. Common sense demands a compromise. By funding the debt, both coupons and principal, into a bond to run for a long term at a low rate of interest, a compromise would be attained which would relieve the State of a great burden and danger, and give the creditors a security of an assured and steady value.

It is absurd to suppose that the creditors will fund under the Riddleberger settlement of 1882. The debts funded under the acts can be repudiated principal and interest, since the bonds do not carry coupons which are receivable for taxes; and the creditors cannot be expected to give up rights secured them by the Constitution of the United States in return for bonds unsecured by anything except a popular will fond of exercising itself in repudiation. It is to be supposed, at the very least, that the creditors will require any new evidences of debt exchanged for the old to be stamped both upon the face of the bonds and the coupons with the words: "Receivable at and after maturity for all taxes, debts, and demands due the State."

The greatest obstacle to compromise is undoubtedly the firm belief among the repudiating element of Virginia that public sentiment is so united against using these coupons as tender in payment of taxes that patriotism and fear of odium alike will prevent such use. No doubt public sentiment is powerful in Virginia, and far more powerful than in the Northern States, where law is more respected. But it takes a good deal of sentiment to prevent a taxpayer from saving 50 cents on the dollar when he can get a chance. It is all very well to tell him he is unpatriotic and injuring himself by harming the Government under which he lives. The injury is remote, the gain immediate, and fifty cents on the dollar a sore temptation. In fact, public sentiment, even when its cause is noble, unless enforced by vigilance committees, as the anti-tea resolutions were in some of the colonies at least prior to the Revolution, is of little avail against individual gain. On the contrary, there is good reason to suppose that there is a strong minority, composed of the best in Virginia, which sympathizes with the creditors, and would be glad to enter into a fair compromise, and that if the taxpayers alone had the vote a real compromise would be offered. The taxpayers, it is true, have, with great reluctance, acquiesced in the decision of the majority to repudiate if possible, but reluctant acquiescence is not the material by which the fierce flame of resistance to law can be fed. It is significant that even last year coupons to the amount of $50,000 entered the Treasury, and how many more were used to prevent the collection of taxes it is impossible to say. The Virginia politician ought to put it fairly to himself whether emigrants from other States will bother themselves much about the patriotism of maintaining repudiation if they can pay business licenses in depreciated coupons, and whether in any business community, such as Virginia professes to be, there is not always a very considerable class who, provided they are protected from bodily harm, care very little for public opinion when they can make money by running counter to it.

One of the Virginia papers, the Charlottesville *Chronicle*, asks where is the victory which we spoke of in our last editorial on this subject, since the State can repudiate the principal of all its debts. The reply is, that, for the past five years or more, the State of Virginia has refused to accept these coupons as tender for taxes, and if now she turns to some other method of injuring her creditors, as the *Chronicle* suggests, it is an admission that the means which the State has hitherto used are useless. That a State should be driven by peaceable means from an unconstitutional position which she chose to take and maintain through a series of years by all forms of legal chicanery, is a great gain to constitutional government. If Virginia wishes to be dishonest now, she must be dishonest under the Constitution, not in spite of it. She would do well to ponder the noble words of John Jay in the case of Georgia vs. Chisholm, in which, prior to the Eleventh Amendment, the Supreme Court decided that an individual could sue a State. Objection was made that, if a State could be sued, why not the United States? Jay says the difference is this: "In all cases of actions against States or individual citizens the national courts are supported in all their legal and constitutional proceedings and judgments by the arm of the executive power of the United States; but in cases against the United States there is no power which the courts can call to their aid. *I wish the state of society was so far improved, and the science of government advanced to such a degree of perfection, as that the whole nation could, in the peaceable course of law, be compelled to do justice and be sued by individual citizens.*"*

SILVER IN FRANCE.

THERE has been a debate on the silver question in the French Chamber, on a resolution of M. Soubeyran, calling on the Government to open negotiations with a view to the reassembling of the Monetary Conference of 1881, in consideration of the sad condition of silver in France. On the 10th of February it stood, on the Paris Bourse, from 22 to 27¼ per cent. below the value in relation to gold put on it by French law. In other words, a five-franc piece is worth only about 3 francs 85 centimes—that is, has lost nearly one-quarter of its value. M. Soubeyran is a financier of good standing, with a great horror of theory, and maintains stoutly that money is not merchandise, but simply a measure of value which the Government can regulate as it pleases, and he holds that the existing depreciation of silver is due to its demonetization in Germany, and to the cessation of its coinage by the Latin Union. Get Germany to remonetize, and the Latin Union to begin coining again, he says, and all will be well.

M. de Freycinet, on behalf of the Ministry, maintained a neutral attitude in the debate, and asked for and carried the "order of the day pure and simple," which is equivalent in French parliamentary procedure to laying on the table, saying that this did not signify that the Government refused to open the negotiations asked for by M. de Soubeyran, but simply that his motion was couched in terms too imperative; that the time did not seem to have come for reopening the negotiations in question, but that the Ministry had not lost sight of the matter, and that at the proper moment they would take it up. So the order of the day was voted unanimously.

The general question of the relation of the Government to the currency was debated only between M. de Soubeyran and M. Passy. The two Ministers who spoke, M. Carnot and M. de Freycinet, confined themselves to combatting the notion that bimetallism was gaining ground with the European public. They said that it might be that Great Britain and Germany were making a dreadful mistake in sticking to the gold standard, but that it was pure sentimentalism to suppose that either of these Powers could now be induced to go back to the double standard. There is no sign of anything of the kind. The "brutal truth," as the French call it, is, as M. Leroy-Beaulieu points out in the *Économiste Français*, that England has no thought of adopting the double standard herself, but that a certain number of English bankers and economical writers are making a great effort to induce France to resume the coinage of silver. "The English," says he, "are faithful to their habitual policy of preaching to others the exact contrary of their own practice. They dissuade us, for instance, with sympathetic interest, from establishing colonies, while they themselves keep on seizing all the new territory they can get hold of. So, also, in their own home they remain firmly attached to the gold standard, but would be delighted to have France restore the double standard in all its vigor." He speaks with equal despondency about Germany and the United States, and says that the small commercial states of Europe, particularly Belgium and Switzerland, are much more resolute partisans of the single gold standard than they were five years ago. "It is no secret," he adds, "that there has been a great deal of difficulty in keeping Belgium and Switzerland in the Latin Union." A leading Belgian statesman, M. Cocquiel, has recently, in fact, concocted a scheme for restoring the gold standard in Belgium by the sale of $40,000,000 in five-franc pieces, which in London would bring in (say) $32,000,000. This he would put into English consols, the interest on which he would allow to accumulate for eight years, at the end of which it would amount to over $40,000,000 gold, or the total nominal value of the silver sold. The gap left by the sale of the silver he would fill during the eight years with legal-tender paper.

What makes the situation in France more hopeless for the bimetallists is, that the distance between the old sacred relation of 15½ to 1 between silver and gold has greatly increased and is increasing. In 1881 the proportion was 18 to 1; it was 19 to 1 in 1885, and it is 20 to 1 now. Moreover, in 1881 the stock of gold in the Bank of France had fallen to $108,000,000, and a large part of this was ten-

* Curtis, at p. 68.

franc pieces below weight and unfit for exportation, while the stock of silver was $266,000,000. Now, however, the stock of gold in the bank is $232,000,000, while the stock of silver has fallen to $217,000,000. In other words, the French are in a far better position to go back to the gold standard than they were five years ago.

The truth is, that it is not only England and Germany who wish other people to do what they have no intention of doing themselves in this matter of standards. Every individual bimetallist is in exactly the same state of mind. Not one of them, we venture to say, has the smallest intention of doing his own private business on a double standard, but each of them hopes his neighbors will, and would like to encourage them in so doing. In saying this we are casting no imputation on their honesty or sincerity. We simply mean that they are the victims of an immense delusion. No nation has ever yet used a double standard, for the simple reason that the human mind, as lodged in the ordinary human head, is not capable of doing so. The law has often ordained the use of a double *legal tender*, but the community has always used one standard only for large transactions. That is, each man thinks in one standard when fixing the price of what he has to sell, or making his plans for the future, although when he comes to pay a debt he will, if sharp, avail himself of the cheaper of two legal tenders.

PUBLIC FEELING IN IRELAND.

DUBLIN, February 13, 1886.

IN writing such letters as the present about Ireland, I feel a difficulty in keeping hold on leading principles so as to resist being unduly influenced by the passions of the moment—by the tone of the last speeches of those who sway public opinion, by the response of the people to sentiments expressed at public meetings, by the extent to which outrages prevail, and the attitude of the national press towards them. It would be easy to simply chronicle daily events, or to give a one-sided view of the subjects under consideration; but it is not easy to throw such a fair light upon the present Irish question as to help American readers in forming their own views and arriving at their own conclusions.

The return of Mr. Gladstone to power upon a distinctly home-rule policy is the most significant event in modern Irish politics. I trust it may prove to be the turning-point in our history. Its first result—the appointment of John Morley as Chief Secretary—is, to those who know his intelligent, wise, and daring sympathy with Ireland, almost bewildering. Knowing what the Castle system of government is; considering how it has changed some of those who were our best friends, such as Mr. Forster and Mr. Trevelyan; considering the sharp antagonism into which any would-be ruler of Ireland must, under the present system, inevitably be forced towards the representatives of national feelings, many of us fear we may now lose Mr. Morley. And strong though the Irish cause appears, we could not afford that loss. Several of his Irish friends appealed to him against his acceptance of the post. That he has accepted it under the circumstances is proof that he sees his way clearly to some great end. The majority by which Mr. Morley's acceptance of the chief-secretaryship has been affirmed by the electors of Newcastle, is significant of the spirit in which a portion at least of the English people are prepared to approach the home-rule question.

On the other hand, apropos of Valentine's Day, a capital colored supplement appears with to-day's weekly *Freeman*. Mr. Morley, kneeling with one hand on his heart, presents a valentine to Hibernia—an Irish peasant girl—who, sitting under a tree, sews at a flag inscribed "Legislative Independence." Gladstone, as a Cupid in the air, discharges his arrow at her. "No doubt," she says to Mr. Morley, "you are a very nice-spoken young man and mean what you say—but I've been so often deceived before"; the "Castle Mephistopheles" behind the tree adding, "Aye, and will again, if I have a word in the matter." Lord Aberdeen, as a puppet, hangs out of Mr. Morley's hat. The beaming countenance of Cupid with his high shirt collar is irresistibly ludicrous; while Mr. Morley's eager appealing and Hibernia's arch side-glance are admirably rendered.

Pending the vital propositions regarding the future of Ireland which are likely to be made within the next few weeks, let me endeavor to briefly sketch the state of public feeling here under these circumstances.

A strong though perhaps failing party of "No surrenders" are still prominent in Ireland, especially in the North. According to them the mailed hand is the only hand that can govern Ireland; the Irish are a hopelessly intractable race, incapable of self-government; and Catholic Emancipation was a mistake. Cromwell is their ideal in the past; Mr. Froude in the present. Then over a stratum of society that once belonged to this party a great change has come. They admit that the present state of things cannot continue, but, fearing for the connection with England, and dreading the Catholics, they, without much sentiment of any kind, look for peace in the abolition of the Viceroyalty; the establishment of county or provincial boards for the regulation of local matters; the retention of the police under Imperial control; guarantees for religious liberty; the abolition of primogeniture and entail and the removal of the difficulties regarding the sale and transfer of land. These changes, they maintain, must be final. Many high-minded, liberal, and thoughtful men hold such views.

The mass of the landowners are now only anxious that Government, whether British or Irish, should come to their relief, buy them out on any reasonable terms, and let them be quit of the whole miserable entanglement. They are making this great mistake: a portion of them are endeavoring to squeeze out of their tenants rents which, in the present depressed condition of the markets for agricultural stock and produce, cannot possibly be paid. They show no disposition whatever to meet the land reformers. Nor do they as an order show the slightest disposition to reprobate those among them who are pitilessly driving matters to extremity with their tenants; just as the National Leaguers make no attempt effectually to discountenance opposition to the payment of fair rents. There is something of the unscrupulousness of warfare on both sides.

The mercantile and commercial classes, except when directly depending upon the landlords or upon the Nationalists, are in a bewildered and distracted state of mind. They look upon themselves as the pawns on the chess-board. Their trade is hampered, credit is restricted, traffic on the railways has fallen off. There has been a decline in the value of all Irish stocks. Upon the whole they are more frightened than hurt. As yet there is no general fall in rents of the better class of houses, nor any alteration in the scale of living of the commercial community. They do not know what it is to suffer as Irish tenants were suffering before the present agitation. But if not injured they are terribly alarmed. Till within the last few months they bitterly abused the agitators, upon whom they laid all their woes; their cry being that if Mr. Parnell and a dozen others were hanged, the country would settle down and all would be well. But the language of these business men is now entirely altered. They see that there is something beyond these personalities standing between them and a settlement; and their only desire is for this settlement, whatever it is to be. They have their prejudices and their fears, but "the present state of things is intolerable—almost anything would be better."

Since the elections, there has been a decided change for the better in the general feeling of the country. With the sense of their power which followed the results of the elections, has come more quietness and a greater feeling of responsibility on the part of representative men; there has been an almost entire cessation of the fierce inflammatory language so prevalent a year ago.

Whatever may be said to the contrary, in certain parts of the country, notably in Kerry, a very barbarous and deplorable state of feeling exists regarding boycotting and outrages. And so far as this is not acknowledged and effectually discountenanced upon National platforms and in the National press, so far as we try to hoodwink the British public and you regarding the real facts of the case; and so far as we, like ostriches, endeavor to deceive ourselves in the matter, so far a very sad and deplorable state of feeling exists through Ireland generally. I lately had occasion to investigate on the spot a terrible case of murder and boycotting, unconnected with land, in a remote district, to sympathize with the family of the murdered man, to gauge the sentiments of the people; and well as I thought I understood the country, never before did I so thoroughly realize the utter demoralization, the utter contortion of judgment regarding what is right and wrong, noble and base, to which the past has brought some of our poor people. I saw police huts, police protection, a system of police sway and coercion, as far as present law will permit, in full swing. Never before did I so thoroughly realize its inefficiency for permanent good.

Upon the whole, I feel inclined to take a hopeful view of the situation. A certain weariness of this contest has perhaps come over both sides. If Mr. Gladstone and his party offer anything adequate, and such as will strike the imagination of the Irish people, Mr. Parnell and the leaders of public opinion here will hardly refuse to show an accommodating spirit. They are scarcely prepared for an interminable conflict, unless upon very clear grounds. There is a certain pathos in Mr. Parnell's words at Galway on Wednesday: "I will only add, in conclusion, my conviction that the day is very near at hand when we shall have gained for Ireland the right to make her own laws upon Irish soil. When that day comes, I shall regard my mission as fulfilled. I have not entered into this great struggle out of any motives or personal ambition, but it is my duty to stand by you until these great measures are completed and gained for you." If we show a proper spirit toward a reasonable and just arrangement, it matters little whether the British public are prepared to endorse such an arrangement at first or not. An amalgamation of the best British and most representative Irish views regarding a settlement, once effected, could not easily be dissolved. In the assurance of ultimate success, we could afford to bide in a very different temper from that in which we have hitherto awaited reform. If there were no reason for the desire of separation between the countries, there would be no difficulty in allaying fears of its occurrence. When the tendency of the whole world is in the direction of religious freedom, there should be no difficulty in remov-

ing the fears of those who dread in Ireland a return to the ideas and methods of the Middle Ages. The real difficulty will rest in Ireland with ourselves, as to how to allay and to keep in check the demoralized attitude of our people regarding "law," and the preposterous ideas regarding the possible influence of Government upon the progress and happiness of the masses, which the present agitation has tended to foster. Late events in England show that she also will have to deal with such difficulties; how much more so we here, where hitherto everything had been so much out of joint. We Nationalists in Ireland, united as we are on the whole, must recognize that such an opportunity as the present, if let pass, may not soon recur.

Embittered as we are, unjust as we have doubtless been at times toward British statesmen who meant well toward us through all the miserable history of the last few years, we are not so lost to noble feeling as to be insensible to the chivalry with which Mr. Gladstone has thrown himself into the breach. The desire to show his opponents that he has not made a mistake in taking up our course, may be a powerful factor in inducing us to accept a reasonable settlement, and to work it for the best of all parties when it is made. We have often had occasion to quarrel with *Punch*, but we must join in the good wishes expressed in his lines respecting Mr. Gladstone this week:

"How will he decide? One thing's evident, quite,
If he turn to the left, or diverge to the right,
A bad bit of road lies before him.
Here's wishing him luck, a sure seat, a stout soul,
And a safe finish up of a glorious goal,
Ere the shadows of night settle o'er him."

D. B.

THE DUCHESS OF PORTSMOUTH.

PARIS, February 11, 1886.

M. FORNERON has written, since 1878, three important historical books. His first was a study on the Dukes of Guise and their epoch, in two volumes; the second was more important, it was a life of Philip II., in four volumes. Lately M. Forneron has abandoned the sixteenth century. He first gave us a 'General History of the Émigrés during the French Revolution,' and now he has just published a volume on Louise de Kéroualle, the famous Duchess of Portsmouth. It is difficult to see how an historian who has been living as it were with the Lorraines, with the great men of the sixteenth century, with the stern and cruel Philip of Spain, could have been drawn towards the light and frivolous Frenchwoman who was one of the mistresses of Charles II. It can only be because he considers the little Bretonne, Louise de Kéroualle, as an instrument of the policy of Louis XIV.; and he says, indeed, "She helped us to get our Flanders, our 'Franche-Comté.' We ought to give everything to our country—all, except our honor; the Bretonne reserved nothing. Her memory is marked with infamy in England; the English cannot forgive her for having subjected their country during fifteen years to the policy of Louis XIV., and for having allowed the consolidation of our territorial unity." France on her side has not been grateful, and has almost forgotten the name of Louise de Kéroualle.

Many pamphlets were written in old times against her. The 'Secret History of the Duchess of Portsmouth' is the best known, but it is full of errors, and is a novel rather than an historical document. Louise de Kéroualle was of a very old family of Brittany. She belonged to one of the four great families of the Bishopric of Léon, to the Penhoëts. The children of one of the Penhoëts assumed the name of their mother, who was a Kéroualle. Louise de Kéroualle became one of the *filles d'honneur* of the Duchess of Orleans, Henrietta of England. Henrietta, the sister of Charles II. and the wife of the brother of Louis XIV., was admirably placed for uniting the two Kings of France and of England. Charles II. was inclined to the French alliance, but during the first nine years of his reign he had already twice abandoned Louis XIV. The interests of his people stood between him and a policy which tended to give to France the Scheldt and the Rhine. In December, 1669, however, a project of a treaty of alliance was made between the King of Great Britain and the King of France. Louis XIV. was allowed in this project to conquer and to keep for himself the Spanish provinces on condition of paying 200,000 pounds, and 800,000 monthly as long as the war lasted; moreover, he had to pay the English troops that might be employed. This project was the work of Arlington. Madame the Duchess of Orleans was sent to England as a negotiator, and took with her Louise de Kéroualle. The young French woman made a great impression on Charles, who was tired of the imperious Castlemain and of the vulgar Nell Gwynn. He remembered her, and after the sudden death of Madame, Louise de Kéroualle was sent to England, and was appointed lady-in-waiting of Catherine of Portugal. She had a mission; she was the agent of the French diplomacy, the ally of Louvois and of Louis XIV. himself.

"I have just seen this famous beauty," says Evelyn in his diary. He describes her as having an infantine, childlike face. This child had a terrible will, as the event proved. The Ambassador of France in London was Colbert de Croissy, a man, says Saint-Simon, of a wise if mediocre mind, who had much application and sense. He was an ex-*président à mortier*. We nevertheless see him go to Lady Arlington's house at Euston with Louise de Kéroualle, knowing that Charles II. would leave Newmarket and pay visits to the young lady, who so far had not yielded to the King's caprice. Charles came every two days for a month. It has been said in various pamphlets that Louise was dressed by Lady Sunderland and by Lady Arlington as a bride, and that they went through the mock ceremony of a marriage. The English ladies laughed at the bad English of the French girl (see Evelyn's 'Secret History of the Reigns of Charles II. and James II.,' etc.). One thing is certain, the son of Louise de Kéroualle was born nine months after the festivities of Euston. Madame de Sévigné writes to her daughter: "Kéroualle is in the family way. Is it not strange? Castlemain is in disgrace. That is what they do in that kingdom."

The object of Louis was threefold: he wanted an alliance with England, a Catholic profession of faith from Charles, a marriage of the Duke of York with a princess chosen by himself. The alliance was made against Holland, and Charles II. declared war on the States in March, 1672, six months after the visits to Euston. Colbert de Croissy was not quite tranquil. He knew that Charles could not be trusted, that he went from one thing to another; that if he was one day under the influence of the languid Frenchwoman, he returned the next day to the Duchess of Cleveland, or forgot himself with Nell Gywnn. Louise was intelligent; she soon understood that the King would be lost if he declared himself a Catholic, that the Duke of York was unwilling to marry the Duchess of Guise, as proposed by Louvois. She had her own candidate, a daughter of the Duchess of Elbœuf, who was handsome and poor. She afterwards rallied to the idea of a marriage with a Princess of Modena.

In 1672 she begged Pomponne to ask Louis XIV. to grant her permission to be naturalized an Englishwoman, so as to be able to profit by the presents which the King of England might make her. The permission was granted, and she became Countess of Farnham, Duchess of Pendennis, and almost immediately this last title was changed into the title of Duchess of Portsmouth. She received also the ducal estate of Aubigny in Berry (which had been erected into a duchy in 1422 by Charles VII. in favor of John Stuart); but Colbert, though he made her this donation, avoided making the Duchess of Portsmouth a French Duchess, which was her greatest ambition.

In the spring of 1674, a few weeks before the battle of Senef, Charles II. seemed to become colder toward France and the cause of Louis XIV. At the same moment the Duchess of Portsmouth became ill. We can read in the official despatches addressed by Rumigny, a Protestant, to Pomponne, a Jansenist, the real nature and the causes of this illness. It is enough to say here that Charles tried to console her with great presents. When she was well again she was alarmed at the arrival of a person who had once been almost promised to Charles, the handsomest woman in Europe, the triumphant Duchess of Mazarin. The Duchess of Mazarin, who had quarrelled with the French court, embarked in Holland, and had arrived in London in men's clothes, with two women, five men, and a little Moor. As Hortensia Mancini, she had made a great impression on Charles when he was in exile in France. She was one of the famous nieces of Mazarin: her life was a romance, a long series of adventures. She was well received by the Duke of York, and Charles sent his compliments to her. "She is handsomer," writes Rumigny, "than all there is in England She has entered the English court as Armida entered the camp of Godfrey." The Duchess of Cleveland left the court; Nelly Gwynn went into mourning; the Duchess of Portsmouth was ill—she had just miscarried. Charles seemed an easy prey for the bold and handsome Mazarin. The honest Rumigny lost his head in all the manœuvres of the English court; a shrewd "homme de robe" was sent to him in the person of the Sieur Courtin, who had been an intendant. Courtin saw that the Duchess of Mazarin was an unruly, ungovernable person, while the Duchess of Portsmouth was a safer ally. His diplomacy was therefore directed against the niece of Mazarin and Saint-Réal, who accompanied her and was her adviser. But the Duchess of Mazarin was her own worst enemy; she became only one of the favorites, she did not become *the* favorite. The Duchess of Portsmouth found, after a while, that she could accept her, as she had accepted others; she was not really dangerous. The despatches of Courtin on the subject of all these ladies are truly amusing and characteristic. After Courtin came Barrillon, whose accounts are surely the most important and extraordinary historical documents that can be imagined. The letters of the French Foreign Office show us how much each conscience was worth. Louis XIV. was obliged, in order to keep England quiet while he continued his great war, to buy King, mistresses, statesmen—whatever could be bought.

Charles was forced at times to give way to public sentiment, but he invariably returned to his natural political inclinations. He prorogued his Parliament as long as he could; he did all he could for France. His private life can also be summed up in a word: he was faithful in infidelity—he always returned in the end to his Frenchwoman. Barrillon once writes to the King (January 13, 1684) that Charles, after having taken him to his bedroom, said: "Madam of Portsmouth and the Duke of Richmond, her son, are, of all persons in the world, the ones I am most fond of." With all her enemies, the Duchess of Portsmouth was able to resist the storm of the great Papal plot denounced by Titus Oates. She found an ally in Sunderland, another in Godolphin. She pronounced in favor of the Prince of

Orange against Monmouth. She became intimate with the Duke of York, with Rochester. She sometimes alarmed Barrillon: she was a real diplomat, and she became the true sovereign. Louis XIV. ordered that the estate of Aubigny should become a French duchy, and sent her the letters-patent. He signed letters of naturalization for Charles Lennox, Duke of Richmond. Her court at Whitehall was sumptuous; she held a levée every day, like a queen. Charles often spent the evening in the great gallery, playing *bassette* with Madam of Portsmouth and Madame de Mazarin. On the evening of February 12, 1685, he got up, had a stroke, and fell. The Duchess of Portsmouth sends for Barrillon at once; she tells him that the King is Catholic at heart. Barrillon speaks to the Duke of York and to the Queen; a monk is introduced mysteriously near the King, who died five days after having been struck down by paralysis.

The new King, James II., made a visit to Madam of Portsmouth an hour after the death of his brother. He wished to keep the French subvention and the friendship of Louis XIV. The Duchess determined to go back to France. She had 130,000 francs income, besides great savings invested in France—furniture, jewels, 250,000 in gold which she had received immediately after the death of Charles, 50,000 francs of *rente* which had been promised to her son from the confiscated estates of Grey. She lived fifty years longer, survived all her contemporaries, and only died in the middle of the reign of Louis XV., in the midst of a new generation who hardly knew of her. Under the Regent, Saint-Simon speaks of her as "deeply converted and penitent, very much embarrassed in her affairs, obliged to live in the country." Her pensions had been suppressed in England, and she had creditors in France. Her son is thus described by Saint-Simon: he was "without religion, lost himself in wine and debauchery, and, from the handsomest creature imaginable, became the most hideous." The Duke of Richmond died first, in 1723. Two years afterward the Duchess of Portsmouth lost her sister Henrietta. She lived herself seven years later, chiefly at Aubigny; she founded there a convent of sisters. In October, 1734, she came to Paris to consult some doctors, and died November 14, at the age of eighty-five years.

Correspondence.

THE MARYLAND APPOINTMENTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your New York letter from "Civil-Service-Reform Democrat," in reply to your Baltimore correspondent "O. L. D.," is a wise and timely reminder to the civil-service reformers of Maryland that the President of the United States has something else to think about and to do besides making appointments, and, he might have added, *Maryland* appointments at that. Civil-service reformers may be classed as political specialists, and, like all specialists, the price they pay for their peculiar qualifications to speak on that subject is but too often an ignorance of or indifference to other matters of at least equal importance. Who shall say that the President of this country must ignore the silver question, the tariff question, and the complex question of administrative reform, in order to determine with absolute certainty the personal character of applicants for appointments? And I say, without hesitation, that such is the price of that certainty.

But their reflections on the President are peculiarly unjust when we consider the political situation in Maryland. It is a well-known fact that easy access to the source of Federal patronage has made it a revered tradition at Washington that the Baltimorean in politics, whether for amusement in leisure hours, for patriotic motives, or professionally, is a nuisance; wherefore the judicious shun him, the good pity him, and the wicked use him or else laugh at him. The cause of this unfortunate state of things is not difficult to discover. The good Baltimorean is, in politics, eloquent, but weak and irresolute. His talk leads one to expect great things, but his performance is disappointing in the extreme. He is the Dimitri Roudine of politics, except that he is generally well-to-do and never dies on the barricades.

A sad illustration of this peculiarity was seen in the campaign of last fall. The good Baltimorean went to Washington, and, with an eloquence which would have been more effective had it not been for the tradition of which I have spoken, assured the President that Gorman was a wicked man whom the citizens of Baltimore abhorred, and whom they would consign to his political grave at the first opportunity. Gorman replied, and assured the President that the good Baltimorean was doing him a cruel injustice; that the good people of Baltimore loved him above all men; that he was their "favorite son." And Gorman called to witness great numbers of the most prominent business men of this city, who admiringly listened to the most shameless avowals by their favorite of his devotion to the spoils system, and heard him proclaim, amid the noisy applause of his horde of roughs and heelers, his *sole* responsibility for the appointment of Higgins and Thomas and Mahon, and distinctly divide with the rest of the Maryland delegation the credit of the best appointments from this State. And these representative men of Baltimore poured in the coffers of this same Gorman thousands of dollars, and elected him and his creatures as the only true representatives of the political opinion of Baltimore. Gorman and all that that implies was the one and only issue of last fall's campaign, as it was fought in this city. The speakers on both sides emphasized this personal element, and on that issue Gorman, with shame to us be it said, triumphed as he never triumphed before, electing a solid delegation from Baltimore. After that, not only Gorman but the public voice of this city pronounced for Higgins and Thomas and Rasin and Mahon and for all that may follow.

No, after that overwhelming disgrace, let us be silent, or, if we must talk, let it be in sackcloth and ashes and with a conspicuous modesty becoming our merits. And, above all, let us not open our lips to cast upon such a man as Grover Cleveland the responsibility of our own shameful shortcomings. The burdens of our wise and patriotic President are already sufficiently great. He will need all his strength to correct the folly of his own party, and to contend with success against the bitter hostility of enemies rendered furious by the success which they feel must attend his course. The duty of civil-service reformers at this time is clearly to uphold the hand of the one strong man upon whose wisdom and will depends the success of their cause for a long time to come, and to recognize in the mistakes of the President, in the matter of appointments, only fresh illustrations of the truth that competitive examinations will ever remain the sole remedy for the evils of which they complain, until we can elect Presidents miraculously endowed with a perfect knowledge of the character and qualifications of each and every applicant for office, even from Maryland.—Very respectfully,

Roger W. Cull.

Baltimore, February 27, 1886.

A MICHIGAN INDIAN RESERVATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In 1855 the United States made a treaty, which was in fact a trade, with several bands of Chippewas in Michigan. The whites coveted the lands which these Indians then possessed, and the United States helped them to gratify their greed. These Indians gave up their lands in all other parts of the State, and accepted in return two or three tracts far removed from the then frontier, the largest of which was 138,000 acres in one body in Isabella County. Besides this land, the Indians were to receive sundry sums of money, consisting of annuities, for twelve years, of agricultural funds, school funds, aid for building and running mills, shops, building houses, procuring teams, mechanics, teachers, and missionaries for a period of ten years—in all, something over $300,000. In 1856, and several years immediately following, about 1,500 Indians went upon the Isabella Reservation and settled there.

Now, although such was not the understanding, yet, in point of fact, this was from the first just such a movement as is contemplated now in the Senate bill of Mr. Dawes, in which it is proposed to patent their lands to the Indians and hold their patents in trust. Here, the Indians were to go upon the reservation and make selections as follows:

Each head of a family, husband or widow, 80 acres;

Each family of orphans of two or more, 80 acres;

Each single orphan under 21 years, 40 acres;

Each single person over 21 years, 40 acres.

Having made their selections, the Indian agent would forward the name of the person and the description of his land to the Department of the Interior, and the Secretary would issue to the Indian a certificate to the effect that his selection was recorded and his rights in the land acknowledged, and would be protected to him and his heirs forever, the United States being a perpetual trustee for the estate. The proposition now made is to limit the term of trusteeship to twenty-five years.

Well, the Indians went at their new mode of life with some hopefulness and a good deal of stolidity. They had already been in contact with a rapidly increasing white population for nearly half a century, and with the French and British for a much longer period. The wiser ones among them had learned that there was nothing to be hoped for from the whites, but the great mass were thoughtless, ignorant, governed by impulse, and ready to be cajoled by any white who had the courage to go among them for purposes of gain. The presence of a public crib always draws that class of animals that would rather steal a living than get it honestly, even if the one required no more labor than the other. This $300,000 which it was known would in ten years be paid out to and for these Isabella Indians drew to the reservation the usual crowd of whites, who went simply and solely for what money they could in one way and another capture from the Indians. Had the United States hung or shot every white man who went upon the reservation, and left the Indians entirely alone to lapse to savagery, the result would have been vastly better than it was.

Almost the first thing done was for the Indian agent to permit his brother-in-law to open a store on the reservation. The Indians were tempted in every way to buy. There was no need to pay. Accounts were kept, and when the agent brought money the store was paid first, and if anything was left it went to the Indians. The United States built a grist-mill there, and paid a man to run it; but when the Indians got to raising grain, the storekeeper apparently arranged with

the miller to keep out of the way and leave the mill idle. That forced the Indians to buy flour and meal of the store. The most extravagant prices were charged for everything, and the Indians were robbed as completely as if they had been "held up" periodically by highwaymen. Then, too, finding that they could not get grain ground, they quit trying to raise it. Government furnished them teams, but white men sneaked upon their reservations, made them drunk, and coaxed them into some foolish trade whereby they lost their teams. They had schools and teachers supported by the United States, but they got no practical knowledge. They had churches, but their religious culture did not make them moral or save them from terrible degradation, into which they were easily led by the white men among them. Instead of enabling them to understand the value of their property and the worth of money, and the importance of keeping them, their education seemed only to make them acquainted with the white man's vices. Yet some of them were doing well, in spite of these obstacles. Gradually the little patches of clearing grew around their homes, and a few were giving promise of success as farmers, and they were doing it, too, without help. Had they received the encouragement of practical farmers, who could have been sent among them as agricultural missionaries, their advance would have been much more rapid; but they were literally surrounded by enemies.

Their land was covered with white pine. White men wanted it. They set about getting it by fraud, and finally succeeded. As long as the title to the land remained vested in the United States, it was dangerous to steal this pine. Hence they must in some way get the title into the hands of the Indians. Then they teased the Indians into a state of unrest with the thought that the United States treated them like children and slaves, and made them believe that the reason the white man was better off than the Indian was because he owned his land himself and could sell it if he wanted to do so. They made the Indians themselves appeal for the ownership of their lands. This was backed up by a hypocritical pretence made by agents, missionaries, and the men who wanted the pine, that the Indians were civilized, Christian people, whose manhood ought to be recognized by making them feel that they were masters of their own destiny. The scheme succeeded, and the treaty of 1855 was amended in 1864. The Indians would be given their lands in severalty without encumbrance. They were, as a precaution adopted by the Administration at Washington, to be classified. All who were competent to take care of their property were to receive patents without limitation. Others would receive patents, but could not alienate them without the knowledge and consent of the Secretary of the Interior for the time being. But this safeguard of the Government amounted to nothing. Out of 1,700 who received patents in 1871-2 all but 48 were classed as competent to take care of their own property, and yet it had been virtually stolen from most of them even before the patents were issued, and it was but a short time until all but a very few of them were driven from the homes in which they had been protected nominally by the United States since 1856, and were doomed to pauperdom and a steadily approaching extermination.

They have been for years and are to-day, all save a very few of them, in a hopeless state of ruin, while, if the United States had increased instead of ending its term of trusteeship, and had compelled its agents to actually take care of the rights of these people, forcing the ravenous whites to move off and remain away, the Indians would have been worth millions through the sale of their pine alone, and there would have been no possible reason why they should not have been able to secure for themselves the benefits, not of a merest smattering, but of a thorough practical education; and the power which that would have given them would have been a greater protection than the whole United States army could give. The formation of any new policy will be unwise and unsafe that does not profit by this fatal experiment in Michigan.

CHARLES ELLIS.

EAST SAGINAW, MICHIGAN.

THE NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the review of Part II of the 'New English Dictionary,' which appeared in your issue of the 4th inst, the writer has, I think, done injustice to the editor of that work in several instances, two of which I will now notice:

So far from its being true that the title of anti-slavery is not "explained in the 42 columns devoted to anti- and its compounds," on page 364, there are four successive quotations, each of which contains it; the last being from one of Wendell Phillips's speeches.

Then, the writer takes exception to the assertion that *approbate* in the sense of 'approve' is "often used in the United States"; and says: "We have never heard the word, or heard of any one employing it." But Worcester informs us in his dictionary, after mentioning the disuse of the word in England: "It is, however, employed by the American clergy as a sort of technical term in the sense of *to license*, or *to give license or approbation to preach*."

I am very much surprised at the reviewer's statement with regard to the omission of the special use of *author* in the sense of 'editor,' which, he says, was "a common employment of the word during a large part of the last century." That such a "common employment" should have been overlooked by more than 1,300 readers, as well as by many modern lexicographers, is not only one of the strangest, but one of the most inexcusable omissions of the 'New Dictionary.' I wish very much, therefore, that the writer of the review would favor the readers of the *Nation* with some quotations in proof of his assertion.

J. P.

February 24, 1886.

[Our correspondent's points will be taken up in the order in which they are made. In the case of *anti-slavery*, it is sufficient to say that a quotation illustrating the use of a word is not a definition of that word. Our notice specifically mentioned that *anti-slavery* occurred in the Dictionary; but that it might perhaps strike an American with surprise that no explanation of it as the name of a definite party existing at a definite period was to be found. No such explanation can be found. As a matter of fact, we did not insist that it ought to be found.

Our correspondent's remark about *approbate* does not even touch the point made, and, besides, gives a wrong impression of what we did say. In the Dictionary it is definitely asserted that *approbate* is "*often* used in the United States" in the general sense of "simply" 'approve.' This is quite another thing from the technical sense of 'license to preach,' as quoted by our correspondent from Worcester. Nor, again, did we in this case deny the fact of the word being used: we simply denied that it was *often* used. Nothing has been brought forward in the letter given above to impeach the correctness of this assertion.

In the case of *author*, we really cannot consent to the view implied in our correspondent's words, that any amount of ignorance, however astounding, on the part of modern lexicographers or the "1,300 readers" for this particular dictionary, can be fairly held to counterbalance any amount of knowledge on our part, however slight. Our knowledge on this point, moreover, is not slight. If our correspondent will examine the early volumes of the *Gentleman's Magazine*, begun in 1731, or of the *London Magazine*, begun in 1732, or of the *Scots Magazine*, begun in 1739, or of the *Universal Magazine*, begun in 1747, he will find that communications addressed to him whom we should now call the Editor were then addressed to the Author of the particular magazine. We mention these periodicals because the sets of them are very long, and because, with one exception, they survived into this century, and, as a consequence, are more likely than others that could be named to be found in public libraries. As our correspondent asks for specific references, however, that disposition of human nature to oblige people who at heart are not anxious to be obliged leads us to furnish a few. In the *London Magazine* for 1752 he will find on pages 31, 67, 69, 154, 184, 202, 227, 228, 247, 298, 311, 322, 323, 356, 360, 365, 367, 374, 375, 391, 417, 422, 454, 458, 463, 511, and 550, letters from correspondents addressed "to the author of the *London Magazine*." Illustrations from the *Gentleman's Magazine* could not be so readily furnished, for correspondents usually addressed the exalted being who presided over that periodical as "Mr. Urban"; but a sentence from the preface to the completed volume for this same year, 1752, may perhaps be of interest to our correspondent. "From another imitator," it is said, "we have had fairer treatment; the author of an Edinburgh magazine, as he copies our best pieces, sets before them or after them *Gent. Mag.*" It must not be supposed that this method of address was peculiar to this type of periodical publication. We have before us at this very moment of writing a volume containing the London newspaper entitled *The Saint James's Evening Post*, for the years 1748 and 1749. Every letter to the one we should now call the editor is addressed "to the author, etc." There is no need of multiplying instances; but our correspondent can rest assured that if it be deemed worth while, we can easily furnish a separate instance of this usage to each of his "1,300 readers." Later in the century the term *author* was abandoned; and to some extent certainly, if not universally, *printer* took its place. It was, for illustration, "to the printer of the *Public Advertiser*" that the letters of Junius were addressed. When the term *editor* came to be employed, we shall hope to know when the new dictionary reaches the letter E.

So far from intending to do injustice to the work reviewed, which we look upon as an indispensable requisite in English study and an honor to English scholarship, our words were very carefully weighed so as not even to do it unintentional injustice. Mistakes in details must inevitably be made, and it is neither fair to the public nor ultimately beneficial to the Dictionary to deny them or to overlook them. The subject of Americanisms, in particular, is

one of peculiar difficulty, because so constant is the communication between all parts of our country that terms and phrases strictly characteristic of one section are always liable to be transplanted, and to turn up occasionally in spots most remote from their place of origin or of general use. Our language was therefore in every instance cautiously guarded, and we have a right to ask that those who except to it shall base their criticism upon what we actually did say, and not upon the false impression they form from careless reading as to what we said. —Ed. Nation.]

CHALLENGE AND BANTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The common people in the eastern part of Nova Scotia use "banter" in the sense of "challenge." It is the word with them for the idea. Boys say, "I banter you for a race," "I banter you for a jump." They never use banter in the sense of raillery. John Fraser.

Boston, February 23, 1886.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As was stated by a correspondent in the *Nation* of February 18, the use of the word "banter" in the sense of "challenge" is quite common in parts of Ohio. If I am not mistaken, however, there is a marked difference in the use of the two words which is worthy of attention. So far as I have observed, the word "challenge" is almost invariably used when any element of formality is involved; but when this is lacking "banter" is very frequent indeed. To illustrate, the First Nine always *challenges* the Second Nine to a match game of ball, but Jack meets Jim along the road and "*banters* him for a race." When the word is used in this sense it is almost always followed by the preposition "for," as above. These distinctions would be obvious to any one in the localities covered by my observation. If they do not obtain elsewhere, will some one please let us know? W. H. J.

Ind. Univ., Muscogee, I. T.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I write to substantiate the statement made by a writer in the last number of the *Nation* relative to the use of the word "banter" in the Southwestern States. Being a resident of northern Ohio, where one never hears it used in the sense of challenge, but now visiting in Texas, the statement made impressed itself upon my mind. The very next day after reading the letter my eye fell upon the announcement in the local paper that "Mr. Blank, the noted Southern athlete, is in the city, and has made a *banter* [underscoring mine] to throw," etc., etc.; and as I sat down to write the above, a youngster rushed in, and, to the query of what he had been doing, said he "had been down in the hollow making banters." Upon inquiry, I learned he meant *challenges*.—Yours truly, John C. Sage.

Denison, Texas, February 25, 1886.

THE HENNEPIN CANAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial note in No. 1077 you speak in tones condemnatory of the Hennepin Canal, but do not attempt to show the hollowness of much of the pretence used by Murphy in his argument. He claims that the improvement is needed to enable the Western producer to get his wheat to market in competition with other countries contending for the foreign trade. This claim rests on ignorance and is built of misrepresentation. Let us see what the producer can do. Every mile of railroad in Iowa, Nebraska, Minnesota, and Dakota is either owned or controlled by a company with an outlet at Duluth or Chicago, and there is not one of these companies that would give a local rate to the Mississippi River that would allow a water route to transport it the rest of the distance. The present local rates of railroad companies per ton are:

	10 miles	50 miles	100 miles	150 miles	200 miles	250 miles	300 miles
In Iowa.....	$1.40	$2.20	$3.40	$4.00	$4.40	$5.00	$5.40
In Minnesota...	1.60	3 20	4.40	5.40	6.00	6.20	6.60

Rates from Cedar Rapids, Iowa, to Chicago are $4.00 per ton. Allowing that freight on the canal can be moved as cheaply as the workers in favor of this route claim, viz., 85 cents per ton from Davenport, Iowa, to Chicago, and basing our estimates on that, our figures will be something like this:

Cedar Rapids to Davenport by rail	$2.70
Transfer to barges	25
Canal to Chicago	85
	$3.80

Now let us try a Minnesota point:

Ramsay through to Chicago	$5.60
By rail to Meoregor, Iowa	$3.60
Transfer to barges	25
Water route to Chicago	1.40
	$5.25

In this last we have taken a pro-rata mileage for the distance travelled on the Mississippi River as on the canal. As will be seen, it affects Cedar Rapids rates 20 cents per ton, and the Minnesota rates 35 cents. In neither case will it affect wheat over one cent a bushel.

Now let us try points further West:

From Des Moines, Iowa, to Chicago, the railroad rates are	$5.20
By rail to Davenport	$4.20
Transfer to barges	25
Water to Chicago	85
	$5.30
Rates from Sioux City, Iowa, to Chicago are now	$6.00
Sioux City, Iowa, to Dubuque	$5.85
Transfer to barges	25
Water to Chicago	1.00
	$7.10
Rates from Watertown, Dakota, to Chicago are	$7.00
Watertown to Davenport	$6.60
Transfer to barges	25
Water to Chicago	85
	$7.70

When the canal assumes to help the farmer in the West it is not able to make the assumption good. It cannot affect rates from the region that is now clamoring for cheap transportation. And how will it affect rates from Dakota, where the Northern Pacific and Manitoba roads make a common rate to either Duluth or Minneapolis? No amount of fine words can make a change in these rates even when used in connection with a vile open sewer for the coming metropolis of the country.

As an owner of land and raiser of wheat in Dakota, I wish to protest against being used by the boomers of the grandest humbug we have yet seen. The Galveston Harbor might have been of some value when completed, but this ditch can never carry a bushel of our grain; the Chicago scalpers will never let our Minneapolis flour pass through their greedy claws without taking all the profit a canal might save as their inspection and warehouse charges. If Chicago wants a sewer, or if Moline manufacturers want the canal, we have no objection if they will buy in their own name, but we don't want the cost charged to our account. Give us a chance, and the wheat growers will get along without Mr. Murphy. Give us a little relief from the present war tariff and burdensome navigation laws, but don't treat us to a canal we don't want and then call us ungrateful. A. M. Van Auken.

Ojata, Grand Forks Co., Dak., February 22, 1886.

THE OHIO IMBROGLIO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an article entitled "The Ohio Imbroglio," published last week, the author, Mr. James Boyle, says: "The Constitution of Ohio, in explicit terms, defines the duties of the Lieutenant-Governor. It states that he shall preside over the Senate, order roll-calls, and announce results of votes, etc."

The Constitution of Ohio section 16, article iii., says: "The Lieutenant-Governor shall be President of the Senate, but shall vote only when the Senate is equally divided." That is all the Constitution says as to the duties of the Lieutenant-Governor. It does not "in explicit terms" define his duties, nor does it state that he shall order roll-calls and announce results of votes, etc. Lawyer.

Cincinnati, February 22, 1886.

THE REDEMPTION OF SILVER DOLLARS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In recent issues of your valuable paper you state that "the Government is virtually redeeming its silver dollars in gold at the custom-houses." We do not understand how this is done. Will you kindly explain fully and clearly in what mode, manner, or process this redemption is performed? A Constant Reader.

Chillicothe, Mo., February 19, 1886.

[Prior to the passage of the silver-coinage act, all customs duties were payable in gold. The silver-coinage act made silver dollars receivable for customs duties the same as gold. Anybody who has silver dollars can therefore get gold value for them by using them to make payments at the custom-house, or by exchanging them with somebody who has to pay duties there. It is this process which we have described as "virtually redeeming silver dollars in gold at the custom-house." Some form of redemption must be going on to keep 80 cents' worth of silver equal to 100 cents' worth of gold. We conclude that it is this virtual redemption at the custom-house that performs the office, which would otherwise be a miracle.—Ed. Nation.]

A HOME THRUST AT SENATOR BLAIR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The experience of New Hampshire with her "valued policy" law, referred to in the *Nation* of February 18, deserves a great deal of careful attention, at a time when the Government is being importuned, on every hand, to enter upon a wholesale assumption of the duties and responsibilities ordinarily considered as belonging to individuals or communities.

If a mere lack of facilities for insurance, by throwing the danger of loss upon the individual owner, has decreased the number of fires in New Hampshire more than one-half, the question may well be raised whether the total abolition of the insurance system would not be a positive gain to the country. Individuals or communities are not going to develop watchfulness and industry if the penalty of carelessness and indolence is to be borne by some one else. Perhaps it will not be straining a point unduly to suggest that this insurance law and its result may be a wise dispensation of Providence for the purpose of giving Senator Blair a good illustration, right at home, of the beneficent effects of throwing people upon their own resources. If the Senator's

constituents can take so much better care of their property when they themselves are responsible for it, ought he not to conclude that the people of the South will do more for education when responsible for the evil effects of illiteracy than when his pet scheme shall have placed that responsibility upon the nation at large?

The *Nation* speaks of the decrease of fires in New Hampshire as "curious and unexpected." Unexpected it doubtless is, but is it curious that property should be better cared for when the owners' self-interest in having it well cared for is largely increased? The good effects of *laissez-faire* have not had a better illustration for a long while than is given by the results of this much-ridiculed "valued policy" law of New Hampshire. W. H. JOHNSON.

FEBRUARY 23, 1886.

JOHN HARVARD: A DIFFICULTY SOLVED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It appears to be clear that John Harvard was born in Surrey, at Southwark, and it is certain that when he went up to Cambridge in 1627 he was described at Emmanuel College as of Middlesex. This is the matter upon which I propose to offer some observations, with the view of removing an apparent discrepancy, for which some would account by the statement that in 1627 he was probably living in London with his mother and her husband. How far this is satisfactory will appear from what follows.

The first point of inquiry is in what manner in Harvard's time the questions addressed to a young man on entering college were put, and I think we are not without a guide which will lead us in a certain direction. When St. John's College published the first part of its Admission Register, which begins in 1629-30, it was an object of interest with me to identify, for my own information, some of the places which appear in it in a form truly grotesque. For reasons into which I need not here enter, I was led to rely mainly upon sound, and, having thus succeeded in overcoming difficulties which appeared almost insuperable, I arrived, upon independent grounds, at the same conclusion as the editor of the Register, namely, that the entries were made from statements taken down from the lips of the persons admitted; and there was no doubt uniformity of practice among the different colleges of the University.

The next point is, What was the nature of the questions? and this renders it necessary to speak of the object which they had in view. That object was not, as the man of to-day might suppose, the mere collection of useful statistics, but was to indicate for what scholarships and other advantages, restricted to those born in a certain district, the person admitted was eligible. It is ignorance of this leading fact which has led into error those who hitherto have attempted to explain the matter. The place at which the person was residing when he went up to the University, was foreign to the scope of the inquiry; the place of birth being alone material.

The chief question, then, which was put to John Harvard at Emmanuel College was, where he was born, and the entry of Middlesex leaves no doubt that his reply was "in London." It is stated that the precise locality of his birth was the High Street of Southwark, and the statement derives corroboration from that which proceeded from his own lips. The High Street of Southwark, which extended southward from London Bridge to the spot where stood St. Margaret's Hall, formed part of the City of London, being included in the City Ward of Bridge Without, so that a person born in that street properly described himself as born in London. Z.

CAMBRIDGE, ENGLAND, February 12, 1886.

Notes.

A TRANSLATION of Dr. Paul Radestock's 'Habit and Its Importance in Education,' with an introduction by Dr. Stanley Hall, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Cassell & Co. will publish early in the month the first volume of 'Actors and Actresses of Great Britain and the United States, from the days of David Garrick to the Present Time,' edited by Brander Matthews and Laurence Hutton. In scheme this is akin to both Ward's 'English Poets' and Mason's 'Personal Traits of British Authors,' as it will contain signed biographical sketches, like the one, and extracts, criticism, and anecdote, like the other. The first volume is devoted to the chief performers who were contemporary with Garrick; and it will contain brief biographies of Macklin and Tate Wilkinson, by Mr. William Archer; of Quin and Mossop, by Mr. Robert W. Lowe; of Barry and Henderson, by Mr. Walter Herries Pollock; of Mrs. Abington and Mrs. Bellamy, by Mr. Percy Fitzgerald; of Lewis Hallam, by Dr. Edward Eggleston; of Foote and the elder Sheridan, by Mr. Matthews; and of Garrick, Kitty Clive, and Peg Woffington, by Mr. Austin Dobson. There will be four more volumes, considering in chronological sequence the performers of the Kemble period, of the Kean-Booth and the Macready-Forrest periods, and of the present time. Among the other contributors will be Mr. Edwin Booth, Mr. Lawrence Barrett, Mr. W. J. Florence, Mr. Harry Edwards, Mrs. Agnes Ethel Tracy, Miss Kate Field, Mr. William Winter, Mr. Joseph N. Ireland, Mr. H. C. Bunner, Miss J. L. Gilder, Mr. W. M. Laffan, Dr. B. E. Martin, Mr. Clinton Stuart, Mr. Henry Norman, and Mr. Laurence Hutton.

A new edition, limited to 125 copies, is about to be published by J. W. Jarvis & Son in London (New York: Scribner & Welford) of Downe's 'Roscius Anglicanus,' the chief authority for the history of the English stage from 1660 to 1706. The new edition will be printed with notes by Garrick's biographer, Tom Davies, and with an historical preface by Mr. Joseph Knight, the dramatic critic of the *Athenæum* and editor of *Notes and Queries*.

The *Truth-Seeker* Company, of this city, will publish directly the recent discussion in the *Nineteenth Century* between Gladstone, Huxley, and others, under the title 'The Order of Creation: The Conflict between Genesis and Geology.'

A new edition of C. B. Vaux's 'Canoe Handling and Sailing' is announced by the *Forest and Stream* Publishing Company.

Mr. W. R. Jenkins, No. 850 Sixth Avenue, has added Louis Énault's 'Carine' to his series of "Contes Choisis." He announces that he shall make a venture in Italian reprints, beginning with 'Alberto,' by E. De Amicis, annotated in English.

The *English Magazine* will reproduce some of the latest drawings of the lamented Mr. Randolph Caldecott in connection with a paper from his own pen, "Fox Hunting, by a Man in a Round Hat." In no other class of designs were his skill and humor more eminent.

Like the *Harvard Advocate* recently, the *Yale Literary Magazine* celebrates an anniversary (semi-centennial) in its February issue by printing articles specially contributed by former editors, including Senator Evarts, one of its founders; Donald G. Mitchell; President White, of Cornell; President Gilman, of Johns Hopkins; Profs. E. R. Sill, T. R. Lounsbury, and C. A. Lyman; W. W. Crapo, and Charlton T. Lewis. This is a distinguished list, and the *Yale Lit.* can further say for itself that it is the oldest college periodical in the country, and indeed the oldest monthly of any kind in the United States.

A city which sustains two first-class operas may, perhaps, be expected to support two *North American Reviews*. Such would seem to be the opinion of Mr. L. S. Metcalf, who edits the new *Forum* (No. 97 Fifth Avenue). One thing is certain, that his long connection with the *North American* has thoroughly acquainted him with the secret of that publication. His first number does not indeed contain a "symposium," but that may come later. The list of contributors to the March issue — Professor Alexander Winchell, James Parton, E. P. Whipple, Rev. Dr. R. H. Newton, Rev. E. E. Hale, Bishop Coxe, Dr. W. A. Hammond, Rev. M. J. Savage, Chancellor Howard Crosby—shows that the plan of bespeaking essays from celebrities at a liberal price will be followed here as in the older magazine. It shows, too, what a very artificial *forum* Mr. Metcalf presides over; in appearance an English review, but in fact not the natural medium of the persons we have just named, nor one called for by the amount of thought and culture seeking expression in this country. Mr. Hale lets the cat out of the purveyor's bag in his article, "How I was Educated": "The editor of the *Forum* has thought that a series of papers in which different people shall describe the methods of their school education may be at least amusing, and perhaps profitable, if only by way of caution. He has, therefore, induced a good many men to pose on his platform as 'awful warnings,'" etc.

Mr. Rideing's pretty volume, 'Thackeray's London' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.), with two good portraits of the novelist and some other interesting illustrations, is an extension of a magazine article previously published, and makes a convenient guide-book to the haunts and dwelling-places of the novelist and his characters. The slight localization of his scenes Mr. Rideing mentions as a characteristic of his art; and in consequence of this the volume is slight and sketchy, and somewhat padded with anecdote and sentimental criticism, the pages on the Charter-house and the Athenæum Club being the most substantial part.

To Mackenzie's 'Man of Feeling' (No. 5 in Cassell's National Library) the editor, Prof. Morley, prefixes an "index to tears (chokings, etc., not counted)," by way of preparation for this sentimental romance of the last century. Izaak Walton's 'Complete Angler,' we should have stated, is No. 4 in the same series.

One of the most delightful of misprints is to be found in the recent charming little sketch of 'Madame de Maintenon,' by Mr. J. Cotter Morison. Mme. de Maintenon was fond of being asked to go up higher, gratifying her pride by refusing the proffered honor, and Mr. Morison declares that "she belongs to the class of *glorieuses modestes*, as Sainte-Beuve says, with untranslatable felicity." And the English printer, with a felicity as great as the French critic's, has made it appear that the second wife of Louis XIV. "belongs to the class of *glorieuses modistes!*"

Mr. Frederick Locker, the lyrist of London, has one of the finest collections of rare and beautiful books in England; it abounds in scarce first editions and contains many curious MSS. Mr. Locker has at last been persuaded to print a catalogue of the Rowfant Library, and it will appear in March, only 150 copies being printed, a few of which will be for sale through Mr. Quaritch. Mr. Andrew Lang has written two poems to adorn the catalogue.

It may be noted that Mr. Lang is generally credited with the authorship of the clever mythological sketch in the current *Macmillan* on the "Gladstone Myth."

Dr. McCosh's recent critique of President Eliot's paper on college sectarianism has been printed as a pamphlet by A. C. Armstrong & Son. As nearly as we can make out, the Princeton President is averse to compulsory worship, but disposed to have the Christian evidences (*alias* Calvinism) taught as stringently as the classics or mathematics, allowing no difference between them as natural obligatory culture.

The report of the Commissioner of Education for 1883-84 has just emerged from the Government Printing Office. It contains the customary general review, with detailed statistics from every State in the Union, a glance abroad, and much other matter valuable for reference. A perennial interest attaches to the amount of gifts and legacies in behalf of education which private benevolence never ceases to pour out. From January 1, 1883, to July 1, 1884, it is estimated at upward of eleven million of dollars —nearly a million a month; the particulars are tabulated so far as known. Table XXIV. of "Publications, educational, historical, etc., for 1883-84, compiled from publishers' announcements," is of doubtful propriety, considering the range allowed it, and to be available ought to have been classified or alphabetized on a quite different scheme.

In contrast with the foregoing, a high degree of readability can be predicated of another Government publication, 'The Fisheries and Fishery Industries of the United States. Section I.—Natural History of Useful Aquatic Animals, with an atlas of 227 plates.' This work has been prepared under the direction of Mr. George Brown Goode, assistant director of the National Museum, with the aid of twenty associates. It is an outgrowth of the census of 1880, and will consist ultimately of thirteen parts, all, like the present section, being fairly to be called popular science and popular reading. The fisheries statistics proper are included in the census series. Whales and porpoises, seals and walruses; habits of the fur-seal; manatees and arctic sea-cow; alligator and crocodile, amphibians; a host of fishes; mollusks, and the oyster in particular; crustaceans, worms, radiates, and sponges—these are the subjects of the several chapters. Readers, old and young, will find in them a great deal that is new, fascinating, and instructive. The plates are in a volume by themselves, and offer still further attractions.

At least three of the leading articles in the *American Naturalist* for March will arrest attention. First in order is the Rev. J. Owen Dorsey's "Migrations of Siouan Tribes," illustrated by numerous maps. Mr. I. Lancaster's "Torture of the Fish-hawk [viz.: by the Frigate-bird]," is remarkable for its graphic description of bird life on the Florida Keys—almost painful in the sympathy which it evokes for the unfortunate victim of the aerial bandits. Finally, Mr. L. P. Gratacap briefly tells of some important recent discoveries of fish remains and tracks in the Triassic rocks at Weehawken, N. J., and pictures the scene and some of the remains.

We have on our table the Proceedings of the American Forestry Congress at its Boston meeting last September—a thin pamphlet, procurable of the Secretary, Mr. B. E. Fernow, 13 Burling Slip, N. Y.; and the Proceedings of the American Pomological Society at its twentieth session, also in September, 1885, at Grand Rapids, Mich. This is a generous quarto, full of practical information concerning not only apple culture, but also that of other fruits, large and small. It may be had of Mr. Charles W. Garfield, Secretary, at Grand Rapids.

The most striking thing in the March number of the *Book Buyer* is the portrait of Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson, from a private photograph by Sir Percy Shelley. It is what a picture-auctioneer would call "very characteristic": the face has a look of strange power. Mr. Laurence Hutton's interesting and gossiping series of papers on American book plates is continued with facsimiles of four specimens, among which is the famous Harvard College *detur*. For the rest, there are the usual reviews of new books, some illustrated, among which we may note one by Mr. J. B. Millet, of the forthcoming memorial to George Fuller.

Dr. Stillé's paper on "Religious Tests in Provincial Pennsylvania" is the most substantial and valuable feature of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* for January. It disposes of a prevalent notion that the colony was exempt from such tests, whereas, says Dr. Stillé, "its Quaker inhabitants did share the opinion of the whole world at that time, that an orthodox faith was an essential qualification for civil office."

Mr. Hamerton's further chapters on "Imagination in Landscape Painting" alone would make the February *Portfolio* attractive, but one can also enjoy Mr. F. G. Stephens's second paper on James Ward, the animal and allegorical painter, well illustrated, like Mr. Hamerton's; and there is begun a sketch of the late Hans Makart, by Mrs. M. G. Van Rensselaer. The frontispiece is an honest and effective etching after a character study by Norman Macbeth, whose son has handled the needle. A mezzotint engraving, from a landscape by Gainsborough, will ultimately adorn the book which the editor is now evolving month by month.

Parts 11-17 of the 'Allgemeine Naturkunde' (B. Westermann & Co.), are devoted largely to Africa, the people of the interior of the West Coast in especial; but also to a general anthropological discussion, and to the animal Man. The woodcuts continue most interesting and authentic, and represent racial types, weapons, implements, village architecture, etc. Several anatomical plates are beautifully colored.

Miss F. Helen Prideaux has died of diphtheria, contracted while holding the post of house surgeon at the Paddington Hospital for children. She was one of the most distinguished women who have graduated in medicine at the University of London. At the intermediate examination she obtained the first place in honors in anatomy together with the gold medal and scholarship; and in the final examination, in 1884, she was placed in the honors list in every subject.

An effort is making, and ought to succeed, to raise $1,000 in twenty subscriptions, to purchase for the National Museum the invaluable life casts of President Lincoln's face and hands, now temporarily deposited in the Museum at the Central Park They were taken, as readers of the *Century* will remember, by Mr. Leonard W. Volk, the sculptor, in June, 1860. The subscription of $50 will secure plaster replicas of the three pieces, and for $85 bronze replicas will be furnished (or $75 for the head alone in bronze, and the hands in plaster). There are certain conditions as to multiplying copies other than these. Subscriptions may be made to Mr. Augustus St. Gaudens, 148 West Thirty-sixth Street, or to Mr. R. W. Gilder, editor of the *Century Magazine*, 33 East Seventeenth Street.

Anything which makes the relations between Columbia College and the city closer, is to be welcomed, and we are glad to see announced six free public lectures by Prof. H. H. Boyesen, on the four Saturdays in March, and on April 3 and 16. The subjects are the French Novelists; French Poets and Critics; the German Novel; the English Novel; Russian Novelists and Nihilists; and Scandinavian Poets and Novelists. The hour is 11:30 A. M. to 12:30 P. M. Tickets can be had by addressing Professor Boyesen at the college.

— President Eliot's annual novelty might be described as a scholastic photograph album. In order to exhibit beyond cavil the workings of the elective system at Harvard, he has tabulated in his report the choice of work, during three years, of the two latest graduating classes, man by man, to the number of 350. Each *cadre* has a physiognomy of its own as real and as distinct as that of the student in the flesh, and affords a basis for much interesting deduction and speculation. Thus, in order to ascertain how far the new freedom tends to smattering, to dissipation of culture, to illogical and inharmonious education, these tables were separately subjected to the scrutiny of three experts, who found, all told, only twenty-one cases open to this reproach, though they agreed as to only six. This is a very remarkable showing, and bears directly on the question, which President Eliot discusses, whether the natural and artificial restraints of the existing system do not produce a satisfactory grouping of kindred studies, without the evils incident to a formal, inflexible grouping. On the other hand, specialization appears not to have been carried to excess, and it is equally certain that "soft" subjects are not unduly in request. President Eliot demonstrates the marked effect for good in many ways of the elective system on the intellectual life of the college, and finds a happy example of the value of a varied spontaneous discipline in the composition (according to the tables above mentioned) of "a well-known small literary society in which the members enjoy a close intellectual intimacy." He concludes, in answer to a question often asked, by stating that the degree of Bachelor of Arts means at Harvard "that all Bachelors of Arts have spent from seven to ten years, somewhere between the ages of twelve and twenty-three, in liberal studies." It should be added that President Eliot does not regard the present system as a finality, but as infinitely perfectible, holding fast to the fundamental law of freedom. We observe no flaw in his argument from experience, except what may lurk in the acknowledged defects of the marking system. It would, however, meet an objection occasionally heard if in some other report it should be shown how far cramming has been fostered by the new régime, can escape detection and secure rank or honors.

— We regret President Eliot's inadequate and unsympathetic allusion to the movement against compulsory prayers, even while recording on the same page the abandonment of control of the student's church-going on Sunday. The reports of the several departments are, as usual, full of instruction. The elective system has been hopefully introduced in the Divinity School, where also "politics in the pulpit" has been countenanced by systematic "recognition, as a part of training for the ministry, of the study of social reforms." Mr. Winsor, reporting the condition of the Library, utters a gentle protest against the natural tendency on the part of instructors to demand current periodical literature to such an extent as seriously to encroach on the funds available for the purchase of books. We observe that the number of German books bought in the past two years was about double the number of French; and it is a singular result of the regulation in regard to the Freshman study of modern languages that, French being the one most easily and therefore commonly acquired for admission, German becomes obligatory upon and is pursued by much the larger number. Mr. Agassiz rehearses the inspiring story of the development of the Museum founded by his father, originally as a State institution, and calls attention to the curious coincidence that this foundation "dates from the publication of the 'Origin of Species.'" Noting the revolution

in scientific thought produced by this work, he says:

"Should the synoptic, the systematic, the faunal, and the palæontological collections cease to bear the interpretation given to them by their founder, their interest and importance, even for the advocates of the new biology, would not be one whit lessened. If the anatomical, embryological, synthetic, and other series presented by the pupil of Cuvier from his point of view, are differently considered to-day by the followers of Darwin, they may for this very reason have gained a general interest they did not formerly possess."

—A new volume has just been published of 'Ersch und Gruber's Encyklopädie,' extending from *Kocher* to *Koeppen*. As usual in this work, much space is devoted to elaborate biographies of German men of learning who are but little known outside of their own country; but there is also a fair proportion of articles of general interest. The longest one in the volume, filling thirty two pages, is on coal, of which four are devoted to diamonds, as one of the forms of carbon. A statement is here made which will be new to most readers, viz, that in consequence of the more frequent occurrence in late years of large stones, the value of diamonds no longer increases with the square of the weight, but simply in direct proportion with the weight. The old rule is the one given in volume vii of the 'Britannica,' published in 1878. There is also an article of nine pages, by E. Kautsch, on Koheleth, or, as it is called in our English Bible, the Book of Ecclesiastes. This gives a summary of the contents of the book, an account of the various theories concerning its authorship and the period of its composition, and a very full bibliography, brought down to 1883. The article *Kongo* requires more than ten pages, and comes down to April 29, 1885. The editor apologizes for printing a second article on this subject, and pleads that the article Congo no longer represents the present state of knowledge. As the latter was published in 1829, the statement will be readily believed. Full justice is done to Stanley, the author of the article quoting as well earned the praise bestowed by Petermann as follows: "Stanley has done more than the whole scientific explorations of the interior of Africa had accomplished in thirty years; more than all European travellers who for a century had penetrated into the interior of Africa; more than all the hoary and classic ancients put together; he has collected more information than all the millions of natives possessed about their own country. There is no similar example in the entire history of discovery." The Congo Conference is treated in detail. Fourteen pages are devoted to Greek and to Roman Comedy, twenty to Constantinople, four to Comets. But perhaps the characteristics which distinguish this work from other encyclopedias can be best indicated by noting that it has an article of three pages on Theodor Kolokotronis (1770-1843), a leader in the Greek war of independence against Turkey; one of four pages on Koloman, a King of Hungary from 1095 to 1114; one of nearly four pages on the Kolarian languages, of which the Sántáli or Santhal and the Mundári are the only ones that have been reduced to grammatical treatment. The letter K being comparatively barren of subjects, this may be considered a remarkable exhibit.

—The Goethe-Gesellschaft at Weimar, constituted in June, 1885, has just issued, to members only, its first publication, 'Letters of Goethe's Mother to the Duchess Anna Amalia,' edited by C. A. H. Burkhardt. It forms a handsome, well-printed 12mo, containing Burkhardt's short introduction, forty-nine letters of "Frau Aja," correctly transcribed from the originals, preserving her orthography and punctuation (therein differing from previous publications of selections), and four letters of the Duchess to Goethe's mother, with twenty pages of notes and explanations and an index. Appended are the first report of the managing committee, a list of members at the close of 1885, and the statutes. The Grand-Duke of Saxe-Weimar is the society's patron, Dr. Simson, of Leipzig (Chief-Justice of the German Supreme Court and for many years presiding officer of the German Reichstag), is President. Baron von Loën at Weimar heads the managing committee. Twenty princes and princesses are members—Karl August's granddaughter, the German Empress; the German Crown Prince and Princess; and the Queen of Italy, granddaughter of the late King John of Saxony, among them. The list foots up 1,304, the United States being represented by six members. The annual dues are only ten marks (about $2.50), and entitle members to a copy of the *Goethe-Jahrbuch*, which will hereafter be the official organ of the society. They also have the privilege of buying at half-price the previously issued volumes of this important and valuable publication up to the close of the current year until the edition is exhausted. For the first year the letters of Goethe's mother are substituted for the *Jahrbuch*. Members will enjoy special rates in purchasing later publications, which will not generally be for sale. Hence our public libraries and all interested in the study of Goethe should become members and secure copies of these publications. Mr. E. Lemcke, of B. Westermann & Co., New York, offers to receive and forward the annual dues, and, if desired, the publications also, which our tariff, however, makes dutiable at 25 per cent. ad valorem, unless sent by mail, when they are appraised at the pleasure of the examiner stationed at the post-office.

—The Paris papers speak in glowing terms of the reception of M. Ludovic Halévy at the French Academy on the 4th of February. Never since the reception of the Duc d'Aumale has there been such a brilliant gathering and so much animation. The new member recounted in the simplest manner the life of his predecessor, Comte Othenin d'Haussonville, dwelling as much upon the political and benevolent part of his career as upon his literary and historical labors. The passages relating to the 'Histoire de la réunion de la Lorraine à la France' were particularly felicitous. There were perhaps too many allusions to the politics of the day, both in M. Halévy's discourse and in the reply to it, and some slightly malicious hits which were calculated to please the special public of the occasion. But the French Academy has never been very republican in its tone. M. Pailleron's answer was a series of bright flashes, witty, amusing, and as remote as possible from the conventional Academic oration. It was a rare pleasure to hear the author of "Le monde où l'on s'ennuie" extolling the art which has brought into the Academy both himself and the clever author of comedies whom he was receiving. After an eloquent tribute to the power of the stage, he passed on to the recent novels of the recipiendary without dwelling too much upon his rather light plays, almost all produced in collaboration with M. Meilhac. He insisted perhaps too strongly upon the merits of 'Monsieur et Madame Cardinal' and of 'L'Abbé Constantin,' praising the healthy cheerfulness of their author. If M. Pailleron is to be believed, French gayety has given place to a sickly pessimism and to sadness. But what better proof of the contrary than the very discourse in which he said this, and the satisfaction of the audience, whom both he and the newly received member charmed by their liveliness and grace? For the two obtained an unusually brilliant success. According to M. Francisque Sarcey, both read delightfully, and who is a better judge of this than M. Sarcey?

—M. G. de la Landelle, who died recently in Paris, aged 74 years, was a man of considerable merit and a writer of no little repute in years past. Entering the French navy as a midshipman, he served with distinction, and had risen to the rank of lieutenant on a first-class frigate, when, from political motives, he resigned his commission in 1839. He then devoted himself to literature. His first book, 'Les Français peints par eux-mêmes,' was received with much favor, and placed him at once among the popular writers of the time. It was in the halcyon days of the literature of fiction which followed the advent of Romanticism, when Balzac and Dumas were writing novel after novel with a rapidity unequalled since. De la Landelle chose for his especial line the maritime novel, for which eleven years' navigation in distant seas had supplied him with inexhaustible material. He became the French Marryat. A man of sound morals, with the strong religious opinions and the high breeding which distinguished the old French nobility, his books, like his life, were pure and free from everything coarse or vulgar, even though he described the rough manners and varied adventures of the seaman. His 'Gorgon' and his 'Nightwatches' are the best remembered of his fifty-odd works of fiction. He continued to write until his death, but his books could not find favor with a generation of readers who admire Zola and his school. M. de la Landelle's energy did not flag with the advent of old age. He took a lively interest in everything that would tend to improve the condition of man. He was truly progressive, and had an unwavering faith in the capabilities of modern science. One of the last problems to which he turned his attention was aerial navigation, in the final success of which he believed. His patriotism was sincere. When Paris was besieged by the Prussians, M. de la Landelle, then in his 60th year, donned his old lieutenant's uniform, and did good service at the head of a detachment of sailors. He was one of the oldest members of the *Société des Gens de Lettres* and an officer of the Legion of Honor. Strangely enough, M. de la Landelle has left an important posthumous work which is mainly of American interest. This work, to which he added the word "finis" only a few weeks before his death, is an historical novel called 'Robert Fulton and Steam Navigation.' M. de la Landelle had visited this country in years past, and this project of an American novel haunted his mind until last year, when, having gathered abundant material, he set to writing it. Before his book was finished he made arrangements with a friend in Baltimore to translate it, and it is expected that the English version will appear here almost simultaneously with the publication in Paris of the French original.

—Count Goblet D'Alviella, treating "Des préjugés qui entravent l'étude scientifique des religions," finds five. The first is the religious, which starts by regarding one religion as divine, and all the rest as inferior if not diabolical. The second, not less fatal to scientific investigation, is the anti-religious, which despises them all. The third is the philosophical, which seeks to find in the facts a confirmation of a preconceived theory. A fourth source of error is the tendency to hasty generalization. One man finds that priests have been strenuous in maintaining some decaying faiths, and concludes that all faiths were invented by priests. Another sees in all deities deified men. A third is sure that they are all personifications of natural forces. Another maintains that all mythology is misunderstood metaphor. Count Goblet D'Alviella thinks that there is some truth in all these theories — that one may apply to one nation, another to another, and that one must not apply one theory to all races, nor be too ready to affirm the

identity of religions widely separated by time and space. He is an eclectic. Mr. Maurice Vernes, whose specialty is Semitism, but who is interested in all religious history, goes further; he is an agnostic. He maintains not only that we are not in a condition yet to give any general theory of religions, but that we must not say anything about the origin (or origins) of religion at present. The science is in its earliest infancy—at that stage where it needs observers to collect facts and not theorizers to misinterpret them. We are always hearing such warnings in every science, but the crop of theories does not seem to diminish. Nor is it altogether to be regretted. Although the generalizations are hasty, and the one which is all-convincing to-day is laughed at to-morrow, yet they do good; for it is the interest which the theory inspires that leads to the collection of the facts which destroy it.

—All persons interested in the study of the topography of Ancient Rome will be glad to learn of the publication of a new volume of Jordan's 'Topographie der Stadt Rom im Alterthum' (Berlin: Weidmann). The new instalment is Part 2 of vol. i (vol. ii having been already published), and is a volume of 487 pages, containing five plates and a plan of the Forum. This volume is probably that portion of the work which will be of most general interest, as it is devoted to the Forum and some of the adjacent parts, and is prepared with the aid of the knowledge derived from the extensive excavations in this part of the city during the last few years. It contains four sections—the Capitolium, the ruins of the Forum and Sacred Way, the history of the Forum, etc., and the neighboring squares and market-places. The plan is very complete and detailed, giving the present condition of the Forum rather than its arrangement at any one historical epoch; so that it is necessary to consult the text in order to reconstruct it for the past. It will be enough here to call attention to two or three important points in regard to which this book shows the prevailing views to have been changed by the recent discoveries. First, it is now agreed that the Comitium lay upon the northern side of the western end of the Forum, a distinct place, separated from the Forum in later times by a street. On the line between the two the rostra originally stood, until moved by Cæsar to the spot where they are now to be seen. Secondly, the trapezoidal form of the Forum given by most plans is incorrect, and some consider its form to have been a parallelogram. Jordan, however, argues with great force that the northern side, after running parallel with the southern from the temple of Antoninus and Faustina to the cross-street (of late origin), from this point curved to the north, so that at the western extremity of the Forum it ran parallel with the front of the Curia—represented by the Church of San Adriano. Thirdly, it follows that the Sacred Way could not have run along the northern side of the Forum, as is usually assumed, but, after descending the Velia in front of the Basilica of Constantine, bent to the left, so as to reach the Forum at a point about opposite the Temples of Vesta and of Castor. From here a street (the one now uncovered) led directly along the south side of the Forum, leaving the Basilica Julia upon the left, and winding about the Temple of Saturn (the ruin with eight columns), joined the Clivus Capitolinus; but Jordan holds (in opposition, we think, to most authorities) that this continuation was not called Sacred Way.

—Sainte-Beuve said many years ago that Madame de Maintenon was "better than her reputation." This will not remain true after the many books that have been published of late upon her labors as an instructress of young girls. The excellent work of M. Gréard has done much to rehabilitate the memory of a woman whom the world has seen heretofore through the eyes of the not unprejudiced Saint-Simon. M. Émile Faguet has found something to add to the labors of his predecessors in his little volume, 'Madame de Maintenon Institutrice' (Paris: Oudin; Boston: Schoenhof). After an able and very interesting introduction on the life of Madame de Maintenon, he gives us long extracts from her letters, conversations, and several of her proverbs, all written for the school of Saint-Cyr, to which she devoted the latter part of her life. Viewed from this centre of her beneficent activity, the character of the companion and intimate adviser of the last thirty years of Louis XIV. may inspire, if not a warm sympathy, at least respect. Her reputation has everything to gain in not resting on what she did or did not do at court in the last sad years of her royal husband.

JOWETT'S POLITICS OF ARISTOTLE.

The Politics of Aristotle. Translated into English, with Introduction, Marginal Analysis, Essays, Notes, and Indexes. By B. Jowett. Vol. I., part 2, Vol. II. part 1. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1885.

THE translations of the Master of Balliol have passed into the list of the accepted classics of this sphere of English literature. Protest has not been wholly wanting, but the voices of the protesters have not been potential. The student of Thucydides who sees in the "tormented" style of that great author the impress of his age, with its consciousness and its contradictoriness, may resent an English Thucydides that runs trippingly from beginning to end. The lover of Plato may object to the smoothing and flattening process which reduces the high waves of the "great ocean of the beautiful" to a gentle ripple, may object to the bridging process which carries one dryshod over currents that must be battled with by the swimmer, if the power of that ocean is to be felt at all. But to most people Doctor Jowett's crisp, clear English has a charm that no countercharm can break. To have a Thucydides, a Plato that one can read as a pleasure is a great boon, and if the student does not repose his faith implicitly in Doctor Jowett's version, and does not undertake to argue from the translation as from an original, even the grim professional Hellenist may be content to let Doctor Jowett have all the praise that has attended his work in this line. Doctor Jowett has been for years a great power in Oxford, and behind the translation we feel the brilliant, fascinating, moulding master, with whom many would prefer to go wrong rather than to go right with a more painstaking fitter of idiom to idiom. With Aristotle, too, the case is different. Aristotle is not literature in the sense that Thucydides is literature and Plato is literature. When one has read one's self into him there is a certain hard pleasure in the notebook style, and occasionally there breaks out something that shows the possibility of the *flumen orationis aureum* of which Cicero speaks; but on the whole the average man will be content to get at Aristotle's thoughts—thoughts of inevitable importance—without too much trouble, and Doctor Jowett has made the way easy. Aristotle may have been "superior to Plato as a poet," "he may come much nearer to the true lyric cry" than Plato, as Mr. Benn declares, but the cry is too often a cry in the night, and one longs for such a candle as Doctor Jowett brings.

The first volume of Dr. Jowett's work consists of an introduction, which is a very full summary, or rather recasting, of the eight books of the 'Politics,' with running comments and parallels of the highest interest and the most manifold suggestiveness, in which emphatic agreement and loud dissent are repressed by a wise and large toleration. In the translation itself we must be prepared to find that the desire to make a lucid and attractive English has not only effaced much that is characteristic of the author and the nationality, but has prompted changes that involve the continuity of the thought. It is often well in translating Greek or German into English to break up one sentence into two, as it is often advisable in translating French into English to roll two sentences into one. But when we break up a sentence we must be sure not to destroy the nexus of the thought; when we roll two sentences into one we must be careful not to impose a nexus that does not exist in the original. Still, so imperfect is the condition in which Aristotle has come down to us that a certain amount of bridging is absolutely necessary, and Dr. Jowett does not seem to have gone further in this direction than Bernays has done in his admirable rendering. Of course no sensible man will object to the modern phraseology in a translation which is written, not for students of Greek, but for students of culture, and no one can fail to be entertained at finding the cant of our times in the pages of the Stagirite. Still, it may be well to remind those who think that they can dispense with the original, that any idiomatic rendering is fatal to atmosphere. The mere order of words means something. The Greek did not uniformly say "children and women"; that he had no law to force him to say "women and children" is of unmistakable significance. But as men will read Jowett's Plato and Thucydides and Aristotle who would never read either the originals or the ordinary translations, Hellenists, whose business is supposed to be threatened with extinction, will rejoice at a popularity that cannot fail to bring about a closer study of the Greek, whenever anything turns on the exactness of the rendering. The first part of vol. ii discusses many such points. The second part of the same volume, containing the Essays, is still in arrear.

"The half-understood words of Aristotle have become laws of thought to other ages," says Dr. Jowett; and in reading the 'Politics,' which reminds us so often of the fathers of the Constitution, and other theorists of the same stratification, one cannot help wondering at the effect which a perusal of this book would produce on a "worker," a "manager," a leader of the "boys," if by chance he should be forced to study the 'Politics,' which, as Dr. Jowett assures us, "continues to have a practical relation to our times," "Mugwumpery" and all. Imagine the disgust of such a one at the muddle that the so-called thinker has made of some of the simplest elements of political life, of rotation in office, of the province of the official, of the natural and sensible evolution of all office-holding. "When the state," he says in Dr. Jowett's version (iii, 6), "is framed upon the principle of equality and likeness, the citizens think that they ought to hold office by turns. In the order of nature every one would take his turn of service; and then again somebody else would look after his interest, just as he, while in office, had looked after theirs." This is almost as bad as considering a public office a public trust. But think of the ineffable innocence of a man whose sarcasm is as pointless as this: "But nowadays for the sake of the advantage which is to be gained from the public revenues and from office, men want to be always in office. One might imagine that the rulers, being sickly, were only kept in health while they continued in office; in that case we may be sure that they would be hunting after places."

But Dr. Jowett himself is little better than a "Mugwump," and we doubt very much whether he would have much sympathy with practical politicians. Still, it may be well to give, in clos-

ing this necessarily inadequate notice of an important book, a specimen of his reflections on the significance of the political thinkers of antiquity for the movements of our own times:

"The formula," he says (p. cxxi), "that the state is only 'a machine for the protection of life and property,' though rather worn out and discredited in our own day, had a great hold on the last generation of statesmen. When the pendulum has swayed long enough in the other direction, the world may return to the saws of political economy for the recovery of some truths as well as errors which are contained in them. At present we are living in an age which is averse to such formulas, which feels that more is needed; and the study of ancient political philosophy has helped to restore a more elevated conception of society. In Aristotle and Plato we have different types of ideal states—a perfect state on the ground, and a perfect state in the air, to which we may look as the form or example of a higher political life. Such ideas are apt to become unreal, and may even be injurious when they supersede the natural machinery of government, but, when rightly infused into the mass of human motives, they seem to be worth all the rest. They must be clothed in circumstances, and then they become to the state what the mind is to the body, what the higher thoughts of man are to mere habits and fashions."

LECHFORD'S NOTE-BOOK.

Note-Book Kept by Thomas Lechford, Esq., Lawyer, in Boston, Massachusetts Bay, from June 27, 1638, to July 29, 1641. Cambridge: University Press. 1885. 8vo, pp. 460.

In 1642 Thomas Lechford, "of Clements Inne in the County of Middlesex, Gent," published his 'Plain Dealing: or Newes from New England.' It was a sketch of the settlement in New England, made by one who had spent some three years there, and who was therefore competent to inform a public interested in the success of the enterprise. Lechford, who seems to have been an attorney by profession, was a Puritan, but of a peculiar pattern. He had suffered imprisonment and some kind of banishment for his opinions, and he sought New England as a haven of refuge, not improbably with the hope of also finding there recognition and prosperity. In this, however, he was mistaken. Boston was a good place for those who held with the majority, but those who held different views were neither wanted nor tolerated. It would be useless to attempt to expound Lechford's peculiar theological whimsies, but it is enough to say that when he propounded them to Thomas Dudley, they were not acceptable to the Deputy Governor. He found his hopes of professional success disappear, and a slight mistake "in going to the jury and pleading with them out of court," was justification for forbidding him to plead any other man's cause. He picked up a precarious living by copying records and drawing deeds and law-papers, consoled himself with theological disputes, and finally gave up the fight and returned to England. He was by no means a prominent actor in the early affairs of the Bay colony, though perhaps a typical one, and yet his name will always be remembered in Massachusetts history from the accident of his being an early eye-witness and recorder of events.

The little that is known of his life was carefully collected by J. Hammond Trumbull in his admirable reprint of Lechford's 'Plain Dealing,' issued in Boston in 1867. The volume under review, recently published by the American Antiquarian Society, will renew the interest in Lechford, and will give him fresh renown as an important authority on matters affecting the first settlers at Boston. During his residence here Lechford kept a memorandum book of his work as a lawyer. In it he entered copies, more or less extended, of the deeds he drew, the business letters he wrote, and the business papers which he prepared for his clients from 1638 to 1641. As this period antedates the date of the Book of Possessions for Boston, that census of owners in 1645, new facts are thus obtained. Moreover, in many cases Lechford prepared documents disposing of property in England for his clients, or in other ways gave a clue to their relationships in the land they had so recently left. Such indications are so provokingly rare in the early records that every new scrap of information is eagerly welcomed.

The manuscript volume, after unknown adventures, became the property of the late Samuel Jennison of Worcester, whose son has presented it to the Society. Twenty-eight years ago Mr. Jennison showed the book to Dr. Trumbull, and sought his coöperation in preparing it for the press. From various causes the publication has been delayed, and it has finally appeared under the editorial care of Edward E. Hale, jr. The preface, by Dr. Trumbull, is a summary of that prefixed by him to the 'Plain Dealing.' The contents can hardly be described in detail, as the memoranda follow each other chronologically and without regard to their nature. The genealogical items can be separated more easily, and we will proceed to do that portion.

1. Augustin Clement of Dorchester, N. E., leased land in Wockingham, co. Berks.

2. John Hood of Cambridge, N. E., leases land in Halsted, co. Essex.

3. Samson Shotton of Mt. Wollaston, N. E., son of Thomas S. of Cropston, co. Leicester, mentions brother Anthony S.

4. The will of John Newgate of Boston, N. E., mentions land in Horningerth, co. Suffolk.

5. William Wilson of Boston, N. E., sells land in Dunnington, co. Lincoln.

6. Katherine Coytmore of Charlestown, N. E., states that her husband was Thomas Grey of Harwich, co. Essex, and her daughters were Parnell, wife of Increase Nowell of Charlestown; Katherine, wife of Thomas Graves of Wapping; and Susanna, widow of —— Eaglesfield. She was daughter of Robert Myles of Sutton, co. Suffolk.

7. Rev. John Cotton of Boston, N. E., makes Robert Brown of Poynton or Horbling, co. Lincoln, his attorney.

8. Ralph Sprague of Charlestown, N. E., sometime of Fordington, co. Dorset, and wife Joan, daughter of Richard Warren of said F., make William Derby of Dorchester, co Dorset, their attorney.

9. John Graves of Roxbury, N. E., makes Robert Wood of Harlow and Nicholas Campe of Nasing, co. Essex, attornies to receive rents from his sister, the widow Lydia Ford of Nasing.

10. Elizabeth and Mary Woolcott, daughters of John W. of Glaston, co. Somerset, and late of Watertown, in N. E., appoint their uncles, Richard Vayle and Christopher Atkins of said G., attorneys. [Note in margin, write to Henry Woolcott of Windsor in N. E., and Edward W. of Axbridge, co. Somerset.]

11. James Cade of Northam, co. Devon, now of Boston in N. E., had father Christopher C., brother John, and sister Thomasine, wife of John Roe of Abbotsham, co. Devon.

12. Henry Grey of Boston had a brother who was a citizen of London.

13. Matthew Allyn of Connecticut sold land to Thomas Allyn of Barnstable, co. Devon.

14. Osmond Douch of Bridport, co. Dorset, had wife Grace and son Robert. He was afterwards of Gloucester in N. E.

15. Thomas Purches of Pagiscott in N. E. makes Daniel Adams, roper and citizen of Bristol, his attorney.

16. Edmund Brown and wife Anna, late widow of John Loverun of Watertown in N. E., appoint attorneys to collect her dower in lands in Ardley, co. Essex, or Aldham, co. Suffolk, in possession of William or George Loverun.

17. William Cole, late of Sutton in Chewmagna, co. Somerset, and [Elizabeth] his wife, a daughter of Francis Doughty of the city of Bristol, make brother John Cole of Farrington, co. Somerset, their attorney.

18. Thomas Foster of Boston, cannonier at the Castle, makes Richard Foster of Ipswich, his brother and others, attorneys to receive his legacy under will of father Thomas Foster, minister. His wife was Abigail, daughter of Matthew Wimes, of Ipswich, co. Suffolk.

19. John Iles of Dorchester in N. E. owed £28 to Adam Hurden of Barnstaple, co. Devon.

20. Joseph Hills of Charlestown states that he came in the *Susan and Ellen*, and that in that vessel were goods of Joseph Loomis, late of Brayntree, co. Essex.

21. Thomas Rucke of Charlestown makes Thomas Rucke of London and Thomas Plum of Malden, co. Essex, his attorneys to collect debts.

22. Edmund Hubbard of Hingham in N. E. married Sarah, widow of Rev. John Lyford, who had children Rev. Obadiah and Mordecai L. The last-named made Hubbard his guardian, who appointed William Bladen, Alderman of Dublin, and John Fisher of the same place, attorneys to sell a lease at Leballeglish, co. Ardmagh. Elsewhere Lyford is called the minister at Levelegkish near Laughgaid, co. Ardmagh.

23. John Cogan of Boston in N. E. makes Isaac Northcot of Hunniton, co. Devon, his attorney to receive any legacy under the will of his mother, Elianor Cogan of Tiverton, co. Devon, widow, deceased.

24. John Cogan appoints his friend John Stoning, citizen and haberdasher of London, to sue one John Harrison, late of Boston in N. E., for £26 he owes said Cogan.

25. John Faber of London, cooper, sells to Christopher Stanley of Boston in N. E. his house there.

26. John Cogan of Boston appoints Nicholas Carwithye, citizen and grocer of Exeter, his attorney to collect of the executors of Ignatius Jordan, of said Exeter, £66 due him by bond, and also all legacies from I. J. to C. or his wife or children.

27. Anne Coleman of Watertown in N. E., spinster, aged 16, and Samuel Hosier of the same, her guardian, appoint Jeffery Coleman of Colchester, co. Essex, and James Wade of the same, attorneys to receive a legacy for her under the will of her father, William Coleman of said Colchester.

28. Francis Godsome of Lynn in N. E. is to sell his house to John Fuller of Boston, if Edward Fuller of Olney, co. Bucks, pays £60 unto said F. G.

29. John Crabtree of Boston, joyner, takes as apprentice Solomon, son of John Greene of Hadley, co. Suffolk. Mary Greene, sister of Solomon, was to be taken by William Hudson, the younger, fisherman. Elizabeth Leger, mother of Solomon Greene, was to pay Crabtree annually £5.10, and the boy was to get £20 at the end of his apprenticeship.

30. Edward Wood assigns his apprentice Thomas, son of Henry Cooper of Little Bowden, co. Northampton, to Leonard Buttolpe, of Boston in N. E.

31. Thomas Mayhew of Watertown in N. E. and Jane his wife, widow of Thomas Payne of London, as guardian of Thomas Payne, aged seven years, appoint Richard Payne of Abingdon, co. Berks, and others, attorneys to lease lands in Whittlebury, co. Northampton, descending to said child.

32. David Offley of Boston and wife Elizabeth appoint Edward and Henry Woolcott, Richard Payne, and Christopher Atkins attorneys to sell their lands in Glaston. (See No. 10 *ante*.)

33. Katherine Earwing, widow, of Dorchester, makes Anthony E. of London her attorney.

34. Josiah Stanborough of Lynn in N. E. and

wife Frances, one of seven daughters of Henry Gransden of Tunbridge, co. Kent, appoint Richard Young of London their attorney to obtain their part of his lands.

35. Michael Williamson and wife Anne make Anthony Stapley of Patcham, co. Sussex, their attorney to receive of Elizabeth Geere, widow, of Lewes, co. Sussex, executrix of Dennis Geere, late of Saugus, a legacy of £50 given to said Anne by the name of Anne Panckhurst.

36. Thomas Nichols of Hingham had a brother who was the executor of Walter Nichols of Coggeshall, co. Essex.

37. Joseph Cooke of Cambridge in N. E., son of Thomas Cooke of Great Yeldham, co. Essex, makes his brother Thomas C. of Wormingfold in Essex his attorney.

38. William Sergeant of Charlestown in N. E. was formerly of Northampton, hatter, and his wife Sarah was the widow of William Minshall of Whitchurch, co. Salop.

39. Lt. Robert Feke of Watertown in N. E., gent., and William Palmer of Yarmouth and Judith his wife, and Tobias Feke, aged 17, son and daughter of James Feke, late of London, goldsmith, deceased, make Tobias Dixon of London their attorney.

40. Agreement between Edward Heale of Bristol and William Pester of Salem in N. E.

41. Thomas Scudamore of Cambridge in N. E. was from Westerley, co. Gloucester.

42. Edward Hall of Duxbury in N. E. was son of Francis Hall of Henborough, co. Gloucester.

43. Samuel Freeman of Watertown in N. E. was from Mawlyn, co. Kent.

44. Thomas Matson of Braintree in N. E. and wife Anne draw for £20 in favor of George Hussey of London, on his sister-in-law Mrs. Chambers of London, widow of Thomas C., citizen and clothworker of London, for part of their legacy.

45. John Coltman of Wethersfield in N. E. was son of Thomas C. of Newton Harcoate in Weston, co. Leicester.

46 Richard Betscombe of Hingham in N. E., late of Bridport, co. Dorset, in behalf of daughters Mary and Martha, appoints his brothers Andrew, Robert, and Christopher to receive two legacies given said daughters by Philip Strong of the Devizes, co. Wilts.

47. Isaac Sterne of Watertown in N. E., late of Stoke Nayland, co. Suffolk, and wife Mary, daughter of John Barker of the same, appoint Thomas Gilson of Sudbury, co. Suff., to collect £5 of one Munnings of Gaynes Colne, co. Essex, due on a bond given by M. before his marriage with Margaret Barker, mother of said Mary.

48. John Bent of Sudbury in N. E. was from Wayhill, co Southampton, and his brother-in-law was William Baker of New Sarum, co. Wilts.

49. William Talmage of Boston in N. E. had brothers Robert and Thomas, and sister Jane, wife of Richard Walker; they were children of Thomas T., who was the brother of John Talmage of Newton Stacey, co. Southampton.

50. William Longley of Lynn in N. E., son of John L. of Frisby, co. Lincoln, makes Thomas Meeke of Waynflete St. Mary, co. Linc., his attorney.

51. John Mayo of Towne Marroling, co Kent, deceased, had by wife Rebecca, son Thomas (who had died leaving a son John and widow Elizabeth remarried to Robert Gamlyn of Roxbury in N. E.), daughters Mary of Dorchester, N. E., and Frances, wife of Steven England of Sandwich, co. Kent.

52. John and Daniel Prior of Scituate in N. E. were sons of John P. late of Watford, co. Hertford.

53. Abraham Harding of Boston in N. E. was son of John H., late of Boram, co. Essex, whose widow was Agnes Greene of Tarling, co. Essex.

54. John Floyd of London and wife Anne had put their son Thomas in charge of Arthur Howland of Duxbury in N. E.

55. Thomas Odingsell of Salem draws a bill on his father John O., of Epperston, co. Notts.

56. William Pester of Salem draws a bill on his uncle William P. in Thames St., London.

57. Ralph Sprague of Charlestown, N. E., and wife Joan, appoint John Holland of Tinnckleton, co. Dorset, to receive of John and Elizabeth Cox of Bowlington a legacy from Richard Warren to said Joan and her six children.

58. William Rix of Boston, N. E., was one of the sons of Robert R. of Kenninghall, co. Norfolk. His sister was Elizabeth Waters of K., and he mentions also Henry Rix of Pagrave, co. Suffolk.

59. Thomas Grubb of Boston, N. E., was son-in-law of Jeffrey Salter of King's Lynn, co. Norfolk.

60. Benjamin and Nathaniel Bosworth draw bills on Joseph B. of Coventry, co. Warwick.

61. John Clerk of Newbury in N. E., late citizen and chirurgeon of London, was one of the executors of widow Anne Ward of Stratford, co. Suff.

62. Owen Williams son of Mark W. of St. John's parish, co. Cardiff, apprentices himself to William Withington of Portsmouth in N. E.

63. Edward Bridges was second son of E. B., late of Raynham, co. Somerset, Esquire.

64. Nathaniel Patten was late of Crewkerne, co. Somerset.

65. Edward Howell of Lynn, in N. E., gent, was late of Marsh Gibbon, co. Bucks. He had lands in Wotton Underwood, co. Bucks, and £100 in the hands of Richard Francis, of Marsh Gibbon.

66. Henry Russell of Weymouth in N. E., deceased, left widow Jane and daughter Elizabeth. He was the son of Thomas R. of Chalfont St. Giles, co. Bucks.

67. Thomas Nichols of Hingham, N. E., makes John Cockerell of Cockshall his attorney to receive, of Geo. N., a legacy given him by his father Walter N.

68. William James of Boston in N. E. was son of Albon James, citizen and mercer of London. He had an uncle George Strange, gent.

69. John Bibble had a wife Sibyl at Shadwell in Stepney parish.

70. Elizabeth Freestone of Boston in N. E., spinster, was late of Alford, co. Linc. She was daughter of Richard F. of Horncastle, co. Linc. Mary F. of Thimbleby, co. Linc., was widow of her uncle Robert F., who was executor of her grandfather Robert F. Her father and sister Mary were dead. Her grandmother was Mary Cuthbert, whose executor was Nathaniel C. of Warmington, co. Northampton.

71. Samuel Haskell seems to be the grandson of George Cooke, innkeeper at the White Horse in Algate, who died 13 years since.

72. Abraham Shaw of Dedham in N. E., deceased, was from Halifax, co. York, and left his oldest son Joseph S. and son-in-law Nicholas Biram, his executors.

73. Anne Stratton of Salem, N. E., was widow of John S. of Shotley, co. Suff., gent, whose brother Joseph S. was of Harwich, co. Essex, and now of James City in Virginia. She had a son William S. of Ardley, co. Essex, deceased, son John S. of Dedham, co. Essex, and daughters Elizabeth, wife of John Thorndike of Salem, and Dorothy. Her own mother was Mary Dearhaugh of Barringham, co. Suff.

74. John Pollard was late of Belcham, co. Essex.

75. Robert Hempenstall of Boston in N. E. was son of Thomas H. of Southold, co. Suff.

76. George Crispe of Plymouth in N. E. had a brother Robert C. of Southwark, co. Surrey, an uncle George C. of Blackwall in Stibenheath, co. Mid., and land in the parish of Word, near Sandwich, co. Kent.

77. George Denison of Roxbury in N. E. had wife Bridget, who was daughter of John Thompson late of Preston, co. Northamp., gent, and Mrs. Alice T. now of Roxbury. They claimed their legacy from Spencer Clarke, parson of Scaldwell parish, co. Northampton.

78. Thomas Allen of Barnstable in N. E., had a brother, Richard A. of Branton, co. Essex, and father-in-law, John Marke of the same place.

79. Samuel Nash of Weymouth in N. E. was from Burrough Green, co. Cambridge.

80. John Bartoll of Marblehead, N. E., was son of John B. of Crewkerne, co. Somerset.

81. Robert Wing of Boston, N. E., had a cousin Wing of Lomford, dwelling in the Lady's place, by Dedham.

We have thus gleaned the major part of the items, omitting such as relate to the Winthrops, Hutchinsons, Saltonstalls, and other well-known colonists. The book will be for years a source of information to genealogists, because in many cases these references will lead to a knowledge of other colonists. Our only regret is, that the record is so brief, and we wish that Lechford had stayed for a decade at least.

As to the editing of the volume, the less said the better. The index is based on the pagination of the original, a lazy method worthy of severe condemnation. The notes are of no value, excepting a few supplied by Dr. Trumbull. The editor seems to have done nothing but consult Savage and, in a few instances, other equally well-known authorities. Most of the notes are, in fact, an unnecessary statement of his ignorance of the person named in the text, with occasionally dreary attempts at a joke thereon. Not a sign is visible of any original research, even where such care was sure of reward. A great opportunity has been lost, and the real value of the record will remain obscured until it is reissued, or a proper abstract of its contents, with good notes, is prepared.

RECENT FICTION.

Dosia's Daughter. By Henry Gréville. Translated by Clara Erskine Clement. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Cleopatra. By Henry Gréville. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

The Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Cradle and Spade. By William Sime. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Mrs. Dymond. By Miss Thackeray (Mrs. Anne Thackeray Ritchie). Harper's Handy Series.

Fiammetta. A Summer Idyl. By William Wetmore Story. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Jacob Schuyler's Millions. D. Appleton & Co.

THE dedication to American friends which Mme. Gréville prefixed to 'Dosia's Daughter' has at once raised the question, Does she think this the kind of thing Americans like, or does she offer it because she thinks they ought to like it? On the one supposition, we must be fond of the inane; on the other, she must think milk and water a good diet. What of story there is in the book is as follows: The daughter, Agnes, is a small *femme incomprise* of eighteen, who, on the possibility of difficulties at home, runs away and finds a place as governess. After a fortnight, in which nothing more remarkable happens than that she must eat roast beef seven days in the week, and the half-imbecile son of the house makes uncouth love to her, she grows homesick and starts to return. At the first railway station, she meets the *ami d'enfance* who is in search of her. The con-

sequence is a wedding within a year. There are but few incidents, and they are neither fresh nor striking. The story could not entertain any one beyond her 'teens; and after the many bright, healthful pictures of young life, like Miss Yonge's 'Two Guardians,' or Mrs. Whitney's 'Leslie Goldthwaite,' with which our girls are familiar, they will find this dull.

The work of the translator is very good, so good that it ought to have been expended on better material. Not so in 'Cleopatra,' where it is as bad as bad can be. Whole sentences and even paragraphs from it might be inserted in the 'Portuguese Guide' without detection. It is a graver fault, if that were possible, that the translator knows so little English, or has so little command of it, as to put the speech of a servant into the mouths of the grand ladies, and generally to degrade the whole style.

Outside judgments of local color have but a limited value. It is more to the point that the Russians themselves insist that Mme. Gréville's pictures of Russian life are not true. They do not object to them as unjust, they even admit that much is intended for flattery; but they say they are unreal. She has seen only the surface. Her characters, be they good or bad, are the merest conventions, such as have been accepted in Europe for the last forty years. A week's travel would show as much of the country as she has described. As to incidents, the reader can try for himself how slight, how unessential, would be the changes which would transfer the scene either to Germany or France.

Upon the plot and purpose of 'Cleopatra' we have a serious criticism to offer. The heroine is a beautiful girl, noble by birth, but very poor. The only home she has is in the household of her sister, who has made a successful marriage. Such a position, always trying, becomes unbearable by the unkindness of the sister. She is rescued from it by an offer of marriage from an old general, a man of fortune and of rank sufficient to place her in the brilliant surroundings she considers her due. He conceals his love from her so completely that she never suspects it, and gives to her the protection and the indulgence of a devoted father to his daughter. For four years her ambition and her selfishness are satisfied. Then she meets in church, of all places, a handsome youth. In a few days they exchange passionate declarations of love. To this point the story is only too familiar to novel-readers. Hitherto there have been but two alternatives in the case, the one the triumph of passion over duty, the other the renunciation of self and self-pleasing for the sake of adherence to the right. Mme. Gréville has imagined a combination of the two with an ingenuity to which might be forgiven her ignoring of probability, were it not for a confusion of the ideas of right and wrong which is nothing less than monstrous. The handsome youth Ulric has been "religiously brought up," so he at once urges upon Cleopatra a divorce. "I will carry you to my home as respected as you are to-day." Cleopatra must open the subject to her husband. One spark of gratitude makes her say, "It would be a dastardly act." But before many days "a delicious torpor," "the magnetism of the dear presence," overcomes her. She will propose the divorce. "Give me strength, O God!" is her prayer. "I have not the courage to strike with a steady hand. O God help me!" She enters "the apartment of her husband with emotions similar to those felt by Christians in former times when they entered the arena." Naturally the husband objects, but at last "his old heart throbbed with pride and joy at the thought that he could perform one more good deed before leaving this world." He consents. The Church makes difficulties, so, as Cleopatra and Ulric, "just and God-fearing souls, reject all that is not legitimate," she appeals personally to the Empress. It is a vain appeal, and "all the religious fervor of Ulric's early education and his unhappy love boiled up within him." The husband himself must appeal to the Emperor through his special friend, a Grand Duke, who, by the way, had been the object of Cleopatra's first ambition. Apparently, even Mme. Gréville, when it came to the point, could not imagine the outrageous spectacle of a husband begging for a divorce for his own wife that she may marry again; so he is made lame, and Cleopatra goes herself. The Grand Duke asks her, "Why did you not patiently wait until God called your husband hence?" (Such a question were a moral insult if a woman in Cleopatra's position were not too low for an insult.) She replies, "Do you not see between love and duty I am dying?" So he promises to intercede for her. In no long time all difficulties disappear and Ulric and Cleopatra are married. The old general sends as a wedding present a basket of white flowers such as are selected only for young maidens. Underneath lies a picture of the Virgin, round which he has caused to be set all the jewels of his family. They start upon their wedding journey, the picture on the front seat of the carriage, that "the young wife" may be "surrounded with sweet and salutary impressions." The same evening she dies suddenly an ecstatic death. Some readers will recognize the catastrophe as a trick that has been tried before. The sophistry that has convinced the average mind that an early death is in itself an atonement has provided a convenient resource for the novelist.

The cold, hard facts of this consummate selfishness are repulsive enough; but to hide them under a veil of piety, to disguise them as devotion to Christian duty, is revolting. Such a book does more harm to morals, does more to weaken the sense of the purity and the sanctity of wedded love, than downright coarseness. Mme. Gréville's early books were accepted with a readiness beyond their deserts, because they were better in tone than worse ones. It is time to recognize the fact that such merit is at best only negative. 'Cleopatra' is not the sole proof that her standard of morals is not our standard: that there is not even that artistic sense of truth and of fitness which has sometimes been a guide when the moral vision was blinded.

Mr. Stevenson is a true wonder-worker, a wizard. For his marvels, space and time are as naught. No bounding line of circumstance refuses to yield to his bidding. Yet it is by the simplest of straightforward truth-telling that he brings us under his spell. His readers all know the houses, the streets he describes, the solemn butler, the tidy maid. They met the gentleman yesterday whose conversation he now repeats. The lady whom he presents, they saw step from her carriage this morning. Each detail verifies the fact that all the story happened, if not in the next square, then in one that everybody knows. So frank, so accurate a narrator, we think, will never ask anything of his imagination or of our own; and, with no suspicion wakened, we fall completely into his power, to be carried out of the world of sense through the most fantastic dramas—how far we know not—till the play is played, and we find ourselves, at the end, rubbing our eyes like half-wakened children. His present purpose, however, is far beyond an Arabian Nights' adventure or the clever satire of 'The Dynamiter.' He has chosen the oldest of all themes, the strife between good and evil. There is no abstract discussion, no argument of philosophy or of theology; but he sets before us incarnate the two elements in a man's nature, and lets them fight it out before our eyes. Incarnate, we say, because there is always enough of that feeling left in the mind which would have accepted the Elixir of Life or the Philosopher's Stone, to make us yield to the power of the supernatural and believe in incarnations, when the supernatural is handled with the fearless decision that characterizes Mr. Stevenson. In this respect he resembles Hawthorne. It is no concern of his to account for anything. It happened so, and that is enough. This unfaltering belief in one's own story goes further to impress its truth than any comment or explanation. Mr. Stevenson has, too, like Hawthorne, the perfect sense of proportion which never permits an exaggeration or a distortion How much this means can only be realized by reflecting that the whole fabric of his story is based on the impossible. 'The Strange Case' interprets itself as it is developed. In form it is but a simple tale of magical transformations, yet few sermons could pronounce more awful warning against a sinful life. "Evil, be thou my good," was the man's deliberate choice. "Myself am hell," sums up his dying confession.

'Cradle and Spade' were for gold digging in the unpromising soil of a Scottish dale, and less directly to bring upon the scene an old miner who shall recognize in the portrait at the great house his old chum in Australia. Wandering noblemen and lost heirs are nothing new, and Mr. Sime hardly puts that quality into his story which can sometimes make even the oldest plot fresh. The practised reader will recognize the various sources from which come many of the incidents. There is not downright copying, but a great deal is like an echo of a familiar sound. Still, the search for a lost heir is always attractive to one kind of reader, and he will perhaps be compensated for the want of clearness and vividness in the working out of the plot by the discovery of not one but three lost heirs.

'Mrs. Dymond' is already known to a wide circle through *Macmillan's* and *Littell's*, and Mrs. Thackeray Ritchie never needs to be commended. Her style has always the same graceful flow, and it has not lost one shade of its delicate refinement. In the midst of fiction so often painful, so often positively disagreeable, to open one of her books is like turning from a dusty highway to a quiet garden softly lighted and sweet in perfume. There is life to be lived in the garden as well as in the dingy street, and it is good for us that once in a while some one is glad to portray it. Not that Mrs. Dymond always walked in flowery paths. She had her sorrows, and shared the sorrows of others, in a life not so different from the most in its experience as to make it worth the telling for the sake of its incidents alone. It is what she was in it that gives to it its charm. Her power was only that gentle power of a sweet and truthful spirit to impart its own quality to those about it. Under its influence injustice relents, the unwilling yield, the selfish are ashamed. This tender appeal for sympathy to all the higher, more refined side of our mental and moral nature, which is always found in Mrs. Ritchie's stories, more than makes up for any lack in boldness of conception or in strength of grasp. Her descriptions have always had a unique value. Of mere word-painting there has long been an excess in fiction. Her description is even more than a fit and fine setting for her personages. It opens our eyes to the life of inanimate things and the part they play in our human drama, sometimes only the part of sympathy taking on for our sakes the colors of the spirit. Or if they defy us, defeat us, they win us and help us again by their calm, their friendliness of long companionship. She has drawn many pictures that no one forgets, and in this story there are many to remember with those in the 'Village on the Cliff.' It is France again, but France in the sad days of the defeat, of the siege of Paris, of the Commune. They are not pic-

tures of battle-fields, not of blood or of flame, but of what the women saw as they sat with the children shivering on the edge of the storm. They are fine enough to rank with Daudet's sketches of the same time, and, in a way, they even supplement and complete them.

The point of view will make all the difference in the judgment of Mr. Story's book. Upon the theory that every tale of love should be a vivid description of ardent passion—that, as against expediency, convention, obligation, the one phrase, Love is enough, makes a sufficient answer—it will be found cold and tame. But readers who have shrunk from brilliant illustrations of this theory in which the only fault was their exceeding exactness, will insist that this simple sketch of an artist's holiday, low-colored and restrained as it is, is not less beautiful, not less impressive, because of its quiet tones. So far as the heroine is concerned, the story is but another variant of that of Mignon. This is no reflection upon Mr. Story's originality, for he has worked it out in wholly fresh scenes and combinations. Far more than this, he does not give to his hero the unconscious, passive part of Wilhelm. Marco has to struggle against the double temptation of his own love for the girl and of her innocent frankness of affection. Upon him is laid that hardest of all duties, the duty not to do a second wrong in the hope of setting a first one right. The moral purpose of the tale will be interpreted as differently as its quality will be judged. Mr. Story gives no hint of it. *On ne badine pas avec l'amour*, may be one rendering. In style, the book is what would have been beforehand expected of Mr. Story—very clear, very light of touch, and graceful. Only once a note is harsh: Thekla's lament sounds rough after Fiammetta's songs. The soft accents of her own tongue would have told her sorrow better.

There is very little of artist life, but one conversation contains what may not unfairly be taken as Mr. Story's own view of the much-discussed relation of real and ideal—

"certain artists of our day, whose only desire seems to be to startle and surprise, even by the sacrifice of all beauty; and who go so far as to preach loudly the gospel of the ugly and the common, and to cry out wildly that, as nature is ugly—often very ugly—so art should be; that perfection exists nowhere, and ought not to be sought for; that the real is never ideal; and that what art has to do is to copy nature just as it happens to be, even though ugly and deformed. My notion is absolutely the contrary. Art, in my opinion, is no slave to nature, and no art is worth anything except in so far as it is ideal—that is, that it uses nature as a language and means to express an idea, a conception, a creation of the imagination. . . . It is not the subject, it is the mode in which it is rendered, which makes it prosaic or poetic. It is not that a thought is grammatically expressed that makes it a poem, and it is not literal imitation of nature that makes a work of art enchanting. Yes, enchanting is the word. Artists must enchant as poets do; and nature is never good in art until it is enchanted by the soul of the artist."

The writer of the anonymous novel 'Jacob Schuyler's Millions' has told a not uninteresting story, using the old material of a missing will. For a change, however, the possible heirs, instead of plotting to get all of the money they can, barely escape a quarrel in insisting on the most equitable division that can be made from such a knowledge of Jacob Schuyler's intention as they can ascertain. The will is, of course, found at last, but this is not allowed to break up the kind feelings of the family group. The scene is laid in Bergen County, New Jersey, in the year 1850, and free use is made of the old Dutch family names of that locality. But no offence is given in so doing, for to speak of a Bogert or a Terhune in Bergen County is to generalize as much as to mention a Smith or a Jones in other localities. The author forgets his dates when he speaks of the "crowd and rush of Newport," and "the vulgarity of Long Branch," in the days of 1830, and he betrays the novice in fiction writing when he introduces a German noble simply to give occasion for a discourse on the American form of government.

Three Years of Arctic Service: an account of the Lady Franklin Bay Expedition of 1881-84 and the attainment of the farthest North. By Adolphus W. Greely, Lieutenant U. S. Army, Commanding the Expedition. 2 vols., 8vo. xxvi, 428 and xii, 444 pp., illustrated. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1886.

THE anticipation that little new or interesting could remain to be said, after the books of Schley and Lanman, on the work and sufferings of the party engaged in the Greely expedition, is happily unverified by the result. The magazines and especially the newspapers of 1884 were flooded with more or less inaccurate and exaggerated accounts of the horrors of slow starvation at Cape Sabine, in which the heroism and endurance of those dreadful days were swamped in a mass of sensational and unauthentic details; in large part growing out of the foolish, if well-meant, endeavor of the rescuers to hide certain facts sufficiently shocking, but by no means unparalleled in the history of Arctic adventure. Had the plain truth been made public at the time, not only would much that is untrue have remained unuttered, but the public would have had presented the lights with the shadows; the good with the evil; the abnegation, devotion to duty, and charity which illumine the dark clouds of desperation, insanity, and petty discord that settled over that unhappy band. From Lieutenant Greely's second volume, those who would form a just idea of the conduct and condition of the party while at Cape Sabine may gather indispensable data. Few will read it, we think, without a higher opinion of human nature, of the average kind, under unspeakable trials. That the mind of any survived the strain seems almost miraculous. That the mental and physical degeneration, consequent on starvation, impaired so little the sense of discipline, the consideration for each other, and their tenderness for the hopeless cripple dying in the midst of them, is scarcely less wonderful. Let those who have been put to the test cast the first stone.

We gladly turn from this phase of the subject, referred to first as being that of which inquiry would naturally first be made, to the record of work accomplished and conclusions reached. Previous explorations in Smith Sound are briefly touched upon. The history of the international circumpolar stations; the unpropitious circumstances under which the expedition was equipped, due chiefly to the extraordinary and far from creditable attitude of the then Secretary of War; the voyage; the impressions of Greenland; and the trip to Discovery Harbor, form the preliminaries. The remainder of the first volume relates the work of the expedition up to the beginning of the second winter. The attainment by Lockwood and Brainard of the furthest north, the important geographical discoveries in Grinnell Land, have been frequently summarized and need not be recapitulated here. The second volume carries the narrative through the second winter and summer, the further explorations of Grinnell Land, the retreat and the stay at Cape Sabine. Appendices contain means of observations made at Fort Conger and by the parties at other international stations; reports on ethnology, zoology, botany, and geology; on sound experiments, auroras, and lists of game obtained. We note the curious fact that more than half a ton (1,155 lbs.) of the small gammaroid shrimps were obtained while at Camp Clay, a circumstance to which the survivors doubtless owe their preservation.

The style of the narrative is excellent, easy, and unpretentious. The story of the two seasons at Fort Conger is only second in interest, among recent Arctic voyages, to Payer's admirable 'Voyage of the *Tegethoff*.' The discussion of the causes which led to the misfortunes of the party is brief, and, in all essentials, is in harmony with the views which have heretofore appeared in these columns, and which are generally entertained by Arctic experts who have a knowledge of the facts. To those who knew the temper of a certain late high official the following paragraph will not be a surprise, shameful as the facts are:

"No man of the party has received promotion except such temporary advancement as my personal urging could secure. Two men with broken health have adventured their private fortunes; and one, a most self-sacrificing, soldierly, temperate, and loyal man, lies, as these lines are penned, helpless in a city hospital, aided by private charity, his pension not even awarded. Even the meagre allowances originally promised for Arctic service have not been fully paid, and the widows of the dead are generally as yet unrecognized."

The publishers have done their part handsomely: the illustrations are of the best class; the get-up of the volumes is in every way satisfactory and complete.

A History of Farmington, Franklin Co., Maine. 1776-1885. By Francis Gould Butler. Farmington: Knowlton, McLeary & Co. 1885.

THE general harmony that marks the annals of this rural settlement upon the Sandy River is reflected in its physical environment. There is no waste land in its very considerable territory. "Every lot as originally surveyed is cultivated as a farm. No mountain, no pond, no bog, no swamp, no extent of ledge, is to be found within the township." But to other causes we must ascribe the absence of the familiar incidents of New England town histories—trouble with the Indians, endless squabbles about the location of the meeting-house, failure to give the minister the maintenance agreed upon, etc. The close of the eighteenth century was very different from the middle or end of the seventeenth. The first settlers of Farmington reckoned five denominations among them, but they did not concern themselves about a minister, nor did they have a meeting-house till five years after the town's incorporation in 1794, and that was sustained chiefly by Methodists. In 1826 they erected a Union meeting-house. Finally, they got leave to sell the lots set aside in the beginning for the minister, and amicably divided the proceeds among the several sects. Politics were enlivened rather than embittered by trials of strength between the emigrants from Dunstable, Mass., mostly Universalists, and those from Martha's Vineyard, mostly Baptists. Moreover, the pioneers were a picked body of men. "There is not known to have been an illiterate person" among them, "and it is doubtful whether at any time in the history of the town an adult native-born citizen could be found, unable to read the Constitution and to write his name." Running over the genealogical portion of this painstaking work, one is struck with the number of prominent Massachusetts surnames — Adams, Bradford, Lowell, Perkins, Prescott, Sewall, Wendell, Whittier, in a list we could make four or five times as long. Descendants of Standish and Alden occur side by side as in so many other places; and indeed the origin of Farmington goes back to the Plymouth Grant, of which the Kennebec portion was sold in 1661 to Thomas Brattle, John Winslow, and others, and descended ultimately to James Bowdoin, John Hancock, and others. Farmington, however, would hardly be

a part of New England if it did not now exhibit an admixture of French Canadians, contesting their inheritance with the sons of the Puritans. In this instance they appear to be of exceptionally good quality, and apt to take advantage of and be moulded by the educational institutions, which leave nothing to be desired except a public library.

Farmington does not rank among the great manufacturing towns, though water power abounds. It is famous for its carriages, its fishing-rods, and its ear-protectors; but unquestionably its most celebrated product is the Rollo books which the Rev. Jacob Abbott composed there, in the house since become the seat of a well-known private school bearing his name. His brother, too, the Napoleonic historian, was for a time a pastor in Farmington, and these two men have a national reputation above any others who figure in these pages. The town is also distinguished for a railroad whose gauge, when built, was equalled in narrowness only by one in Wales, and which has been entirely successful, the interest on its bonds having been promptly paid. Unhappily, the municipality itself is involved in still pending litigation for default on its own bonds for the extension of another railroad undertaken in 1870.

The literary execution of this history is of uncommon excellence, and the volume is highly creditable to the state of the typographic art in Farmington. Some well-devised blank leaves, for births and marriages, as if we had here a Family Bible, are appended to very full, careful, and readable genealogical records, on which the labor must have been immense. Novel are the summary accounts of the origin of the several families, introductory to the particular branch under consideration in each case. The portrait illustrations are numerous, many of them of earliest date, and all interesting. We have seldom seen a more typical collection of New England physiognomies.

China and the Roman Orient. By F. Hirsh, Ph.D. Leipsic and Hong Kong. 1885.

THERE has been a long dispute among those learned in Chinese lore as to the correct interpretation of the term *Ta-Ts'in*, applied by writers of Chinese history to some region in the West, bordering on Antioch in Syria, or Constantinople. Dr. Edkins and others refer the term to the "Roman Empire," including Syria, Persia, and the further East. Dr. Hirsh thinks that the authorities he quotes and produces justify him in confining the limits of the territory indicated to Syria and the region of Petra and the Nile.

It must be noticed, however, that the texts quoted cover a range of seventeen centuries, viz., "the period extending from the Former Han dynasty up to that of the Ming, *i. e.*, between the first and seventeenth centuries A. D." (Introduction, p. 27.) It would be contrary to experience to suppose that the geographical terms used in these texts indicate the same locality, or region, during all these ages. Accordingly we find that at first Ta-Ts'in pointed to the region Li-Kan, *i. e.*, Hyrcania, the region bordering on the Great Sea, which we cannot doubt (*pace* Dr. Hirsh) was the Mare Hyrcanum of Strabo (p. 507). But gradually, as the empires fell and rose, the limits of the Seleucid territory narrowed toward Antioch or the Orontes, and the term Ta-Ts'in was applied to that region only.

With respect to the origin of the term Ta-Ts'in it is strange that (so far as we know) nobody has referred to the expression Máchin or Chînistân, the land of Samarkand, formerly called Chin, which is the same as the country of the Sênî alluded to by Persian writers (Tabari's 'Chronicle,' quoted in Ouseley's 'Oriental Geography,' p. 298). We cannot doubt that this term was appropriated from motives of vanity by Chinese historians to indicate the powerful empire of the Seleucids, extending to Baktria and the Oxus, and this is indicated by passages such as we find on p. 44 of our author. Gradually the term was restricted to the narrowed empire of the successors of Seleucus, and finally to the region about Antioch.

The translations of Dr. Hirsh are good and courageous. We think, however, he ought to extend more sympathy to those dilettanti (as he calls them) who cannot in their Chinese studies produce their original texts without large expense. If the Sinologues in China would bear this fact in mind, their criticisms and inuendos would be less frequently inconsiderate. There are several inaccuracies we might easily point out in Dr. Hirsh's translations, but it would be ungracious to do so in the presence of so much that is good. The only remark we make is in reference to the version of N. 16. Surely the term Mi-lê-fou cannot represent Melek-Fat; it must be the old expression for Mâitreya Buddha, constantly met with in Buddhist books, and the meaning is simply that the head of the King was mistaken for that of Mâitreya, as we may easily suppose from an examination of Wilson's 'Ariana Antiqua,' Pl. xvi., xvii. We may also state that the translation (*l. c.*) "which is the King's name" does not seem to be a judicious one. The sentence would naturally run somewhat like this: "They employ (fuse) silver and gold to make coins, but without holes; on the face they punch a likeness of Mâitreya Buddha. All (the coins) have on them the King's name, and it is forbidden to coin them privately (*i. e.*, except in the public mint)."

We can only find space to refer Dr. Hirsh to an authority hitherto unknown in reference to Ta-Ts'in; we mean the Buddhist work numbered 1,358 in Mr. Nanjio's catalogue. In this book, p. 6 b (Kiouen I.) he will see that Ta-Ts'in is referred to a northern region of India, of which Sâgala was the capital. This was, in the time of Menander (to which period the narrative refers), a portion of the Græco-Syrian empire in Central Asia; and to this empire, we doubt not, the term Ta-Ts'in was, in the early ages, solely applied.

Eugène Delacroix, par lui-même. Paris: J. Rouam. 1885.

THIS biography of a celebrated painter is one of many books upon art subjects issued during the last few years by the enterprising French publisher of *L'Art*, M. J. Rouam. It claims to be "neither a critical work, nor a simple biography, but a résumé of the life, manners, tendencies, impressions, joys, failures, efforts and general sentiments" of one whom the author calls "*the greatest painter of our time*, one of the chiefs of the modern school, an admirable poet; in short, a man of genius whose radiant personality illumines the first part of this century." In the letters to his friends selected by M. Dargenty from the many previously published by M. Burty, Delacroix paints himself as a melancholy, suffering hypochondriac, who passed from a state of undue depression to one of equally undue elation, and found solace for the real or fancied ills of life in music, in occasional intercourse or correspondence with his friends, and in painting. Jealous of interruption at all times, he trembled at the sound of the door-bell, although none could approach him without the permission of his housekeeper, Jenny Leguillon, a female Cerberus, in whose hands, says his biographer, he was a sort of obedient and timid child. Those who were allowed to enter, had the doubtful satisfaction of knowing that Jenny was listening from a convenient hiding place, where she had been instructed to place herself that she might save her master the trouble of telling her what passed between him and his visitors. This systematic "espionage" was but one of the many services rendered to Delacroix by his housekeeper. Another, and perhaps the most important, was that of setting his palette, an operation which she performed with great skill.

The life of Delacroix was marked by no striking events. Born at Charenton, near Paris, April 26, 1799, he entered Guérin's atelier at the age of seventeen, after long hesitating whether he should not adopt music as a profession. In 1822 he first attracted attention by a picture of Dante and Virgil, but it was not until ten years later, on his return from Morocco and Algiers, that he established his reputation as a leading colorist of the day by three pictures of "Moorish Women," "A Jewish Marriage," and the "Epileptics of Tangiers," the last of which was sold in 1880, sixteen years after his death, for 95,000 francs. Among the innumerable easel pictures which he subsequently painted are the "Massacre of Scio," the "Death of Marino Faliero," for which Sir Richard Wallace paid £4,000, and the "Two Foscari," which was bought at the Oppenheim sale in 1855 for 70,500 francs. In these and many other pictures, which are equally notable for brilliant and effective color and vivid conception, Delacroix shows to much better advantage than in the great mural paintings, with which he decorated the Chamber of Deputies, the Library of the Church of St. Sulpice, and the ceiling of the Gallery of Apollo at the Louvre. Though effective, they want the high qualities of thought and style without which works of their kind must be classed as decorative rather than as monumental art. M. Lassalle-Borde, to whom Delacroix talked very freely about himself, says that when he was about to paint a picture, he first stimulated his imagination by looking over prints of pictures by painters of all schools, stored in his numerous portfolios, and, taking from them figures and whole groups suited to his subject, transformed them so as to render his thefts unrecognizable. He excused this unscrupulous proceeding by saying that Raphael and many other painters appropriated antiquity after the same fashion. After Delacroix's death, August 13, 1863, his works rose generally in public esteem, and when, in February of the following year, his pictures, drawings, and water-colors were sold at the Hôtel Drouot, they produced the very considerable sum of 337,226 francs. According to directions given in his will, he was buried at Père Lachaise in a tomb architecturally of pseudo-classic (Vignola or Palladio) design, without emblem, bust, or statue.

Introductory Studies in Greek Art. By Jane E. Harrison, author of 'Myths of the Odyssey in Art and Literature.' With maps and illustrations. Scribner & Welford.

THE dedication in Greek to Mr. C. T. Newton of Miss Harrison's book contains an amount of idiom quite disproportionate to the ideas which it embodies, and so is in a way symbolic of the voluble pages which follow. These pages, winnowed of superfluous quotation and inapposite detail, and condensed into a couple of well-considered chapters, might have given us in satisfactory form all that the author has here to say of the origin and history of Greek sculpture. The book has the ring of boarding-school lectures—Miss Harrison has lectured in the British Museum, we are told; but her own schooling has apparently been good, her general view is intelligent, and main facts right, allowing for some carelessness in statement of detail, as when she says that it is 150 miles across from Sicily to Africa, or sets the ancient Gades in the valley of the Guadalquivir, or ascribes to Pausanias all that both he and Pliny tell us of the Athene

Parthenos of Phidias. The chief faults of her book are rhetorical—a habit of merciless emphasis, and a tiresome flow of eloquence which sometimes forgets the boundary between knowledge and conjecture, and which, when it touches artistic criticism, sinks into twaddle. The quiet precincts of archæology have hitherto been reasonably free from gush: it is better that they should so continue.

Hans Holbein. Par Jean Rousseau. Paris: J. Rouam.

M. ROUSSEAU'S 'Hans Holbein' is the first volume of the series called "Bibliothèque d'Art Ancien," and consists of papers published in *L'Art* in 1884, together with a few illustrations from Mr. Gennevay's papers of 1875. It is a small quarto of seventy pages, of which twenty-seven are occupied with "process" prints as large as the page will allow; rough, to be sure, but preserving fairly well the essential character—the expression of face, the freedom of gesture and pose, the minute accuracy of costume of the Holbein drawings at Bâle, in the Louvre, or at Windsor. Several facsimiles of the little prints of the "Simulacres de la Mort" and other small designs are included in the text. All these reproductions, if not faultless, are about as good, one with another, as those in the handsome folio by M. Paul Mantz published six years ago by Quantin (we do not speak of the etchings by M. Lièvre in that book, of course), while Mr. Wornum's book, with its two or three already half-faded photographs, offers no comparison. And the price of this very agreeable little work is just a half dollar—in Paris. It is Paris that has the secret of cheap books!

As to the value of the treatise itself, it is only a magazine article, and written in that pleasant Parisian style which allows of no excess of chronological or analytical or any other method; and it starts off with a most unhappy preamble about the Germanic races marching to the assault of the Latin world—a march and an assault of which Holbein is assumed to be a leader. But the little book is well worth reading, and will be found full of just characterizations.

Applied Geology: A treatise on the industrial relations of geological structure, and on the nature, occurrence, and uses of substances derived from geological sources. By Samuel G. Williams, Professor of General and Economic Geology in Cornell University. D. Appleton & Co. 1886. 12mo, pp. 386.

THERE has long been a need of a short account of the essential facts in economic geology, suited to the use of American students. Whitney's 'Metallic Wealth of the United States,' though an admirable work in its day, is now out of date, and the European books of this nature derive their illustrations from foreign fields. Professor Williams has, in the main, done a very fair part of his task: his book is well planned; his method of presentation is very clear, and, on the whole, his statements will meet with the approval of those who know the subject. It is only in matters of detail that the work is open to serious criticism. The most important defects appear in a certain lack of proportion in the space allotted to the various important metals. Thus the subject of iron ores is dismissed in six pages, while copper occupies ten pages of the text, and lead and zinc twelve. In the chapter on iron no mention is made of the very important ores of the Oriskany period in the Southern States, nor are the singular ilmenite deposits of Rhode Island referred to. So, too, the author fails to note the existence of the bog ores, the interesting history of their formation, or the light they throw on the history of many important deposits of iron. The replacement of lime carbonate by iron is not noticed, though this is perhaps the most important fact in the geology of iron ores. The student will get from his statements the idea that phosporus is necessarily an "injurious accessory" in iron ore, while in fact there is a very large market for phosphatic ores, and the "neutral iron" which they produce gives them a special value for foundry irons. These, and many other defects, have doubtless arisen from the need of brevity; but the result is that the student receives a most inadequate impression of the geological and economic history of the most important metal.

All the other chapters of the book are similarly, though not to the same extent, open to criticism. The book suffers also from a want of sufficient illustrations; nineteen woodcuts in a work devoted to a subject which requires an ample graphic presentation, is quite insufficient for the student's needs. Despite these considerable shortcomings, the many good qualities of Professor Williams's little book entitle it to a place in the student's library.

England, as Seen by an American Banker: Notes of a Pedestrian Tour. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.

THIS is the most entertaining and instructive volume upon English life which has appeared since Mr. Richard Grant White's papers on the same subject, and in some respects is more useful. The volume is truly a book of "notes"—of passages upon single topics, having no chapter divisions and but slight connection except on the subject of English business, particularly banking. The author is a very observant man, and he has what one may call an American interest in the things seen. He bestowed his attention principally on the material aspects of the country, its resources, its trade and manufactures, its actual life in the broader phases of the laboring and lower middle classes, its methods of transacting business, its charities, schools, public morals, recreations, and the like matters, of all of which he usually gives an individual illustration. He walked over a considerable portion of the ground, and seems desirous of presenting a wayside view of rural England, but city life also receives very general treatment. In nooks and corners he came upon odd things, as when he found the rector also the keeper of the public house, and discovered that he paid his organist out of the profits on beer; and his conclusions are frequently novel, but well supported. According to his observation, not more than one-tenth of the people attend church, and he instances Archdeacon Denison's cricket-club between services as a curious attempt to attract worshippers. But we have no space even for the more striking of his notes. The style is very simple, unpretentious, straight-to-the-point; in all respects one may say it is a typical American book of the best sort by an unliterary hand. The knowledge it will impart about things which practical people wish to know of, is very great, and it is to be commended especially to all libraries and to business men.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Allen, G. For Maimie's Sake: A Tale of Love and Dynamite. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Ballou, M. M. Edge-Tools of Speech, Selected. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $3.50.
Bancroft, G. A Plea for the Constitution of the United States of America, Wounded in the House of its Guardians. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Bastian, A. Die Seele indischer und hellenischer Philosophie in den Gespenstern moderner Geisterseherei. Berlin: Weidmann.
Beecher, H. W. Evolution and Religion. Part II. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.
Blackie, J. S. What Does History Teach? Charles Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.
Bourke, Capt. J. G. An Apache Campaign in the Sierra Madre, in the Spring of 1883. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.00.
Brent, J. L. Mobilizable Fortifications and their Controlling Influence in War. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Brinkmann, F. Syntax des Französischen und Englischen in vergleichender Darstellung. Vol. 2. Brunswick: F. Vieweg & Sohn; New York: Westermann.
Brown, Helen Dawes. Two College Girls. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Bull, Sara C. Ole Bull: A Memoir. New ed. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Butler, W. A. Domesticus: A Tale of the Imperial City. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Byron, Lord. Childe Harold's Pilgrimage. Cassell's National Library. 10 cents.
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Carroll, L. A Tangled Tale. Illustrated. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
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Flaubert, G. Par les champs et par les grèves. Boston: Schoenhof.
Furness, Rev. W. H. Verses, Translations from the German, and Hymns. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Gellatly, F. The Necklace of Liberty. Chicago: Knight & Leonard.
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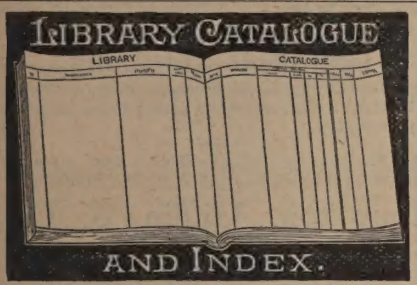

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 11, 1886.

The Week.

THE Republican Senators showed their true character again last week by confirming without dissent the appointment of Mr. Hedden to the Collectorship of this port. Both New York Senators, Evarts and Miller, urged his confirmation. In view of the Republican outcry against Mr. Hedden at the time of his appointment, and the grave reasons for questioning his fitness for the position which his conduct in the appointment of Sterling gave rise to, there was ample ground for a Republican Senate, devoted solely to the public good, to make a "fight" on his nomination. But they confirmed it, as they confirmed that of the disgracefully unfit Rasin, without hesitation. The meaning of their action is plain enough. They know that their confirmation of a bad appointment does not remove from the President one particle of the responsibility for making it. They are not using their confirming powers to keep unfit men out of the service, but are trying to use them to gain a petty partisan advantage of the President. If they could force him to do all that they wish, they would still refuse to share any of the responsibility for those very acts in which they demand a right to participate.

We print elsewhere a suggestion from a well-informed correspondent, that the true remedy for Senatorial irresponsibility in the matter of suspensions and removals is to have the vote on nominations public, while keeping the discussion of them secret as at present. His main argument in favor of this is, that sensitive men would shrink from having their character openly canvassed by critics who, in many cases, would be hostile or malicious. He thinks that through the open vote "the responsibility of Senators for unfit confirmations would be ascertained, and all bargaining for confirmations and for the division and control of patronage could easily be detected, and would be remorselessly exposed. If Mr. Senator —— secured the confirmation of a characterless politician whose nomination he had procured, the open vote would show from whom he got his support." It would, if the vote were taken by yeas and nays, show from whom he got his support; but it would not show that he was a characterless politician. Our correspondent's plan might possibly work if there were no four years' term and everybody held office during good behavior, so that appointments were few and far between. As things now are, it would be futile. What is needed to fix responsibility, both on the President and Senate, is more knowledge of the vast swarm of new men they select for office in each Presidential term. This the public does not now possess and has no means of getting. It therefore does not know in most cases when the Senate confirms a man, whether it confirms him because he is a great rascal or because he is a model of all the virtues. One is nearly as likely as the other, and in no way can it get this knowledge except from open discussion of the candidates' qualifications.

Mr. Edmunds's discussion of the dispute between the Senate and the President about the official papers was no doubt able, but it was what is called "academical"—that is, has not and cannot have any practical end in view. Nothing can come of it, because the Senate is unable to tell the public what it would do with the papers if it got them. If the Senate could say it was going to use them in order to see that the President put none but good men in office, and turned none but bad men out of office, it would rouse public interest and expectation to the highest degree. But there is no pretence even that it has any such end in view. There is no pretence that it would not, after getting "the papers," confirm as many bad nominations as the President chooses to send in. This is all very unfortunate because Americans are a practical people, and care very little about contests over barren rights, and care very little who has "papers" which are of no value to anybody—not even to the owner.

The daily hearings before the Ways and Means Committee on the new tariff bill are very impressive. Every group of producers wants a little more tariff, and generally wants it in the interest of labor. Occasionally Mr. Hewitt brings a blush to the cheeks of these sturdy beggars by asking them whether they are in the habit of paying higher wages when they get higher prices for their products, and whether they employ newly-arrived Hungarian and Italian laborers when they have difficulties with the Knights, etc., etc. But seldom does anybody appear before the Committee to represent the fifty or sixty million consumers of the articles taxed. On Monday the rice-growers had their day in court. They were represented by Mr. Trenholm, of South Carolina, who avowed himself a free-trader in principle, but insisted that if protection was the "going thing" the rice-growers ought to be protected against the pauper labor of the East Indies, and especially against the deleterious practice that has grown up in this country of entering broken rice under the head of "granulated" at 20 per cent. duty. The brewers, who use this broken rice, were represented at the hearing, and they made a vigorous protest against any increase in the duty or change in the classification. And so it goes on from day to day, showing how the law is invoked on this side and that to take money from one class or calling and give it to another. The Knights of Labor may be trusted to keep a close watch and make notes on the proceedings, to be used when it comes their turn to make the laws and divide up the national earnings according to everybody's deserts.

A fresh illustration of the ingeniously bad effect of our revenue laws upon the commerce of the country was afforded by the recent arguments of a committee of merchants of this city before the Ways and Means Committee at Washington, in the discussion of Mr. Hewitt's bill, by which it is proposed to amend sections 2970 and 2983 of the Revised Statutes. The proposed amendment allows merchandise to remain in bonded warehouses for three years, instead of only for one year, as at present, and provides that the duties shall be assessed on the *quantity* withdrawn. The depreciation in quantity or weight of some goods, and particularly of sugar, on storage, is very great, but under the existing revenue laws the duty must be paid on the weight which went into store—in other words, duty must be paid on something which does not exist. The evil worked by such a state of the laws is that comparatively very little unrefined sugar is kept in store here, merchants preferring to find warehouses for it in some foreign port. It would seem to be enough to require importers to pay duty on what they possess, without placing a tax on their losses. Such a law, in fact, drives commerce from our doors. By lengthening the time allowed for goods to remain in bond our warehouses and insurance companies will be benefited, and the increased quantity of goods on storage will make a more stable market price.

The last number of *Bradstreet's* continues the narrative of the great struggle over the tariff on dirt. Pursuing their appeal to the Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, Messrs. Newlin and Sanders, representing the American Wool Growers' Association, put in a brief representing that washed wool is the article as it comes from the sheep's back, after the animal has been soused in the river, and before the fleece has received any cleansing with hot water. Hot water "starts the grease," and that is the very thing that the tariff was intended to prevent. It was shown by incontestable evidence that, after the grease was started, the Donskoi wool was "taken to a raft and beaten with sticks to loosen the dung-balls and other impurities," and that after this fraudulent treatment it was "again put into the river and then hung up to dry in the sun." This, Messrs. Newlin and Saunders contend, "is confessedly not washed wool." It is more than washed, and must therefore be classed as scoured, and taxed 7½ cents per pound. The Donskoi wool men, on the other hand, insisted that scoured wool was an article which had been treated with soap, or chemicals, or machinery, and that merely "starting the grease" could not be considered scouring. Testimony was introduced to show that American wools were classed as washed, tub-washed, and scoured—washed wool being the article as partially cleansed on the sheep's back, tub-washed being treated with hot water in order to start the grease, and scoured being treated with chemicals. The weight of testimony seems to be strongly against the position taken by the American Wool Growers' Association.

Upon the whole, it seems to be necessary to have more stringent legislation to secure an adequate importation of dirt. If anybody had anticipated the practice now disclosed as of daily occurrence in the valley of the Don of starting the grease and loosening the impurities before shipping wool to this country, stringent measures would have been taken to prevent such frauds.

The great strike on the "Gould Southwestern system" began in the Texas Pacific, a bankrupt concern, which is in the hands of a receiver—that is, in the care and custody of the courts of the United States. It has extended to the other Gould roads, but whether there were grievances on those other roads or whether the extension of the strike was in the nature of a boycott, we are unable to discover. At first the strike on the Texas Pacific was supposed to have some relation to the Mallory boycott at Galveston, but the connection between the two is not plain. What is clear is that 9,000 or 10,000 men have voluntarily ceased work, that 6,000 miles of railway are idle, and that all traffic except the carrying of the mails is suspended in the country served by these roads. Of course, such a condition of things cannot last. The men who have thrown themselves out of work cannot subsist long without wages. The treasury of the Knights of Labor cannot stand such a drain. On the other hand, steps must be taken to put the trains in motion either by employing other hands or by acceding to the demands of the strikers. Mr. Hoxie, the General Manager of the Gould Southwestern System, is a man of much resolution, and is weather-beaten in all sorts of rough-and-tumble work on the frontier. If he is allowed to have his way, he will probably fight the strike to the bitter end. A sufficient number of men can be collected to take the places of the strikers if they can be protected in the performance of their work. Whether they can be protected will depend much upon the state of public opinion along the lines affected, and this again will depend much upon the causes of the strike, which are as yet very indistinct.

So great an upheaval of labor difficulties would naturally produce quakings all over the country. The most significant echo of all perhaps is that which comes from the interior of Illinois, where the local assembly of the Knights of Labor have resolved to form a separate National Labor Party and have done with the old parties altogether. This, we think, is greatly to be desired. The awful spectacle now presented to us of Republican and Democratic newspapers, like the *Tribune* and *Sun* of this city, tumbling over each other in their haste to endorse everything that is denominated labor, and to support any kind of outlawry if it bears the brand of a trade union, would be speedily withdrawn if the Knights and their affiliated societies should form a party of their own. It is the logic of their position that they should do so. What they are aiming at is to govern the country, and this they can never do until they become a political party, for, under existing conditions, neither party will do all that they ask. Both will cheat them more or less.

The passage of the Blair Education Bill by a large majority in the Senate, and the favorable report in the House on the Eads Mexican Ship Railway Bill, the growing rage for pensions, and the continued purchase and coinage of silver at the rate of $2,000,000 per month—all these things coming upon the Treasury without any tax bill to provide the means for them—suggest the inquiry whether the Knights of Labor, if vested with supreme legislative powers, could do anything worse. They could do no worse than empty the Treasury, destroy the public credit, and produce national bankruptcy, temporary or permanent. This is the drift of things at Washington now, and the main reliance of the public against these evils rests in the Executive veto, and in the hope that something more than one-third of the members of one or the other house may sustain the veto power when it comes to be exercised.

The bloody-shirt organs at the North are just well started on a chorus of indignant outcries against a "Confederate Brigadier" from Kentucky, Wolford by name, who has announced his purpose to introduce in Congress a bill giving to every Confederate soldier who lost a leg or arm in the war an artificial leg or arm at the expense of the Government. It seems a pity to spoil the fun of the organs, but regard for truth compels us to state that General Wolford served with distinction in the Union army as Colonel of the First Kentucky Cavalry, and fought gallantly to put down the rebellion. Besides, the bloody-shirt organs ought not to forget that assistance from the Treasury to disabled Confederates is good Republican doctrine now, since the Republican party in Virginia last year declared in favor of pensions for ex-rebel soldiers, and the chief Republican organ in Virginia appealed for popular support on the ground that the Democrats could not be trusted to make appropriations for this purpose.

We are glad to see that the Southern Congressmen have learned the true way to dispose of the bloody-shirt shriekers, which is simply to make fun of them. Mr. Norwood, of Georgia, last week applied this process to Mr. Henderson, of Iowa, who had discharged a lot of rant against his countrymen in the South, and he set the whole House laughing at that victim of "a disease common to public men, known ordinarily as '*vox populi*' on the diaphragm, but, when it becomes acute, called cerebro elephantiasis." Mr. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, followed Mr. Norwood's humorous disposition of the bloody-shirt clap-trap with a serious exposure of the demagogy which seeks popularity by supporting huge pension jobs, putting the case with admirable force when he plainly told the House that, in increasing the pensions of widows and orphans of soldiers, it ought not to forget that every dollar appropriated for public purposes was taken from the people by the tax-gatherer; that every dollar was coined in the sweat of labor; that there could not be any such thing as the surplus that was so much talked about when finances were discussed, so long as every city and town in the country was burdened with debt; and that in adding 50 per cent. to the pensions of widows and orphans of soldiers, just so much must be taken from all the widows and orphans who do not benefit by the bill. Between Mr. Norwood's raillery and Mr. Breckinridge's seriousness the Northern demagogues were pretty thoroughly exposed.

In view of the recent reductions in postal rates, it is a surprise to find that Senator Wilson, of Iowa, has introduced a bill doubling the postal charge on "fourth-class matter" after the first of July next. This class covers what may be termed miscellaneous mail matter, consisting mostly of small samples of dry goods, seeds, plants, bulbs, and scions. The present postal charge is one cent an ounce, and the cheap and efficient delivery of packages through the mail has been a great boon, especially to the scattered population of farmers, florists, and agriculturists generally throughout the country, the practice of using the mail for such articles having grown largely within the past few years. The apparent reason for this is, that in the first place it is cheaper than to send by express, and in the second place the express offices are fewer, and often at much greater distance from the farmer or country resident, than the post-offices. It is very probable that the express companies feel that this use of the mails is taking away a part of what they consider their business, and it is intimated that these companies are endeavoring to promote the proposed change in the law. It is almost superfluous to urge that no change for the benefit of private corporations should be allowed in our postal laws, which exist for the greatest good of the greatest number of citizens. Without complete statistics of the mail service throughout the whole country, it is difficult to say what proportion the postage received on fourth-class matter bears to the cost of transportation. If on careful investigation it should appear that the mails are used for transporting ordinary merchandise at a considerable loss to the revenue, it would be easy to modify the law by way of making rational distinctions without doubling the rate on all "fourth-class matter."

The appointment of Col. William Ludlow, of the United States Army, as Engineer Commissioner of the District of Columbia, is a pointed rebuke by the Democratic President to the Republican City Council of Philadelphia. Colonel Ludlow is the officer who has been for three years past the Chief Engineer of the Philadelphia Water Department, having secured leave of absence from the army without pay, in 1883, to fill that position, and who was recently refused a reëlection by the Republican Councilmen, nominally because he is personally a Democrat in political faith, but really, as the leading Republican organ of the city was forced to confess, because he had kept politics entirely out of the department,

and had administered it "strictly on business principles." What is Philadelphia's loss, through the openly avowed purpose of the Republican ring to get rid of a good officer, in the words of the *Press*, "because he *is* a good officer," and because the spoilsmen were resolved to substitute a man who would give them "the cake" of patronage, is thus Washington's gain, thanks to Mr. Cleveland.

The Western Union Telegraph Company has submitted to the inevitable, and has paid without further protest the $135,000 of tax still due the State for the year 1881. It will be remembered that when the law of 1881 was passed, taxing the entire capital stock of all corporations, the Western Union raised the point that only a part of its entire capital was employed or situated in New York, that it paid heavy taxes to other States on its property situated therein, and that it could not in justice be asked to pay to New York a tax on more than that portion of its capital represented by property within the State. In 1885 the Legislature recognized the justice of this plea by amending the law of 1881 so as to tax only the property within the State for 1882, 1883, and 1884, and thereafter, but did not include the year 1881. This was an obvious injustice, because if it was not right to assess the tax on the entire capital for those years, it was not right so to assess it for 1881. The Western Union carried its plea against paying on the entire capital in 1881 to the Court of Appeals, but the Court decided that the law must be obeyed. The Comptroller had no other course to follow than to obey the law, and he has been pressing the company rigorously for payment. He has induced the Legislature to pass an amendment to the Code of Civil Procedure, enabling him to collect tax-money from a corporation precisely as he would from an individual, and this has been signed by the Governor. When the Western Union heard of the Governor's signature it gave up the struggle and paid the money. Nevertheless, the company has been in the right in the controversy, and we cannot regard the success of the State in the matter as anything less than a triumph of injustice for which the Legislature of 1885 is solely responsible.

The chapter of history furnished by General H. V. Boynton to the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* on the origin and meaning of the Sherman-Johnston Convention of April, 1865, is, we think, entirely new, and is certainly important. General Boynton has had much to do with the controversies of the war period, and has never, we believe, stated anything as a fact which did not turn out to be such. He says that the idea of arranging terms for the final surrender of the Confederate armies which should lay the foundation for a conservative reaction, was conceived by Montgomery Blair, and by him communicated to the leading officers of General Sherman's army. General Frank P. Blair was one of these officers, and he would naturally have been the medium of communication if there was such a political scheme on foot. The idea, General Boynton says, was approved by some of these officers and disapproved by others, and was accepted by General Sherman himself and embodied in the terms of the surrender of Johnston's army, which included in its scope all the remaining armed forces of the Confederacy. This is a rational explanation of that mysterious affair—mysterious because it was an attempt on the part of a subordinate officer to make terms different from those fixed in a parallel case by his chief. The affair ceases to be a mystery if we assume that General Boynton's account of it is correct, viz.: that it was the culmination of a political plot originating outside of the army to reconstruct the Union on what was called a "conservative basis." If this is the correct history of the affair, the checkmate given to it by Secretary Stanton was none too prompt or vigorous.

The series of letters that passed between Generals Grant and Halleck during the war, furnished by General Boynton to the *North American Review*, put a new face on the actual relations between those officers, and turn into consummate foolishness the efforts of certain persons to make out a state of suspicion, jealousy, mistrust, and hostility between them. More than this, they obviously leave something to be explained regarding the tone of the first volume of General Grant's Memoirs toward General Halleck. This tone is expressive not so much of hostility toward Halleck as of contempt for his judgment—a contempt which General Grant certainly did not entertain either at the time when Halleck was Grant's commanding officer, or when their positions were reversed. If General Grant had left no personal memoirs, but somebody else had written the book which bears his name, it would be easy to prove from these letters that General Halleck had been hardly dealt with. Much as we cherish General Grant's memory, we are bound to set the truth on a higher pinnacle than any man's impressions and recollections of long-past events.

The most curious thing about the Holland trial was not so much his acquittal as his high standing in his own State, Texas. He had in court a great bundle of testimonials from leading citizens of that community, all of which the Court refused to have read, but one from the Governor was read. One gets from them a very odd impression of Texan society even now. We should have supposed that a man starting from Texas, in order to bilk a dealer in counterfeit money in New York, and to kill him if necessary in the attempt, would have had to go back fifty years at least in order to carry with him in his enterprise the loving admiration and anxiety of his brother Texans. But it seems that even now, in 1886, he is a hero in the eyes of his fellow-citizens, and they are looking for his return with tear-dimmed eyes. The Legislature will probably take notice of it when he comes. He may become a lecturer with diagrams.

The Catholics have begun, in a somewhat promising way, the foundation of a Catholic university. They want $800,000 and they have got $600,000, and the balance seems to be within reach. The object is, as explained by Bishop Kean, at a meeting held last Thursday, to supply Catholic youth with a higher education, without exposing them to the scepticism with which all the existing universities are infected. "The universities and secular colleges," he said, "were turning out accomplished scholars who were tainted with unbelief." "There was no institution for the highest learning," he added, "either in England or in this country, where a Catholic young man could receive an education without danger to that priceless treasure, his faith." There are doubtless a good many strong reasons why Catholics should have a university of their own, but surely the failure of all denominational colleges thus far to save their students from the agnostic infection—a failure which Bishop Kean himself points out—ought to make people hesitate about starting another as a bulwark of faith. The Catholic universities on the European Continent have not prevented the bulk of the young men from becoming sceptics; why should an American university fare any better? No university will ever succeed, or has ever succeeded, in implanting in young men's minds ideas about the unseen world which are sure to last. In truth, it is, judging from experience, questionable whether universities under theological management are not more dangerous to faith than secular ones, for the simple reason that the very attempt to furnish a young man under twenty-one with a fixed set of opinions on subjects not capable of scientific treatment, is very apt to produce a reaction on his first exposure to unfavorable influences.

The queer errors into which even historians and literary men, and professed publicists, like Mr. Froude, sometimes fall in very simple matters, is well illustrated in an interview with him which the *Herald* prints. He is all for stern *action* against the Irish (politicians of his school are generally "sick of mere talk"), but what he wants in the meantime is something American in the treatment of Ireland. "Look," says he, "at what the Supreme Court did at Washington the other day. It ordered Virginia to pay her debts in an honest way." We have no doubt that he really believes that this is what happened, and that the Supreme Court has power to order State Legislatures to vote money for specific purposes, and thinks that a similar tribunal, if one could be set up in England, might keep the Irish Parliament in order. Another gem of misinformation is to be found in the sentence: "If Ireland were governed as the South was governed by the North after your civil war, with a firm and steady hand, there would be peace, and then any industry and prosperity there might be would have an opportunity of emerging and of telling on the condition of the country, and there would be no opposition." As a description of the carpet-bag period of reconstruction at the South, this is of course very amusing. This talk is worth reproducing as an illustration of the equipment, both intellectual and moral, of a considerable number of Englishmen whose dogmatizing about Ireland has an important share in forming the opinion by which that unhappy country has been so long governed.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 3, to TUESDAY, March 9, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Senate on Wednesday confirmed the nomination of Collector Hedden. In the debate on the Blair Education Bill the following amendment by Mr. Edmunds was adopted: "And in each State and Territory in which there shall be separate schools for white and colored children, the money paid in such State and Territory shall be apportioned and paid out for the support of such white and colored schools, respectively, in the proportion that the white and colored children between the ages of ten and twenty-one years in such State or Territory bear to each other, as shown by the census of 1880. The foregoing provision shall not affect the application of the proper proportion of said money to the support of all common schools wherein no distinction of race or color shall exist."

In the Senate on Thursday Mr. Logan's amendment to the Education Bill, increasing the appropriation to $136,000,000, was lost; yeas 12, nays 30. Mr. Logan then moved another amendment, appropriating $2,000,000 to aid in building school-houses in communities of sparse population, among people who would find it comparatively difficult to erect school-houses. This was adopted.

The Senate passed the Blair Education Bill on Friday by a vote of 36 to 11, the nays being Coke and Cockrell (Dems., Tex.), Gray (Dem., Del.), Harris (Dem., Tenn.), Maxey (Dem., Tex.), Wilson (Dem., Md.), Frye, Hale, Ingalls, Jones, and Plumb (Reps.). The House, by a vote of 229 to 20, passed a deficiency bill appropriating $634,452 to meet unforeseen expenditures.

The bill reported by Senator Van Wyck to provide for the taxation of railroad-grant lands provides that no such lands shall be exempt from local taxation by States, Territories, and other municipal corporations on account of the lien of the United States thereon for the cost of surveying, etc., or because no patent has been issued therefor.

The House Committee on Commerce on Friday agreed, by a vote of 9 to 4, to report favorably with amendments the Reagan Inter-State Commerce Bill.

The House Committee on Naval Affairs has completed a report, which says: "It is the unanimous opinion of your Committee that the Government of the United States ought not longer to permit the lives and property of American citizens to be thus manifestly held at the mercy of so many foreign nations. Forts of iron and steel cannot, within any reasonable limit of cost, be erected so as to give protection wherever it is needed. This it is only practicable to do by means of a navy which can follow an enemy to every point of attack."

There are reports that there is to be considerable opposition in the Ways and Means Committee to the Morrison Tariff Bill. The Republican members of the Committee think that the Democrats on the Committee will not sustain Mr. Morrison, and that the bill will be very much altered before it is reported.

Speaker Carlisle has announced as the Special Committee "to investigate the facts concerning the ownership of Pan-Electric telephone stock by certain public officers": Messrs. Boyle of Pennsylvania, Oates of Alabama, Eden of Illinois, Hall of Iowa, Hale of Missouri, Millard of New York (Dems.), and Hanback of Kansas, Moffat of Michigan, and Ranney of Massachusetts (Reps.). The House on Thursday passed the Pension Appropriation Bill.

Secretary Whitney has sent to the House the reply of Commodore Truxtun, commandant at the Norfolk Navy-yard, to Mr. Boutelle's resolution of January 22, alleging the obliteration of honorable inscriptions from cannon and from the dry dock at Norfolk, and the unnecessary and partisan discharge of employees. As to the inscriptions on guns, said to have been purposely destroyed, he replies that none were destroyed by his order, while some inscriptions that had been partly obliterated by exposure were renewed by his order in June last. The dry dock was never destroyed. "The officers in charge of this yard," he says, "having all been engaged upon the side of the Union in the war, have in no way discriminated against Union sailors and soldiers. All their sympathies are with them, and all the rights and benefits belonging to them by law and from their services to their country have been carefully guarded and freely given to them. I think there are more Union soldiers and sailors employed in this yard to-day than there were on the day the present Administration came into power."

The death of Senator Miller makes vacant the Chairmanship of the Committee on Foreign Affairs. Some of the friends of Mr. Sherman, who is the acting Chairman of the Committee, say that he would resign the office of President pro tempore of the Senate to be made Chairman of that Committee. Mr. Sherman has never been satisfied with his committee positions since he returned to the Senate after having been Secretary of the Treasury.

President Cleveland on Thursday nominated James C. Matthews, of Albany, N. Y., to be Recorder of Deeds for the District of Columbia, to succeed Frederick Douglass. Mr. Matthews is a well-known colored lawyer and a Democrat. He won prizes in an Albany school for boys, and was graduated with honor from the Albany Law School.

The President on Monday appointed Major William Ludlow, of the Corps of Engineers, U. S. A., to be Engineer Commissioner of the District of Columbia, vice-Major Garrett J. Lydecker. Mr. Ludlow has an excellent record as an engineer officer, and has had charge of important public improvements in various parts of the country.

The President has not been able to find a suitable person to fill the position of Civil-Service Commissioner to succeed Mr. Eaton. He finds it difficult to induce a competent person to accept the place for the salary.

Brigadier-General A. H. Terry, who stormed Fort Fisher, has been promoted to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Major-General Hancock.

A great strike of 10,000 Knights of Labor on the Gould system of railroads in the Southwest was ordered on Saturday. It grew out of the Mallory boycott at Galveston. Freight traffic is entirely suspended.

The action of the Knights of Labor of the Decatur, Ill., section in forming a new political party is attracting much attention. They declare in their platform, "We have formed a new national political party, to be known as the United Labor Party of America, for the purpose of organizing and directing the great political power of the industrial masses as a political organization; and we will cast our ballots for no one who will not pledge himself to stand firmly by our principles."

Master Workman Powderly, upon being shown the statement that the Knights of Labor of Illinois had formed a political party under the auspices of the order, declared it untrue, and said that if such a thing is attempted by any district or local or State Assembly of the Knights of Labor, the charter of the body taking such action will be recalled. The order cannot be turned into a political party.

A prominent member of the Knights of Labor in Washington says that this order is making arrangements to organize the police forces of cities into branches of their society. He claimed that there was nothing improper in this, as policemen were only wage-workers like laborers and mechanics. He also expressed his confidence that the scheme would be carried out successfully.

An extensive strike of the coal miners of Federation No. 3, comprising the soft coal districts of the East, was begun on Monday for the uniform scale of wages which was adopted at the Convention at Cumberland, Md., of February 19. About 10,000 men quit work, 5,000 of whom were in Maryland mines.

All the street-car lines in this city and several in Brooklyn stopped running cars on Friday morning, owing to the refusal of certain companies to yield the demands of their employees. The difficulty was finally referred to Railroad Commissioner O'Donnell, and the cars started at two o'clock in the afternoon.

The New York Senate Committee on Railroads, which has been investigating the Broadway Railroad affair in this city, made a preliminary report on Tuesday. After reviewing the circumstances surrounding the grant of the franchise by the Aldermen, the report says: "Of the means which procured this action on the part of the Aldermen, your Committee have but one opinion, and that opinion is that it was done by bribery and corruption. In every avenue leading up to this conspiracy are seen the footprints of fraud and deception—in the appointment and proceedings of the commissioners who authorized the location and construction of the road; in the dealings with the agents and attorneys of the taxpayers, who conscientiously sought to defeat the project or secure justice to the city; and in the concealments and deceptions practised upon the trustees of the mortgages put upon the property, like that which secured the name of President Palmer, of the Broadway Bank, to the second-mortgage bonds of the company in ignorance of the fact that already a prior mortgage of $1,500,000 had been placed upon the property. All progress was made by unusual and secret methods unknown to legitimate business. It is unpleasant to know, and painful to relate, that commissioners appointed by the court to determine upon the right to build the road are not entirely free from suspicion. The city lost a property which the evidence adduced before the Committee shows would yield a net interest of 5 per cent. on $10,000,000. The results of this successful brigandage, if allowed to go unchallenged, are far-reaching and productive of danger—first, to the city and its taxpayers, and second, and not much more remotely, to honest government and social progress." The report was accompanied with a report recommending the passage of four bills: the first annuls the charter of the Broadway Surface Railroad Co.; the second provides legal machinery to wind up corporations dissolved by the Legislature; the third provides that no local authorities shall have power to pass a street-railroad franchise over a Mayor's veto without the consent of one-half the property-owners on the street affected; the fourth bill provides that the repeal of the franchise to a street-railroad corporation shall not act as the annulment of the franchise, but simply of the corporation. The franchise shall be sold at public auction to the highest bidder.

The Civil-Service Reform Association of this city has passed resolutions favoring "the abandonment by the Senate of the United States and by the State Senates of the practice of discussing and acting upon nominations for office in secret session"; also, "the enactment of laws making it the duty of public officers intrusted with the power of appointment and removal to put upon public record in every case of suspension or of removal the reasons therefor, or, in the absence of such legislation, the introduction of the practice of regularly recording the reasons for the suspensions or removals made." The Association furthermore has declared in favor of a law prohibiting members of Congress from taking part in solicitations for public office.

The Massachusetts Reform Club (of Independents), at its dinner in Boston on Thursday night, sent the following despatch to President Cleveland: "The Massachusetts Reform Club, assembled on this the anniversary of your inauguration, congratulate you upon the success of your Administration, and desire to express their warm appreciation of your courageous efforts for reform and better government for the people."

The Harvard Conference Committee has adopted a recommendation of Professor C. C. Langdell, the Dean of the Law School, that the members of the Senior Class be allowed to take one of the regular courses in the Law School, and have this counted as a quarter of their last year's work for the degree of A. B. The Faculty has to pass on this.

The sale of 240 paintings belonging to the collection of the late Mrs. Mary J. Morgan was held in this city during the week. The aggregate realized was $885,300.

Mrs. Harriet Ward Foote, wife of Senator Joseph R. Hawley, of Connecticut, died in Washington on Wednesday evening. Mrs. Hawley spent three years during the war in the military hospitals, nursing the patients and teaching the art of nursing to others.

The widow of ex-Governor Horatio Seymour died in Utica on Monday. She was a daughter of John R. Bleecker, of Albany.

United States Senator John P. Miller, of California, died in Washington on Monday, in his fifty-third year. His term would have expired in 1887.

Mrs. Benjamin Harris Brewster, wife of ex-Attorney-General Brewster, died in Philadelphia on Tuesday. Mrs. Brewster was the daughter of Robert J. Walker, at one time Secretary of the Treasury.

Ex-Senator Jerome B. Chaffee, of Colorado, died near this city on Tuesday aged sixty-one. He had amassed a large fortune, part of which was swallowed up in the Grant & Ward failure.

Colonel William S. Clark died in Amherst, Mass., on Tuesday, at the age of sixty. He was graduated at Amher t College and received the degree of Ph.D. at Göttingen. During the war he was Major and Colonel of the Twenty-first Massachusetts regiment. Later he was Professor of Chemistry and President of the Amherst Agricultural College. He resigned in 1879. In 1877 he organized an agricultural college in Japan. A few years ago he engaged in mining enterprises which were disastrous.

FOREIGN.

Lord Salisbury, speaking at a Conservative banquet in London on Wednesday night, denied the assertion of Sir Henry James that he had ever encouraged the "home-rule delusion" in the slightest manner.

The Parnellites on Thursday decided to array themselves against the Tories in their attempt to force the Government to show their hand on their policy during the debate on the civil-service estimates. The Conservatives had arranged to have Mr. Hugh Holmes, Conservative member for Dublin University and lately Attorney-General for Ireland, interrupt the Government's proposition to go into Committee on the Civil-Service Estimates, by an amendment declaring that the House was unwilling to entertain estimates for the civil establishments in Ireland, before being placed in possession of the policy which the Government intended to pursue for the "restoration and maintenance of social order in the country." It was calculated that if this amendment was carried, the Government would be either blocked or compelled to divulge their intentions. Mr. Parnell, however, resolved to go to Mr. Gladstone's rescue.

In the House of Commons on Thursday afternoon Mr. Holmes offered the amendment about the Government's Irish policy of which notice had been given. Mr. Gladstone chaffingly declined to fall into the trap set for him. He said that he was not such a simpleton as to yield to the artful allurements of his opponents. He had already stated that the Government was considering the question of social order in Ireland, the land question, and the question of the future government of Ireland. These subjects were inextricably associated. The Government was really entitled to three months' time for the preparation of Irish measures. Referring to sneering allusions to Mr. Davitt's and the League's denunciation of outrages, Mr. Gladstone said he was glad to hear that Mr. Davitt was preaching order, and delighted that the League was mending its manners. Lord Randolph Churchill justified the motion on the ground that there was danger that Mr. Gladstone would lull the country to torpor. A motion to adjourn the debate was rejected by a vote of 364 to 160. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach remarked that in view of the silence of the Ministers the Conservatives were satisfied with the result of the protest that had been made, and would not call for a division. The Parnellites express themselves as highly satisfied with Mr. Gladstone's speech. It was authoritatively announced on Friday that Mr. Gladstone had neither directly nor indirectly consulted with Mr. Parnell on the subject of home-rule for Ireland.

In the House of Commons on Friday evening Mr. Labouchere's motion, that a hereditary chamber of legislation "is inconsistent with the principles of representative government," was rejected by a vote of 202 to 166, the Radicals and Parnellites forming the minority. Many Liberals abstained from voting. The majority was mainly Conservatives and prominent members of the Government.

In the House of Commons on Tuesday evening Mr. Dillwyn (Liberal) moved to disestablish the Church of Wales. Mr. Grey (Liberal) moved to reform instead of to disestablish the Church of Wales. Mr. Grey's amendment was first adopted by a vote of 241 to 229, and then, as a substitute for Mr. Dillwyn's motion, was rejected by a vote of 346 to 49. In the first division the minority consisted of Liberals and Parnellites. In the second division the Parnellites left the House in a body. Messrs. Gladstone, Chamberlain, Morley, and Trevelyan abstained from voting altogether.

Mr. John Morley, Chief Secretary for Ireland, announced in the House of Commons on Monday afternoon that an agent had started for the islands on the western coast of Ireland with a little money and a quantity of seed potatoes. He added that the Government would take other measures to relieve the distress, which, he said, was "terrible."

Mr. Gladstone has made such progress with the landlords' expropriation scheme as to require the services of Sir Henry Thring, the Parliamentary Counsel to the Government, to draft the details of the bill. He proposes an ascending scale of rates of purchase on the ratio of the extent and value of tenants' holdings. It was announced on Monday that Mr. Gladstone was suffering from a severe cold. He is recovering.

Lord Hartington, in a speech in London on Friday evening, insisted that it was necessary to obtain a clear statement of the Irish demands, and an assurance that any proposal by the responsible Government would be accepted by Mr. Parnell and his followers on the authority of the Irish people.

Earl Rosebery, Foreign Secretary, has instructed Sir Henry Drummond Wolff, the British Commissioner in Egypt, to reject the demand of Mukhtar Pasha, the Turkish Commissioner, that an Egyptian army be organized with a large Turkish element. The English occupation of Egypt will continue until the questions of the fellaheen's tenure of land and civil, military, and financial reforms have been settled.

Mr. Charles Russell, the British Attorney-General, went to Buckingham Palace on Friday to be knighted. After waiting an hour he received word from the Queen that she was fatigued by the duties of the "drawing-room" and must postpone the ceremony of knighting him. Mr. Russell withdrew from the palace in indignation. He was knighted, however, on Monday. It is believed that the Queen is irritated at his pronounced home-rule views.

Eight men who have been convicted of taking prominent part in the recent Trafalgar Square and Hyde Park riots, London, were on Friday sentenced at the Middlesex Sessions to penal servitude for terms ranging from one to five years.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday afternoon, amid great excitement, a motion for the immediate expulsion of the French princes from France was made and vigorously supported by M. Clémenceau and opposed by Prime Minister de Freycinet. The motion was rejected by 345 to 176. A vote of confidence in the Government was adopted by 353 to 112.

M. de Freycinet, it is reported, has demanded an explanation from the Belgian Government as to why the latter did not send a commission to meet the French Commission and delimit the boundary line between the Congo State and French territory. Negotiations for a Congo loan have been broken off in Paris.

Louise Michel and a companion were pelted with stones and snowballs at Versailles on Monday evening while addressing a meeting on socialism.

M. de Lesseps and party sailed on Wednesday from Colon for France.

The Paris *Gaulois* states that a serious difference of opinion between France and China has arrested the progress of the negotiations for a settlement of the Tonquin frontier question and the establishment of a commercial treaty between the two countries.

Rumelia has agreed to abolish duties on goods which have already paid a customs tax on entering Turkey. Objection to this Rumelian duty was the reason assigned by France for withholding her adherence to the Turco-Bulgarian treaty appointing Prince Alexander military ruler of Eastern Rumelia.

All the Powers have given their assent to the Rumelian agreement as modified by Russia. The clause relating to a military alliance between Bulgaria and Turkey has been eliminated.

Greece continues her war preparations, and has been warned by the Powers that if she persists in her intention of violating the peace she will be left to suffer punishment at the hands of Turkey.

The marriage in Madrid of the Infanta Eulalia, youngest daughter of ex-Queen Isabella, with Prince Antonio, son of the Duc du Montpensier and brother of the Comtesse de Paris, was a brilliant spectacle. Ex-Queen Isabella and Don Francisco gave proof of their reconciliation by jointly giving away their daughter. The dower of the Infanta Eulalia is $700,000, besides $30,000 annually from the civil list. The Duc de Montpensier has settled $12,500 annually on her, and $25,000 on his son. The value of the presents is $200,000.

The Spanish elections have been fixed for April 4.

A town in Burmah garrisoned by 300 British troops is besieged by 9,000 rebels. General Prendergast has started to relieve the place, and a battle is expected.

THE GREAT AMERICAN REMEDY.

THE game of "Charles I. and the Long Parliament," with which the Republican Senators apparently propose to amuse themselves during the next few weeks, has really very little interest for the public. The object of it, in so far as it is not intended to while away time which apparently hangs heavily on their hands, is of course to discredit the President and his supporters, so that, in 1888, he may be made to look like a failure, and they like dupes, and the election of some highly objectionable Republican made easier than it was in 1884.

All attempts to make the President produce *all* letters or papers he may receive relating to suspensions or appointments, must, in the nature of things, prove futile. Congress may define as much as it pleases what documents "on file" shall be considered public property, but it cannot prevent the President from deciding what portion of his private correspondence he shall place on file and what not. Whenever, as in the present case, the majority of the Senate belonged to the opposing political party, he would put nothing of the kind on file at all. When, on the other hand, the President and the majority belonged to the same political party, papers relating to removals and appointments, except in rare cases, would not be called for. So that in either case, the public would be left just where it is now—in the dark with regard to the influences and agencies which operate both in the White House and in the Senate, in the filling of vacancies in the Federal service. In other words, in the pending quarrel between the President and Senate, as carried on, the public has really no interest. There is not the smallest reason for believing that, if the Senate won, it would use its victory in any way for the maintenance or promotion of reform. In truth, in the very midst of the controversy, it confirmed the nomination of Freeman Rasin, one of Baltimore's political scamps, the acceptance of whom, at the hands of the Maryland delegation, in so many cases has brought so much discredit on the Administration. No; the Republican Senators do not seek to keep bad men out of office. They have not barred the entrance of a single one under this Administration except Pillsbury and Chase, and they did this for partisan reasons solely, and because Messrs. Hale and Frye made their rejection a personal matter. They make their fight on the suspensions, and not on the nominations, although they have no power to restore a suspended officer to his place, and therefore discussion about suspensions can have no practical result beyond furnishing campaign thunder two years hence.

There is only one way of securing the presentation to the Senate of all the papers and documents which influence the President in making either removals or appointments, and that is a very simple way, and one wholly within the reach of the Senators. They have only to alter their rules, and make executive sessions as public as legislative sessions, in order to drive the President not only into making no nominations for which he cannot give creditable reasons, but into furnishing every creditable reason for the nomination which he may have in his possession. If the discussion of every nomination were public, the Senate would be able to show to the whole country either that no reasons for making it had been furnished, or that the reasons which had been furnished were poor. In either case the President would suffer in the only way, short of impeachment, in which an elected officer can, under our system, be made really to suffer—that is, by popular condemnation. That he suffers with the people by being called "Charles I.," or being assailed with elaborate reports on "precedents," is a Senatorial chimera. The public does not care about precedents in matters of business, and is absolutely indifferent to Senatorial prerogatives. What it wants to know about all this hubbub is whether it is going to improve the administration of the Government. If every nomination were submitted to it through the Senate, the President would be compelled to justify the nomination, because he cannot make bargains with the people, as he can with Senators, so as to dispense with the necessity of explanation. If he refused to offer any explanation of it, he would suffer in just the same way as a plaintiff or defendant suffers in a law-suit or legislative investigation, who refuses to answer questions, or says he does not remember important transactions.

Moreover, unless we are greatly mistaken, the American people have now got so far along the road of administrative reform as to believe that the time has come when no man should apply for any position in their service, important enough to be passed on by the Senate, who shrank from having his fitness discussed before any audience, however large. In truth, the fact that a man does not wish to have his fitness publicly debated, ought now to be considered a primâ-facie disqualification. It is said, in defence of the present secrecy, that innocent men are thus spared the pain of having unfounded charges against them openly examined. But, in the first place, unfounded charges are now frequently made because the privacy of the examination saves those who make them from the shame of exposure when the slander is disproved. In the second place, no man who is so sensitive that he cannot bear to have a false accusation against him publicly refuted by a competent tribunal, ought to seek public office. Private life is the place for him. The Federal service ought to be manned exclusively by persons who are robust enough in their moral fibre to defy informers and calumniators. The truth is, that secrecy is practically intended for the benefit of candidates who are a little scaly, and who have passages in their lives which will not bear examination, or which have interfered with their success in private pursuits, but who are nevertheless successful in getting themselves handsomely endorsed for political services, and have an "influence" among the Senators. The Federal service swarms with such men. They cannot all be got rid of, but we want to keep any more from getting in, and the way to keep them out is to ask them to clear up the cloudy parts of their history before full galleries and an attentive press. We could mention half-a-dozen nominations, made by the present Administration, which never would have been sent in, or, if sent in, never confirmed by an open Senate, after public discussion. Their "papers" would not have borne public examination, and therefore would never have been furnished, either as "private memoranda" or "public records." Consequently we trust that our Senatorial youths will soon get through with their "Charles I. and Long Parliament" play, and settle down to American business.

A STRANGE DOCTRINE INDEED.

THE doctrine which Mr. Evarts appears to have started, and which Mr. Blaine, his successor, adopted, and of which President Cleveland seems to acknowledge the validity, that the United States is under no obligation of international law to protect Chinese residents in this country against outrages committed on them as a class, in default of protection from the State courts or police, might, startling as it is, have passed unnoticed before the war. But if there be any principle which the war established clearly and beyond all peradventure, it was the principle that the United States are to all the rest of the world a nation, and not a confederacy simply. If there be any one result of the war to which more than another the people cling strenuously and fondly, it is this principle. It was for this, more than aught else, that the blood was shed and the money spent. There is nothing on which Americans are to-day more sensitive than any insinuation, or suggestion, or assumption, that our Government speaks to foreigners with less authority and with less command of the resources of the community in men, and money, and devotion, than any other Government in the world. It is only the other day that the Supreme Court decided in the Legal-Tender cases not only that the United States are a "sovereign nation," but that they are so completely a sovereign nation and differ so little from any sovereign nation which has ever existed in Europe, that they are competent, even under our Constitution, to perpetrate that monster abuse of some of the worst of European governments, the making of their own depreciated paper a legal tender in the settlement of private contracts. Now, can it be possible that they are sovereign enough to permit debtors to cheat their creditors, and are not sovereign enough to protect helpless and peaceable foreigners within their borders from murder and pillage?

Here is what President Cleveland in his recent message says has happened to the Chinese in the United States Territories, and things still worse have happened and are happening in some of the States: "The facts show the murder of Chinese subjects, the wounding of others, and the spoliation of the property of all when the unhappy survivors had been driven from their habitations. The law-abiding disposition of these people was the pretext for the attack upon them." He says, also, that "the proceedings taken in the name of justice for the ascertainment of the crime and fixing the responsibility therefor were a ghastly mockery of justice."

Now, is it true, can it be true, will the American people allow it to be true, that a sovereign nation is not responsible to the victims of such outrages? International law

gives no color of sanction to any such view. Wheaton (Boyd's edition, p. 207) says:

"The American citizen who goes into a foreign country is entitled to the protection of our Government, and if without the violation of any municipal law he should be unjustly oppressed, he would have a right to claim protection of his Government, and the interference of the American Government in his favor would be considered a justifiable interference."

This is from Halleck (p. 276):

"If a state should neglect to enact the requisite laws to restrain its subjects and citizens from systematic and repeated aggressions upon the rights of others, and to enforce such laws when made, it not only exposes itself to the just hostility of the parties aggrieved, but virtually becomes an outlaw from the society of nations, and, by the well-established principles of international jurisprudence, is liable to be attacked and punished by all."

This is from another American authority, Woolsey (p. 62):

"Foreigners admitted into a country are subject to its laws. They are, again, entitled to protection, and failure to secure this or any act of oppression may be a ground of complaint, of retorsion, or even of war, on the part of the native country."

Vattel states the principle thus (Lib. 2, chap 6):

"If a nation should refuse or fail to pass the laws necessary to restrain its citizens from aggression upon other states, or upon their citizens; or if, such laws being enacted, the officers of the state neglect to enforce them, and such aggressions by individuals result therefrom, the state is unquestionably responsible for the injury."

Hall, a recent writer in England, says (p. 178):

"*Prima facie* a state is of course responsible for all acts or omissions taking place within its territory by which another state or the subjects of the latter are injuriously affected. . . . If the acts done are undisguisedly open or of common notoriety, the state is obviously responsible for not using proper means to repress them. As obviously it becomes responsible by way of complicity after the act if it does not inflict punishment to the extent if its legal powers."

Phillimore says: (vol. 2, chap. 2).

"The state to which the foreigner belongs may interfere for his protection when he has received positive maltreatment, or when he has been denied ordinary justice in the foreign country. The state of the foreigner may insist upon reparation immediately in the former case. In the latter the state must be satisfied that its citizen has exhausted the means of legal redress afforded by the tribunals of the country in which he has been injured. If those tribunals are unable or unwilling to entertain and adjudicate upon his grievance, the ground for interference is fairly laid. But it behooves the interfering state to take the utmost care, first, that the commission of the wrong be clearly established; secondly, that the denials of the local tribunals to decide the question at issue be no less clearly established. It is only after these propositions have been irrefragably proved that the state of the foreigner can demand reparation, and it is not until after the executive as well as the judicial authorities have refused redress that recourse can be had to reprisals, much less to war."

As to the defence that our municipal legislation, including the reserved powers of the States in the matter of criminal justice, exempts the National Government from liability to foreigners for the failure of the local authorities to afford protection, we shall make no citations. We take it for granted that it is still fresh in the memory of all our readers over twenty-five years of age, that this defence was set up by England in the *Alabama* case; that it was fiercely and successfully contested by the United States, both in the diplomatic correspondence and before the Geneva Tribunal, and that not a shred of it was left. It was settled then once more, on our demand, both as good law and common sense, that it is the duty of every sovereign state either to provide the necessary legal machinery for the fulfilment of its international obligations, or else to make good the damage which any foreigner may have sustained through its failure to do so. The Chinese, in claiming damages for this great national disgrace, stand as firmly on the law as they stand on abstract justice. We hope they will push their claims with their accustomed tenacity, and we believe they will. It will be the duty of the American people to see that they are not foiled by the quirks and quibbles of ambitious and tricky politicians. The Chinese officials and Government will not lose sight of the claims which are being created on the Pacific side. It is an orderly Government and its officers are trained to their duties. We may not acknowledge our responsibility this year or next, but year after year the claims will be presented patiently but forcibly, until we make up our minds that neither Secretary Evarts, nor Secretary Blaine, nor Secretary Bayard, nor President Cleveland has been right, and we pay the account, as England paid the *Alabama* claims, making merit in our own eyes for the act of justice to which the Orientals have constrained us. Nor is it likely that these claims will be small in amount. A correspondent of *The Evening Post* at San Francisco states that a prominent lawyer had told him that "the suits which will soon be brought will make the taxpayers of the State open their eyes." Among the hundreds of Chinese who have been routed out, or worse, and their property despoiled or destroyed, a large account will be made up.

A VICIOUS WAY OF LEGISLATING.

Two years ago next month, while public attention was concentrated upon the engrossing canvass for the then fast approaching Presidential conventions of the two parties, the Senate passed what came to be known as the Blair bill, appropriating $77,000,000 from the Federal Treasury to be distributed among the States on the basis of illiteracy during a period of eight years. A plausible argument was made for the measure on the ground that the South was too poor, unaided, properly to educate her children, especially the children of the former slaves, and some impressive figures were presented by the Northern philanthropists who advocated the project, which, without being subjected to critical analysis, were generally accepted as sustaining the claim of Southern incapacity. The bill was opposed chiefly by a few Southern Senators on the ground of its unconstitutionality, but this plea made no great impression upon the public mind. Without giving much thought to the matter, people generally concluded that the scheme was a good one. The prevailing feeling was fairly expressed by the New York *Times* when it said, on the morning after the Senate passed the bill, April 9, 1884:

"It is by no means a perfect measure, but it is in the right direction, and if passed it will do good. These are not very strong arguments for the bill in the House, but they are strong with the people, and the House will neglect them at its peril."

The House fortunately did neglect the arguments, and the bill failed to become a law during the Forty-eighth Congress. Promptly upon the opening of the present session Senator Blair reintroduced it, and speedily secured a unanimous report in favor of its passage from the Committee on Education and Labor, supported by the old figures and arguments of the Rev. Mr. Mayo and its other former supporters. Two months ago Mr. Blair confidently counted upon the Senate's soon taking up the bill and passing it again, with the popular endorsement again. It was at this time that, disregarding entirely the question of its constitutionality, we challenged the measure on the ground that the South did not need outside help for her schools, and that educational subsidies would do her more harm than good. This involved a detailed examination of the present condition of the public-school system in the South, and a comparison with the state of things in Northern States no more thickly settled, with a study of the effects of similar bounties upon other States in the past, and an inquiry as to the influence which the prospect of the Blair subsidy had exerted upon the cause of education in the South.

The bill proposed to tax the people of the United States heavily for the purpose of helping to educate colored children in the sixteen old slave States, which were represented as too poor to do the work themselves. The only possible way of giving the bill a thin cloak of constitutionality was to distribute the $77,000,000 among the thirty-eight States and Territories, according to the number of their illiterates respectively, without any regard to whether they needed such a subsidy or not. It was therefore necessary to frame a measure which would give $18,571,468 to States and Territories in which slavery never existed, New York being allotted $2,721,066, or considerably more than the $2,503,170 allotted Arkansas; Pennsylvania, $2,825,324, or almost two-thirds as much as South Carolina's $4,582,792; Ohio, $1,633,718, or not far short of half Louisiana's $3,945,051; and Massachusetts, $1,152,116, or nearly $160,000 more than Florida's $993,548. Missouri, which had so few slaves that there is now only one negro out of every fifteen people in the State, was assigned $2,586,674; and West Virginia, with only one negro out of every twenty-five people, $1,057,895. A more circuitous way of reaching the ostensible end, of educating colored children where the States could not do it, it is impossible to imagine.

It was easy to show that the claim of Southern incapacity to maintain a decent school system was untenable, being based upon exaggerated representations of that section's poverty and backwardness in a period from which she has now emerged. Missouri, for instance, which was to receive over $2,500,000 on the ground of her poverty, already keeps her schools open, on the average, 113 days in the year, against 114 days in Maine, and only 99½ in New Hampshire, and expends $8 13 upon each pupil enrolled, against only $9 65 in New Hampshire, and but $7 95 in Maine, while the proportion of all children of the school age enrolled in school (527,452 out of 778,578) is 67.7 against 68.5 in Maine (145,438 out of 212,390). Florida, a State with a large negro element (47 out of every 100 souls), which was to get nearly a million dollars, is a State whose school superintendent was able to say in his last report that the number of children of the school age was 66,798, of whom there were

enrolled in school 62,327, whose daily average attendance was 45,850—"a percentage of enrolment and daily attendance equal to any State in the Union as reported from the educational departments," and far superior to the record of Maine, New Hampshire, or Vermont. Georgia, which was to receive the largest slice of all—$6,448,442—is the richest State in the South, and her Legislature was plainly told by the Commissioner of Schools three years ago that the moderate tax of only one-fifth of one per cent., which could be imposed "without unduly burdening the people," would keep the schools in operation for six months, against only about four and a-half months in Maine and four in New Hampshire. Even South Carolina, whose case is most desperate by reason of her great negro population, already has more than 63 per cent. of her children of school age (178,023 out of 281,664) enrolled in school, while in Vermont between 1860 and 1865 the corresponding proportion (68,525 out of 87,836) was only about 78 per cent., and the average length of the school year (75 days) is about two-thirds the average of 119 days in Vermont a quarter of a century ago.

The bad effect of school subsidies in the past was shown by the experience of Connecticut with her Western Reserve Fund, which Mr. C. D. Hine, Secretary of the State Board of Education, informed us had caused "a very striking deterioration" in the character of the schools by dwarfing local effort, so that the length of schools in many places was actually reduced to the short time which the fund would pay for, and he rejoiced to say that, by reason of the growth of population and the consequent diminution of the income for each child, "the danger from this direction is passed and cannot return." The disastrous consequences which the mere agitation of the Blair bill has produced in the South were shown by the official testimony of Superintendent Coward, of South Carolina, in his annual report for 1884, where he testifies that, in addition to other drawbacks to public education during the year, "the discussion of the policy of Federal aid for the suppression of illiteracy revived into active expression all the latent or hitherto silent opposition to the common-school system of the State"; and still more impressively by the experience of Georgia, where Mr. Woodrow Wilson has described his hearing a discussion in which the Legislature was asked to pass a law imposing the tax recommended by the School Commissioner, and instead adopted a resolution urging the State's Congressmen to support the Blair bill, under which Georgia would receive the first year from the nation $586,225, or almost exactly the sum which the tax that could have been imposed "without unduly burdening the people" would have added to the present school fund.

The presentation of these facts and figures has produced a complete change in the attitude of the country toward this measure, which ex-Governor Chamberlain, of South Carolina, the other day pronounced now "fatally discredited in the public mind." Instead of the general endorsement which the bill received from the press two years ago, there are now barely half-a-dozen journals of standing which longer support it. The revolution of sentiment is well illustrated in the attitude of the New York *Times*, which said on Saturday:

> "In the debate which had been going on for some days the opponents of the bill had decidedly the best of the argument, but many Senators were committed upon it by their votes in a former Congress, when it was not so fully considered. There will be no such obstacle to independent judgment in the House. . . . There has been a great change of sentiment on the subject since it was first broached, and the feeling seems to be spreading that the Southern States, where illiteracy is most prevalent, will be able to provide for the education of their own people, and will be more likely to do so if left to themselves."

There has been an equal change in the honest sentiment of Senators regarding the measure. Mr. Plumb, of Kansas, declared last week—and nobody dared to question the truth of his statement—that he could count on the fingers of his two hands the Senators who were actually in favor of the measure, who would "dare avow that they are for it as an original proposition, or as one that commends itself to their judgment." But the great majority had committed themselves to its support in the past, and though they would privately admit that it was a bad bill, which ought to be defeated, they insisted upon keeping a record for consistency in publicly voting for it, and passed it on Friday, 36 to 11, being substantially the same as the vote in 1884. The majority of the Republicans recorded themselves thus because they had become satisfied that the measure would be defeated in the House, and thought it would look better for them to vote the same way as they had done before and leave the Representatives to defeat the bill, than to be honest and confess that they made a mistake in supporting it two years ago. As the Washington correspondent of the Springfield *Republican* put it a few days ago: "The bill will pass because the Republican Senators believe it will fail in the House, and they prefer to have that body take the responsibility of it to doing it themselves."

This is a peculiarly striking case of a vicious way of legislating, which too often disgraces our law-making bodies. New York may well be ashamed of her representation, Mr. Miller voting for the bill to "save his record," and Mr. Evarts because Republicans generally were on that side. It is a relief to turn from such a showing to the manly course adopted by Mr. Frye of Maine, who voted for the bill hastily two years ago, and, upon sober second thought, against it on Friday, being joined in his opposition by his brother Senator from Maine, Ingalls and Plumb from Kansas, and Jones from Nevada, while Hawley and Platt of Connecticut, and several other Republican Senators, would have voted the same way if they had not been absent or paired.

THE CONDITION OF THE COAST SURVEY.

RECENT despatches to the daily press remind us that the management of the Coast Survey is among the unsettled questions with which the Administration is confronted, and show that the present state of that bureau calls loudly for action. The events of last summer are so well known to our readers that only a brief outline of their course is necessary. For several years it was painfully evident to all intimately acquainted with the circumstances that the physical and mental conditions of the responsible head of the bureau were such as to unfit him for his important trust. When an investigation was at last ordered, the only wonder to well-informed persons was that it had not been undertaken a year earlier. The speedy suspension and resignation or dismissal of the Superintendent were among its natural and inevitable results, and, in the regular course of things, the vacancy would have been soon filled by appointing a Superintendent in whose ability and integrity the appointing power had entire confidence.

But things did not go on in their regular course. A general impression seems to have pervaded Administration circles that faults so serious as those of the late Superintendent indicated widespread corruption in the service which he conducted; and it was suspected that this same corruption extended to other bureaus, notably to the Geological Survey. To ferret out such evil, if it existed, was an obvious public duty, to the performance of which the efforts of the Treasury Department were directed. The complete vindication of Major Powell's management of the Geological Survey is a matter of history which we mention in passing, because the two surveys were associated in both the official and the public mind. To facilitate the investigation of the Coast Survey the Chairman of the Investigating Committee was appointed Superintendent in place of the man removed on his report, not, it would seem, on account of his qualifications for the place, but to tide over the emergency and to enable him to continue his investigations.

It is an open secret that Mr. Thorne's searching inquiries have failed to justify the charge of general or widespread corruption in the Coast Survey. The numerous stories of fraud and mismanagement which were so widely circulated in the newspapers all resolved themselves into misstatements or fabrications when searched into. Some acts of doubtful legality had been performed by order of the Superintendent, but none were of so flagrant a nature that the assistants who obeyed the orders of their superior could be condemned for so doing. The few cases of inefficiency in the performance of duty were of the kind that are always found in a Government office with a long list of employees. It is now reported that even in these few cases the report of the Committee has been found to be severe rather than just, so far, at least, as the clerical and scientific force are concerned.

The most serious financial question which has been encountered concerns the pay and allowances of assistants. Until 1883 the salaries of assistants, instead of being fixed by law, were left to the discretion of the Superintendent. The regulations of the office provided that the assistants should have one salary when on duty and a diminished one when waiting orders, thus modelling the service after that of the navy. The law of 1883 provided only one salary for each assistant, and this was made to conform as closely as practicable to the salary prescribed for duty by the old regulations. The Superintendent held that this law did away with the regulations, and entitled each assistant to his full salary even when waiting orders. This view has been contested by the accounting officers of the

Treasury, but we are not aware that a final decision has been reached. However the question may be decided, there is no ground for impugning the integrity of the men who drew their salaries. The question is one on which opinions might well differ, and there can be no ground for claiming that the assistants should have gone behind the decision of the authorities for the time being by refusing to accept the proffered salaries.

The Washington despatches to which we have alluded, partake so largely of the character of personal complaints that we should have passed them without notice but for the demoralized condition which they indicate. The circumstances under which Mr. Thorne has been holding the position of Superintendent are such as could hardly lead to any other result. Appointed to discover weak points of the Survey, he is in no way identified either with its work or its interests. His position and authority are not respected either by his subordinates or by the Treasury officials. He assumed the position of chief investigator under the direction of the First Auditor of the Treasury, and it would seem from all accounts that Mr. Chenowith has never ceased to look upon him as one of his lieutenants. Gossip has it that the Second Comptroller, who has officially nothing to do with the matter, is really as powerful as Mr. Thorne in deciding the policy of the survey, and, like Mr. Chenowith, occupies himself in listening to the stories of its dissatisfied employees. The result is that the institution, instead of being guided, is drifting along without reference to the rocks and shoals which surround it.

It is quite certain that no bureau can go on in this way with three or four heads trying to run it, not one of whom is held responsible for it, without a speedy loss of its *esprit de corps* and a complete subversion of all discipline. The only reason yet assigned for allowing such a state of affairs to continue more than six months is, that no man really fit for the office of Superintendent would be willing to accept it under such conditions. Very likely this is true, but, if so, it only emphasizes the necessity of changing the conditions as speedily as possible.

GERMAN OPERA.

Last week the musical season reached the highest tide ever known. The first performance in America of Wagner's "Parsifal" and Delibes's "Lakmé," besides "Rienzi," "Tannhäuser," "Walküre," "Queen of Sheba," "Orpheus and Eurydice," two Thomas concerts, the public rehearsal and concert of the Symphony Society, not to mention a number of miscellaneous concerts, operettas, etc., all in one week—surely neither New York nor any other city has ever been visited by such a flood of musical entertainments. And inasmuch as most of them are well attended, it would seem as if New York were ambitious to become the world's musical metropolis, as Paris was formerly, and Vienna now is. The foreign artists who are with us at present are amazed at the prolificness and prosperity of our musical season, which, they declare, is without a parallel abroad.

This week, however, ebb-tide has set in. The German Opera Company at the Metropolitan is the first to retire from the field—not, indeed, for the reason that caused Mr. Mapleson to retire from the contest with his Italian Opera Company, but because the regular season of thirteen weeks has come to an end. From the combined artistic and financial points of view it has been beyond comparison the most successful opera season ever given in New York. In the days of exaggerated prima-donna worship there may have been managers whose receipts were as large as Mr. Stanton's this year; and not a few operas have been produced heretofore in an excellent manner. But never before have works of the highest musical merit been received with so much favor or so well interpreted; and this is what Mr. Stanton may place to his credit, besides the remarkable fact that not a single substitution has been made, during the whole season, for the operas advertised. Great as was the success of last year's German opera season, the results are much more favorable this year, and would have been still more so had it not been for an untimely visit to Philadelphia.

The Metropolitan opera, fortunately, is not intended to be a money-making institution. The stockholders are satisfied if they clear expenses; and should there be a deficit they are willing to pay it, as long as they have their amusement. This happy arrangement is a great advantage to the manager, who, like the managers of foreign state-supported opera-houses, is thereby enabled to spend a sum of money on a single opera which a manager who stands on his own feet would never dare to risk. At the same time the stockholders are obliged to pay some deference to the public's tastes and desires, if they do not wish to make too great inroads on their own purses. Not a few of them, it is well known, go to the opera to be seen and heard rather than to hear; and this contingent probably did not think favorably of several of the operas given this year, notably the "Meistersinger." But as the public came to these performances in great and increasing crowds, they felt bound to let it have its way and to submit patiently to no fewer than eight performances of this masterwork.

The company which Mr. Stanton and Mr. Damrosch brought over from Europe this winter has proved itself in most respects superior to last year's, except that the superb dramatic art of Frau Materna and Herr Scl.ott has been frequently missed. With the exception of these two vocalists and Frau Schroeder-Hanfstängl, the best artists of last year have been retained. Among the new-comers Frl. Lehmann and Herr Fischer have won special favor, and will return next year. In their sphere they are almost as perfect as Patti is in hers. But their sphere is a much higher one than Patti's. They have done a great deal towards dispelling the superstition that Wagner's vocal method sacrifices beauty of tone and smoothness of execution to distinct enunciation. Herr Fischer's *Hans Sachs* and Frl. Lehmann's *Venus*, for instance, will long be remembered as impersonations in which a great histrionic talent is combined with a rich resonant voice, elegant vocal method, distinct pronunciation of the words, and an appreciation of their meaning and emotional import rarely shown on the operatic stage. The acquisition of Herr Seidl as conductor, and his reëngagement for at least three years more, was another clever stroke of Mr. Stanton's managerial policy. No better man for the place could possibly have been secured—not even Hans Richter, who, being older, would not perhaps have worked for the good of the cause with all the zeal that Herr Seidl has displayed. Herr Seidl resembles Hans Richter not only in being a Wagnerian specialist, but in being, besides, thoroughly at home in classical and non-German music, as he showed in his Bayreuth concert, and by his magnificent and absolutely flawless conducting of "Carmen" and "Faust" in strictest accordance with the best Parisian traditions, as we know from personal experience. In "Carmen" Herr Seidl showed to especial advantage, for he is a Hungarian, and therefore familiar from his infancy with the exotic gypsy rhythms similar to those that give "Carmen" its special flavor. The concert which Herr Seidl gave in behalf of the Bayreuth funds showed him to possess such a deep insight into the poetic qualities of the great symphonist, that the announcement will be hailed with pleasure that next year he will give a series of symphony concerts.

To Herr Seidl's special ability, perhaps more even than to the able work of the soloists at the Metropolitan, is due the fact that the repertory has become more Wagnerian even than it was last year, when 28 out of 58 performances were devoted to his works. This year Wagner got 28 out of 52 performances—"Die Meistersinger" having been given 8 times, "Rienzi" 7, "Lohengrin" 5, "Tannhäuser" 4, "Walküre" 4. Of course it was impossible to give the latter three operas as often as last year, for in that case only twelve performances would have remained for all other composers, which would have been a very one-sided and unsatisfactory arrangement. The greatest financial success of the year has been Goldmark's "Queen of Sheba," which has had fifteen representations, a success quite out of proportion to its intrinsic musical merits, and due to a very large extent to the unprecedented splendor of its scenic outfit. "Rienzi" also owed much of its popularity to its scenic effects. It would be unwise, however, to attach too much importance to these considerations, for experience proves that works which chiefly owe their popularity to the *mise-en-scène* the first season, generally fall flat the next season. The "Prophète," for example, which was so highly commended for its scenic attire, had nine performances last year and only three this year. In the long run those works will be found to pay best which have the most dramatic music and plots, and for this reason the success of the "Meistersinger" is much more significant than the success of "Rienzi" or the "Queen of Sheba," for it will be more lasting. Nevertheless, scenic splendor is of great importance in the modern opera, and it is well worth noting that the predominance of Wagner at the Metropolitan is the more remarkable inasmuch as none of his operas has been placed on the stage with anything like the scenic splendor that has been lavished on the "Queen of Sheba" and on "Faust," though no operas are so available for

the scene-painter as Wagner's. The comparatively shabby *mise-en-scène* of "Tannhäuser" and "Lohengrin" may be pardoned in view of the fact that they were prepared last year, before the success of German opera was assured; but the cramped and crowded scene in the last act of the "Meistersinger" could and should have been immensely improved upon. If there is one thing certain in operatic matters, it is that every dollar spent in realizing Wagner's exact scenic as well as poetic and musical intentions will bear a hundred-fold interest.

In behalf of the chorus and orchestra it must be said that they were an improvement on last year's. Though generally satisfactory and often excellent, there is room for further improvement; and Herr Seidl, who goes abroad in May to assist at the Bayreuth festival, and who is thoroughly at home at all the German opera-houses, will no doubt see that such shortcomings as were perceptible this year will not recur. The greatest task before Herr Seidl and Mr. Stanton is the engagement of suitable dramatic and lyric tenors. It is one of the most curious of physiological problems why in these days, when hundreds of thousands of men are at their wit's end what to do for a living, there should be only five or six available tenors on the operatic stage, well paid as they are. Of the two tenors heard this year at the Metropolitan both had their merits, but neither is a great enough artist for the place. Of the German tenors that have been mentioned as likely to visit us, Winkelmann, Goetz, Vogl, and Niemann have been named, but nothing is certain as yet. It is understood that they all are willing to come, for America still remains the Eldorado for singers. As regards German singers in general, it is worth noting that they are finding favor at present not only in this country, but in southern Europe. Frau Kupfer, of Vienna, has made such a success in Spain that the managers of the Grand Opéra in Paris are endeavoring to secure her services. Spain, in fact, is becoming quite German in its musical tastes, notwithstanding recent political difficulties, the Spanish being apparently more sensible than the French in this matter. Wagner's operas have been sung in all Spanish cities this winter. At Madrid "Lohengrin" has been given twenty times, and arrangements are in progress for a complete Wagner cyclus next year.

On the other hand, Patti's recent fiasco in Paris shows that the lyric "star" business is in its last stages of decadence. And this is, after all, the most important consideration regarding our present opera season, including the performances of the American Opera Company. Opera is no longer art for the artist's sake, but art for art's sake. A few years ago people said: "Patti is going to sing to-night" — no matter what; now they say, "The opera to-night is 'Tannhäuser,' or 'Lakmé.'" And experience in European cities proves that when once this stage is reached, when once grand opera has been given with a grand ensemble, there is no danger of a relapse into the Italian star system. The announcement that German opera is to be continued for three years longer at the Metropolitan, therefore, very probably means a great many more than three years.

PARLIAMENT AND CONVOCATION.

LONDON, February 23, 1886.

PARLIAMENT met again on Thursday last, and settled down to the routine of a working session more steadily than might have been expected in the present condition of parties. The House of Commons is still hampered in its movements by the new members, who crowd into the galleries and the space behind the bar, and swell the cry for a more commodious chamber, in which they might all find seats on the floor. Committee of Supply has a marked effect in moderating the enthusiasm of inexperienced legislators, and before the estimates are out of hand the House may turn out to be large enough. For the present, the Government is getting its money easily; the masters of obstruction hold their hands till they see what is to befall them. There are some possibilities of delay in this evening's debate, which turns on the rights and wrongs of Ireland in the matter of imperial taxation. The Government will no doubt endeavor to treat the question as a part of the general problem of home rule, to promise inquiry and examination, and to postpone definite action till after the statement which the Prime Minister has undertaken to lay before Parliament about the beginning of April. In the meantime, some measures of secondary political importance will have some chance of making progress. Mr. Trevelyan comes first with his Crofters' Bill—a more radical bill than the one introduced in the last session of the late Parliament, and dropped on Lord Salisbury's accession to office. The present bill will encounter little opposition in the House of Commons, unless, it may be, from the Crofters' friends, who think that it does not go far enough. As for the Lords, they will think twice before they reject or seriously modify the provisions of a Crofters' Bill at the present moment. Affairs look serious in the Highlands; and the landlords have virtually admitted their inability to resist the demands of the peasantry, enforced by the new power of the franchise. The Marquis of Stafford is heir to the vast estates of the Duke of Sutherland, but he could not secure his election as member of his own county without adopting the entire Crofter programme. Now, in the character of Crofters' friend, he runs a neck-and-neck race with Dr. Clark, M. P.—"lord of his learning and no land beside"—a gentleman whom some tolerably advanced Scotch Liberals used to regard as a revolutionary of the school of Henry George.

When the immediate claims of the Crofters are satisfied, we shall have Mr. Chamberlain's measure for the reform of social government. It must not be supposed that the energies of Mr. Chamberlain are entirely absorbed in the rearrangement of areas and rates. He is frequently absent from the Treasury bench; but he never was more active in making his personal influence felt among all the sections of his own party. He takes no pains to conceal his opinion that Mr. Gladstone's third administration will be a short one; he anticipates the possible reconstruction of the party at no distant date. As yet, Mr. Chamberlain is by no means strong enough to pose as the inevitable successor of Mr. Gladstone. His practical ability and debating powers are unquestionably first-rate; and those who know him best have perfect confidence in the rectitude of his intentions. But he has frightened many sober people by the headstrong levity of his judgment, and the eagerness which he displays to act as a judge and a divider between property and poverty. Perhaps Mr. Chamberlain's best chance lies in the absence of any conspicuously better man. Lord Hartington inspires confidence among all kinds of Liberals; but if he finds his back seat comfortable, he may refuse to descend again into the arena. Among the rest of Mr. Gladstone's colleagues and ex-colleagues, it may be doubted whether there is one who would really like to lead the House of Commons with Mr. Chamberlain sitting beside him.

A year ago almost any Radical would tell you that the future leadership lay between Mr. Chamberlain and Sir Charles Dilke, and many were inclined to put their faith in Sir Charles as the safer, though perhaps the less brilliant, of the two. Sir Charles is exiled from public life for the time being, by the deplorable scandal which led to the proceedings in Crawford vs. Crawford and Dilke. The judgment in the case was no doubt perfectly good in point of law; but the public cannot very well understand it. A lady is divorced from her husband on the ground of misconduct with a certain person; at the same time it is held that there is so little evidence against that person that he is not even called upon to deny the charge made against him. So long as the matter remains where it is, the moral judgment of society remains suspended. If it be asked whether Sir Charles Dilke will return to public life, the answer is that he may do so if he can give good evidence to show that Mrs. Crawford's story is untrue. This he may perhaps manage by inducing the Queen's Proctor to intervene, in order to prevent Mr. Justice Butt's decree from being made absolute. I do not believe that anything short of a legal inquiry, resulting in his exculpation, would enable Sir Charles to resume his old position in the Liberal party. Even in the time of Lord Melbourne it was thought that a scandal of this kind ought to damage the reputation of a statesman. English society has become more moral in some respects since then, and Mrs. Crawford's story is ten times worse than anything that was ever alleged against Lord Melbourne.

When the Conservatives are in opposition they allow the bonds of party discipline to be indefinitely relaxed. The benches assigned to them are apt to exhibit empty spaces, which afford room for an overflow from the Liberal side; and their leaders wearily refrain from leading, with the exception of Lord Randolph Churchill, who is, like the British army, always ready to "go anywhere and do anything." Sir Michael Hicks-Beach is more and more effaced, and would probably not be prepared to give any very large sum for his chance of leading the Commons once more. At the present moment Lord Randolph is in Ulster, stirring up the Orangemen to resist Mr. Gladstone's supposed design to destroy the legislative union between Great Britain and Ireland. One quality required by the "coming leader" of a large party is audacious inconsistency; and this Lord Randolph possesses in perfection. A few months ago, when he was a candidate for Birmingham and wanted the Irish vote, he leaned toward home rule, decried coercion, and exchanged compliments with Mr. Parnell. When he came into office, he threw in his lot with those members of Lord Salisbury's Cabinet who wanted to "dish the Whigs" by offering large concessions to Irish opinion. At the present moment the Conservatives have nothing to expect from the Parnellites; but they do expect to upset Mr. Gladstone by exciting English opinion against him if he tampers, or seems to tamper, with the Union. Therefore Lord Randolph has taken the shamrock out of his cap, gone to Belfast, and invited Ulster to charge with all her chivalry in defence of the Constitution. What will the Parnellites say to this? Less, perhaps, than some may suppose. Lord Randolph is so perfectly frank, he "turns his back on himself" so promptly and openly, that nobody has the heart to be severe with him. At the same time it is matter for deep regret that Ireland at this moment should be the cockpit for English parties to fight in. The state of the country is

most deplorable; the sense of insecurity pervades every department of commercial and social life, and one knows not what can be done by merely political means to put an end to anarchy and ill-feeling. Irish politicians seem to have no suggestion to offer; Mr. Parnell does not think it necessary to appear in the House of Commons; his followers sit there in rows, looking as dull as so many Liverpool cotton brokers suffering from the depression of trade. Even Captain O Shea's spirits must have sunk a little when he was introduced last night. His countrymen observed a stony silence, and the two gentlemen who introduced him left a space on each side of him as they marched up to the table, indicating thereby that they were not to be held personally responsible for the "Whig" protégés of the Nationalist leader.

Students of our Constitution are aware that England is happy enough to possess two sets of representative institutions. While Parliament is sitting in Westminster Palace, the clergy, who still form a separate estate of the realm, are represented in the Convocation of the Province of Canterbury, now sitting in the precincts of Westminster Abbey. This ancient body has, indeed, lost much of its former importance. It can do nothing without license from the Crown; and the advisers of the Crown are accustomed, as Lord Westbury said, "when Convocation is harmlessly employed, to let it alone; when it proceeds to actual business, to dissolve it without delay." The powers of Convocation have not been extended, but it has succeeded in adding to itself a new House of Laymen, which may advise the bishops and clergy how most effectively to promote the work of church reform. The points now under discussion are the abuses of ecclesiastical patronage, the necessity for taking some steps to remove incompetent and superannuated clergymen, and the possibility of forming lay parochial boards to assist in the government of the Church. Bills dealing with these points will be presented to Parliament before long.

This movement for the reform of the Episcopalian Church of England runs parallel with the movement for the "reconstruction" of the Presbyterian Church of Scotland. In both countries the adherents of the established churches found themselves stronger in voting power than they expected to be in the last general election. They hope, by timely concessions and reforms, to popularize the national establishments, and so to render them safe against the attacks of the Liberation Society. The Liberationists, on their side, are watching these new movements with the keenest vigilance. They think, not without reason, that they are themselves the original cause of this new-born zeal for reform; and when the "reconstruction" policy comes before Parliament, they will have an opportunity of criticising it from their own political point of view. Looking at it merely as a party question, it will be interesting to note the course of Liberal statesmanship in relation to this subject. The Church Reformer, on the one side, says: "We mean to make disestablishment too hot for any Liberal statesman to take it up." The Liberationist, on the other hand, says: "We mean to show the Liberal leaders that our support is not to be had for nothing. Mr. Gladstone has told us that the Dissenters are the backbone of his party; some day soon we shall ask him to choose between taking up our policy and dispensing with his backbone." Hitherto the weakness of the Liberationist party has been this—that the political Dissenters are, as a rule, advanced Liberals, who would never dream of voting for a Conservative. The political Churchmen are, as a rule, moderate Liberals, who will vote Conservative if they are alarmed about the Church. It remains to be seen whether the defenders of the Church have done wisely to put their schemes of reform into such a shape that they must come up for Parliamentary discussion. There are always incidents in the ecclesiastical debates of the House of Commons which cause even moderate men to doubt the wisdom of preserving a system that makes Parliament responsible for the doctrine and worship of the Church. R.

THE CONQUEST OF UPPER BURMAH.

LONDON, February 18, 1886.

INCLUDING this last expedition, it has needed three wars to effect the incorporation of all Burmah with the British dominions in India. The first Burmese war occurred so far back as 1824-26, when Lord Amherst was Governor-General of India. This was one of the costliest wars ever waged in India. More than twenty thousand of our soldiers—the majority being English—perished, mainly from fever contracted in the malarious forests upon either bank of the Irrawaddy, and the expenditure, as acknowledged by the Indian Government, amounted to fifteen millions, the real cost being, in all probability, much greater. The war, however, was ultimately successful. Amarapura, the Burmese capital, lay at our mercy when the Burmese monarch consented to obtain peace by the sacrifice of the provinces of Arakan and Tenasserim.

The second Burmese war occurred in 1853, when Lord Dalhousie was Governor-General. This, though not marked by the blunders, delays, and disasters of the first war, was by no means an easy or an expeditious affair. The Burmese opposed a stout resistance to the advance of the English army, and our losses were considerable. Our success was at the same time decisive, and had Lord Dalhousie desired to do so, he might have deposed without difficulty the native dynasty and annexed the whole of Burmah. But he shrank from a step which, for a distance of four hundred miles, would have aligned the frontier of our Indian Empire with that of China. This was in itself a wise scruple, but unluckily, as I believe, for both India and England, it only prevailed so far upon the mind of Lord Dalhousie as to cause him to adopt a policy which postponed but did not avert the result which he feared. He did not dethrone the King of Burmah; he merely cut his dominions in two, by an arbitrary line, incorporating one half with India and leaving the poorer half in his possession. It was impossible for such an artificial arrangement to endure, and that it has lasted so long has been due solely to the accident of the great Indian insurrection of 1857 following so closely upon the heels of the last Burmese war. That great convulsion, caused as it so largely was by the annexations of Lord Dalhousie, gave a check to all schemes of territorial expansion, from which they are only now beginning to recover.

Lord Lawrence was the last of our great Indian Governors whose dealings with independent native states bore the impress of that equity and moderation which the ordeal of 1857 had burned, so to speak, into the minds of those who had passed through it. The revival of a policy of aggression was simultaneous with his withdrawal from public life. Lord Lytton's invasion of Afghanistan was the first tentative experiment in the new direction. The annexation of Burmah marks the formal return to a policy expressly repudiated in the Royal Proclamation addressed to the people of India after the suppression of the mutiny. This fact it is which gives to the conquest of Burmah a special significance which has not been missed by the native princes of India, who have been taught to regard the National Proclamation of 1858, with its emphatic renunciation of all lust for territory, as the Magna Charta of their rights and liberties.

Various pretexts have been assigned in justification of our invasion of Upper Burmah, but none of them will bear a moment's examination. It has been alleged, for example, that the French were intriguing to establish themselves in virtual possession of the country, and were at the very point of success. There is not a shadow of truth in this, and those who circulated the report were well aware that it could not be true. No Power could exist in Burmah without our permission. Not only are the mouths of the Irrawaddy in our possession, precluding, alike, both egress and ingress from Upper Burmah, but the population are dependent for two essential articles of their diet upon the salt and rice imported from British Burmah. Again, it has been alleged that King Theebaw was a drunken savage, who spent his time in massacring his subjects, and that humanity called upon us to extend the blessings of British rule to his subjects. In reply to this, it may be stated that King Theebaw is not a *drunken* savage; he is, on the contrary, a total abstainer; and though he cannot be acquitted of cruelty, he is not, even in this respect, to be compared to the Amir of Afghanistan, to whom we pay a quarter of a million a year and whom we have pledged ourselves to protect against all his enemies. Then it has been pretended that, owing to the misrule of King Theebaw, British trade with Upper Burmah has well-nigh suffered eclipse. This is altogether false. Trade with Upper Burmah has been steadily on the increase since Theebaw ascended the throne, and never at any previous time was it so large as immediately before the declaration of war. No; the true efficient cause of the deposition of Theebaw and the destruction of Burmese independence is the commercial depression in Great Britain. In India itself, among the English community, war and conquest constitute a policy which is always and invariably popular. It is a break in the profound monotony of Indian life. It means to the official classes honor, distinctions, pecuniary gains, new offices. In the case of Upper Burmah, these inducements were recruited by the presence in Rangoon of a mercantile community who had long fretted against the impediments to commerce imposed by a semi-barbarous Government such as existed at Mandalay. But so long as there was no pressure from home, the Government of India had resisted the pressure brought to bear upon it both by its own officials and the Rangoon merchants. It succumbed instantly when the mercantile community at home joined hands with the mercantile community of Rangoon. The long-continued commercial depression has caused the manufacturers and traders of Lancashire to hunger for a "new market," like as the hart desireth the water-brooks; and the conquest of Upper Burmah promised the opening up of a "new market" which would be none the less acceptable because the entire cost of its acquisition would be defrayed by the opulent Indian peasantry.

To prepare the way for conquest the usual fables were diligently spread abroad in the press. Our "prestige" among our Indian subjects was declared to be wounded almost past recovery in consequence of the unpunished insolence of King Theebaw. The people of Upper Burmah were depicted as coming down to the frontier in large crowds, entreating the English officials to come over and help them. The Chinese, it was boldly asserted, were only awaiting our arrival upon their frontier in order to abandon their traditional exclusiveness, and enter into commercial relations in the free and equitable spirit of Richard Cobden. Under the influence of these pleasant hallucinations we entered into the war with a light heart. We experienced no difficulty in deposing King Theebaw, in occupying his capital, and in issuing a proclamation declaring

Upper Burmah to be from henceforth a province of British India. And now, as is our wont in these little wars, we find ourselves compelled to take account of the disagreeable realities of the situation. The war is profoundly distasteful to the people of India. It is so for a double reason. In the independent States, both among the princes and peoples, it has kindled the alarm and distrust which the Royal Proclamation of 1858 was intended to set at rest forever. They cannot but see that the reasons assigned in justification of the conquest of Upper Burmah are identical with those which formed the stock arguments of Lord Dalhousie whenever he desired to extinguish an independent native principality, and may at any moment be directed with equal effect against their own existence. But what alarms them most is the fear that the National Proclamation has lost its virtue—that it can no longer be appealed to as a true expression of the policy of England as distinct from that of the Indian Bureaucracy. Those who remember how largely similar feelings were at work in 1857 will not undervalue the significance of this revival. But it is among the people of British India properly so called that the war has evoked the loudest expressions of resentment, and not without cause. Burmah, it must be remembered, is no part of India. Its people differ from the people of India in language, in appearance, in manners, in religion. Whatever advantages may accrue to British traders from the new conquest, none whatever can accrue to the people of India. They neither trade with Burmah nor do they ever go to the country; yet upon their shoulders has been laid the entire cost of the acquisition of this new province. The two wars of 1826 and 1853 added about seventeen millions to the Indian debt, and this last expedition, before it is completed, will, in all probability, swell the amount to twenty millions. Nor is this all. Before the commencement of the war all the "experts" were confident, as they always are, that the new territory would not only pay the costs of its administration, but render a handsome surplus for the benefit of India generally. There is, of course, not a possibility of any such thing. Upper Burmah, for many a long year, will not be self-supporting—or nearly so. The Indian army will have to be increased in order to provide troops for the defence of the new frontier, and it is difficult to see how the money is to be obtained without the imposition of additional taxation—this, moreover, at a time when terror at the approach of Russia to Herat has just raised the military budget from seventeen to nineteen millions annually, and compelled the Indian Government to have recourse to that most oppressive of imposts in India—an income tax—in order to meet this heavy charge.

The element, however, in the new situation which excites the greatest misgiving is unquestionably the attitude taken up by China. The bait which allured the commercial classes in Great Britain to give their approval to the invasion of Upper Burmah was the prospect of a large and lucrative trade to be opened up with the Chinese province of Yunnan. It is now admitted that, even if all else went well, there is no chance of this prospect being realized. Yunnan was the theatre of the great Panthay insurrection, which for many years defeated every effort of the Chinese Government for its suppression. When at last it yielded to the persistency of the Pekin authorities, the latter inflicted a frightful retaliation upon the rebellious province. The populations of city after city were massacred wholesale. The province may be said to have been left desolate and without inhabitants, and a century at least of peace and quiet will be needed to restore its former prosperity. But in addition to this, between Yunnan and Upper Burmah rise range upon range of lofty, inaccessible hills, sparsely peopled by mountain tribes, and possessing neither the roads nor the food needed for the passage of an extensive commerce. Even if there existed on the part of the Chinese authorities a genuine desire to establish free commercial relations with the "foreign devils" in Upper Burmah, it would not be practicable until the hill country had been pacified and trade routes constructed. But there exists no such desire. Twice within the last fifteen years has the Indian Government sent missions up the Irrawaddy to establish a trade between Upper Burmah and China, and on both occasions were the missions forced to turn and seek safety in flight from the hostility of the Chinese officials. The last attempt brought about the murder of young Margary, which very nearly involved England in a war with China.

At present, however, the Chinese are not content with passive obstruction. They have set up a claim for substantial "compensation." The Pekin Government pretends to have had rights of suzerainty over Upper Burmah, and demands, as compensation for the injury done to these rights by the deposition of King Theebaw, the cession of the upper reaches of the Irrawaddy, including the town of Bhamo, which, in the event of a trade being developed, would constitute the chief commercial centre. China, in a word, is playing with the English in Upper Burmah precisely the same game which she played with such harassing consequences with the French in Tonquin. It is impossible for the Indian Government, by yielding to the Chinese demands, to make practical acknowledgment of a weakness which China could never extort from the weakest of the Burmese monarchs; and this it is which makes the situation so serious. Upper Burmah, although occupied by our troops, is far from being pacified. The introduction of British rule into a native state, whatever may be its advantages to the great body of the population, means utter ruin and dishonor to the powerful, the ambitious, and the able. It means the forfeiture, not merely of their political and social influence, but the deprivation of their means of livelihood. They are literally reduced to beggary. This is the meaning of "the Dacoity" which is at present troubling the military authorities at Mandalay. These outlaws, or rather their chiefs, are men whom the cast-iron system of British administration has driven into outlawry; and the character of the country in Upper Burmah furnishes extraordinary facilities for this species of bush fighting. Roads there are none in the country. The population is almost wholly settled upon the banks of the Irrawaddy, and the rest of the country consists either of high mountains or is covered with primeval forest and impenetrable undergrowth. Troops can only move in small columns, and must carry all their provisions with them. The circumstances are such that the Chinese authorities, by secretly assisting those who are in arms against the British, might, without compromising themselves, render our situation an intolerable one. Great Britain, it must be remembered, is no longer politically an island severed by its streak of silver sea from the other nations of the world. It has to defend an impracticable frontier in Egypt; another altogether untenable one in Afghanistan; and now by the occupation of Upper Burmah it has added to these a third frontier, as difficult to make good as those in Egypt and Afghanistan, and even more remote from its base of supply.

R. D. Osborn, Lieutenant-Colonel.

Correspondence.

THE MARYLAND APPOINTMENTS AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, signing himself "Civil-Service Reform Democrat," evidently does not understand the political situation in Maryland. He thinks we are like the "man who called on Hercules instead of putting his own shoulder to the wheel," and counsels us to emulate Tilden, whose first service to reform was the forensic effort which secured to Azariah Flagg the office of which the "Rasins" and "Higginses" of his day sought to deprive him by fraudulent returns.

Let me tell your correspondent *some* of the things we are doing, and then see whether we can be charged with not trying to help ourselves, or with unfair criticism of the President's action in reference to the Maryland appointments.

1. The Reform League, through its Committee on Elections, has secured indictments against twelve persons for violating the Election Laws, and among these are five of the city registers. The Committee are prosecuting their investigations with thoroughness, and expect to procure testimony sufficient to indict at least half of the twenty registers of voters in this city. The mass of evidence already in hand against the indicted registers and their co-conspirators is overwhelming, and ought to render their conviction certain, but every lawyer knows how difficult it is to convict a political offender who is supported by the holders of all the State and municipal offices of a large city like Baltimore. It becomes especially difficult under a jury system which allows a score of peremptory challenges to each accused. Our task of thus emulating Mr. Tilden is not rendered easier by President Cleveland's appointing to office the very parties who engineered a fraudulent registration that deprives thousands of men in this city of their votes.

In four wards, 1,497 names were stricken from the list of voters by the indicted registers, and in only fifty-five cases was the law complied with. In the Twelfth Ward, among those stricken from the list, in violation of law, are the names of 221 persons, with the entry of "Lost residence," or "Lost his residence," opposite these names, and, strange to say, *all these with that entry are colored voters*, and a large proportion of them, at the time of the registration, had been living for years at the same place and had been legal voters at the preceding election. The registration book of this ward for the term of the indicted register shows six different handwritings therein, although the register is not by law allowed a clerk. Need I add that this registration book, of which the register under the law was the sole custodian, was every evening during the registration regularly carried to the house of Morris A. Thomas, President Cleveland's appointee as Indian Inspector, and kept in his house over night? We are doing our best to send these obliging friends of Mr. Thomas to the penitentiary, and if, for reasons I have given, we do not convict on the first indictment, we are prepared to indict again and again.

All this work, except, of course, drawing the indictments, has been done, and the evidence obtained and classified, at private expense, without the aid of a single State or city officer, and with no help from the detective agencies employed by the State and city to ferret out crimes. So much for court action, whose efforts as a reform political agency your correspondent so highly appreciates.

2. The Reform League, through its Committee on Legislation, has prepared and submitted to the Legislature the best Registration and Election

Law ever presented to the Legislature of a State. They have improved upon the New York and Chicago laws, each of which is a model and evidently the work of a master hand. The "bosses," however, have given the word to defeat this law, and the man who will secure this result is I. Freeman Rasin, the lately appointed Naval Officer of Baltimore.

3. The Reform League, through its Committee on Officers, has gathered and submitted to the Senate of the United States the facts concerning some of the more notorious Federal appointments, and is now engaged in collecting the facts with reference to some of the recent ones.

4. By the courage of some good men in the State Senate, three iniquitous schemes concocted by Rasin and Gorman have been defeated. There could be no more striking illustration of the character of the ring we have to contend with than these bills. To one unacquainted with Maryland politics they would appear to be measures having no political significance at all. There is a bill for the calling of a constitutional convention. The acknowledged purpose of this is to get rid of the independent judiciary in the city. Mr. Rasin has always been able to guarantee his subordinates immunity in the courts; but in 1883 we succeeded in driving from their places the judges that had allowed their courts to be so used. We then elected a judiciary that has given great satisfaction. This has made it more difficult, though not impossible, for Mr. Rasin's men to secure acquittal, and the avowed purpose of the constitutional convention is to remove these judges. Another bill, part of the same scheme, would take away from the city judges the selection of the grand and petit juries and put it into the hands of the Sheriff, the purpose being the same—to secure safety in the Criminal Court. Supplementary to these bills, and part of the same plan, is a bill doing away with our present Police Board, they having refused at the last election to allow the police force to be used by Mr. Rasin in the election, and prevented the Marshal of Police from holding his office while running for Clerk of Court.

Our ring, you will thus see, is not an easy one to fight, and, when necessary for its uses, not only makes the statutes, but is now grasping after the organic law of the State. These bills seem for the present to have been beaten in the Senate, the plan being too palpable, but it has been done by the delegations from the counties, the city delegation voting for them unanimously.

5. By private subscription, a newspaper, the *Civil-Service Reformer*, has been established to advocate the cause of reform. Its vigorous articles are the gratuitous contributions of writers who have only a public interest in securing decent political methods.

These instances will illustrate a few of the ways in which we are "putting our own shoulders to the wheel." Now for the criticism of the President. I, as an Independent Democrat, agree with your correspondent that no President has ever given closer or more conscientious attention to the discharge of his responsible duties, including the making of appointments, than Cleveland. But he has made mistakes—grave mistakes in Maryland. And what did we do? Not, what your correspondent intimates, "blame" the President for every appointment that was unfit to be made. Take the first case, that of Higgins. After his appointment by Mr. Manning, we laid before the President and the Secretary the facts as to Higgins's character and deeds, and stated publicly that we did *not* blame either for this bad appointment, and that we knew that Senator Gorman had deceived them both. I presume that neither Mr. Manning nor the President can now have much doubt that Higgins burned our ballots in 1875, altered the Poll and Registration books in 1879, and in 1880 commended the notorious burglar, "Billy Forrester," to a Philadelphia judge as "an honest man that followed the sea." Notwithstanding this, the Secretary appointed another equally disreputable person, "Sonny Mahon," to a position in the Custom-house. Again we believed the Secretary had been deceived, though we thought the Higgins lesson should have taught him not to honor all of Gorman's drafts at sight.

Next came the President's appointment of Thomas as Indian Inspector. We did not "blame" the President for this appointment. On the contrary, we told him he had been deceived again by Gorman, and proved before the Interior Department, by the witnesses who caught him at it, that Thomas, while an officer of election, had stuffed the ballot-box, and that he was a fraudulent bankrupt.

In the Independent campaign last fall every speaker on the reform side exonerated Cleveland, and we took particular pains to show that he had been deceived by our own representative in the Senate of the United States. There are no more enthusiastic supporters of Cleveland's policy than the people who entered into that campaign, nor any who believe more absolutely in his sincerity of purpose. What lent special bitterness to that campaign was the humiliation felt by the respectable people in this State at knowing that, when better political methods and a policy of reform were being inaugurated by Cleveland in other parts of the country, Maryland alone should be given over to the spoils system, and that our senior Senator at Washington, himself a product of that system, should be its most unblushing advocate by his acts and his utterances. We have believed in Cleveland, and still do. We have a guarantee of his purpose in his action elsewhere, and we know, better even than people outside, how difficult it must be for him to deal with a Senator with whom office-broking has been a life-work. What we have tried to do has been to give to Cleveland all possible light that we could upon the state of things here and the people who were abusing his confidence. Our position has been a hard one, and the whole story of Mr. Gorman's appointments has not been told. There have been numerous minor appointments by the heads of departments at Washington, attracting no notice, unknown to the President, unknown even to the heads of departments. Many of these appointments are made from the criminal class of this city. The indictments against them are still found on our court dockets. Their offences are known to the whole community.

But other mistakes of this kind sink into insignificance when compared with the appointment of Mr. I. Freeman Rasin as Naval Officer. It is impossible to give an outsider an idea of the shock that this produced among decent people here. It is impossible for Mr. Cleveland to have any idea of the man he was selecting. I. Freeman Rasin (or "Free" Rasin, as he is better known) is a notorious lobbyist. It has been his custom to send for any one who had a matter pending before the City Council, and notify him of the price at which the measure could get through. If the price was paid, it went through, otherwise not. There has been no secret about his method, and witnesses are readily forthcoming. In the matter of election frauds, Mr. Rasin has been accustomed to tell, with great freedom, how these frauds have been done by his people, and to give minute details. Abundant testimony can be procured as to this also. But it is not in either of these rôles that Mr. Rasin has made his great reputation. So far as organization is possible among the criminal classes of this city, Mr. Freeman Rasin is the leader and responsible head of our criminal class. At one time before the war, this city was known as "Mob Town," because of the violence at elections. Shooting and stabbing affrays at the polls always occurred. Mr. Rasin was the President and Manager of the "Ashland Club," whose members called themselves and were known in the city as the "Bloodtubs." It was by these gentlemen that the violence that I have spoken of was committed. The assassination of a man named Kyle by these men at an election in 1858 was characterized by such evident premeditation, and was so cold-blooded in its execution, that it aroused the whole city, and enabled the same gentlemen who are now prominent in the reform movement here to drive Mr. Rasin from power. Can any one be surprised that we object to such an appointment?

What the city is most anxious about now, however, is the appointment of United States Marshal, which Mr. Rasin is anxious to secure, through Mr. Gorman, for some one of his men. We certainly think that this, being a semi-judicial office, is one where the sentiment of the bar of this city should be consulted. Our bar is practically unanimous in favor of the reform movement here, and are nearly all members of the Reform League. About a dozen lawyers, good and bad, but all badly "ring streaked," are all that remain with the regular party. We certainly hope that President Cleveland will not put the office of United States Marshal, with its important duties and high responsibilities, in the hands of a creature of Mr. Rasin.

Certainly, in using every effort to prevent such a calamity, we do not wish to antagonize Mr. Cleveland. In fact, the feeling that the Reform party in Maryland has had for Mr. Cleveland through all this trying period, can be best expressed by the text so aptly quoted by Russell Lowell: "Though he slay us, yet will we trust in him." We hope, however, that he will not slay us, and that our confidence in him may soon be relieved from the strain to which it has been subjected.

BALTIMORE CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM DEMOCRAT.
March 2, 1886.

THE EXECUTIVE SESSIONS OF THE SENATE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the discussion of the issue now made between the President and the Senate with respect to the requests of that body for papers and information in relation to suspensions and removals from office, one weak point always noticed in the Senate's position is the fact that it proposes to act in secret, and without any fixed responsibility, on matters for which the President is directly responsible to the people. If it be true, as is contended, that the suspension of an official by a reform President necessarily involves a reflection on the character or competency of the person suspended, so would the reversal by the Senate in secret session of the action taken, especially if such reversal were presumptively based on a consideration of the Executive's reasons or grounds of action, be a reflection on the conduct of the President. The remedy generally proposed by those who desire better government is to throw open the doors of the Senate, and to bring the force of public opinion to bear on the consideration of executive business.

The objections to this course are worthy of the most careful consideration; and before suggesting any other remedy it will be well briefly to state them.

When the Senate sits to consider nominations for office its functions are not legislative, but executive. It forms to that extent a part of the Executive Department of the Government. It sits to execute the laws, not to make them; its duty is to act, not to debate. The consideration of appointments to office involves, it is true, more

or less of discussion; but it is a different sort of discussion from that required for the performance of legislative acts. All who have had anything to do with legislation can appreciate how essential it is to intelligent action to obtain the views and suggestions of many minds as to the probable operation of almost any public measure that may be proposed. But the questions involved in the treatment of nominations are simple. Morality, practical morality, is a very simple thing. And it is not only simple, but it is *personal*. Should candidates for offices not immediately within the control of the people, or to be bestowed by the people, be compelled to submit to a public discussion of their character? And would publicity be favorable to the proper discussion of character?

Whether it would be so or not, the fact is that it is never the custom to require of the executive department of Government, State or national, any statement of reasons for such an act as an appointment to office, or, what would be strange indeed, any public expression of views as to the character and qualifications of the persons appointed. It is deemed a sufficient safeguard that the appointing power is *responsible* for its *acts* to the people.

In our national Government, however, we have under the present practice the anomalous spectacle of responsibility and irresponsibility at different stages in the performance of one complete act. The President's responsibility is fixed when a nomination is announced. But the Senate, which completes the appointment, acts with closed doors, and nobody is responsible for what it does. The remedy for this would be to require all *votes* on nominations to be taken in *public session*. There need be no public dissection of private character, in which a few Senators might enjoy indulging, but from which sensitive men would naturally shrink. But the responsibility of Senators for unfit confirmations would be ascertained. And all bargaining for confirmations and for the division and control of patronage could easily be detected and would be remorselessly exposed. If Mr. Senator—— secured the confirmation of a characterless politician whose nomination he had procured, the open vote would show from whom he got his support. And it is believed that this would go a long way toward the correction of abuses which have flourished for a long time because individual responsibility for them could not be determined.

J. B. M.

Washington, March 5.

TENURE OF OFFICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Both the President and the Senate, in their existing contest concerning removals from office, have taken positions antagonistic to the principle that public officers should be secure in their places during efficiency. If the President's claim, that he has the right to remove all officers of the United States without assigning reasons or in any manner accounting for his action, be well founded, no officer, so far as he is a public officer, can be said to live under a government of laws and not of men. His tenure is limited by the irresponsible will of one man, not by his own duly ascertained efficiency. The military service has been supposed to be the most arbitrary, but in that service no officer can be cashiered in time of peace without trial. The Senate is understood to be ready to withdraw all opposition to the President's action if he will avow that he has removed officers from an improper motive, namely, because they are not members of his political party. The establishment of the position of either party would be deplorable.

Tenure in office during efficiency can be secured by the enactment of a statute providing that public officers shall be removed from office only for cause, to be ascertained by a tribunal, for the organization of which our courts-martial supply a convenient model. Such a statute would be constitutional. The President's right to remove officers rests upon the People's grant of power to him by the words, "The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America" (Const., Art. 2, sec. 1). The reasonable interpretation of these words is that the President is given power *to execute* the laws, not to override them. The President properly makes removals as part of his duty to execute the laws of the land, but he does so subject to statutory regulation. Russell H. Curtis.

Chicago, March 4, 1886.

THE TWO SYSTEMS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If the English system of individual and responsible leadership is a good thing, the dependence of the Ministry upon Parliament is a very bad thing. The only executive power consists of a number of members of Parliament who agree to work together so long as they can command a majority upon every question. It is what is called in physics a condition of unstable equilibrium. They must hold each other up, and all their energies must first of all be spent in keeping their majorities It seems, at first sight, wholly inexplicable that enough Tories do not vote with the Liberals, or enough Liberals with the Tories, to teach Mr. Parnell that he cannot, with his handful of followers, rule the British Parliament. But inasmuch as strict party discipline is the only way of getting a Ministry into power, the party traditions are too strong to admit of temporary independence. Englishmen are mortally afraid, and with good reason, of the "groups" which work so much mischief on the Continent. But this effect of the "groups" results from the fact that the parliamentary systems of the Continent, at least as regards France and Italy, are based upon the English model. As long as there are no stable party majorities, there can be no stable ministries.

In this country the case is entirely different. It is the only one (of those which we need to consider) where a single ruler is elected by a practically direct vote of the whole nation, and is therefore wholly independent of Congress. The Cabinet are his lieutenants, not mere voluntary associates tempted by an agreement of mutual support, but subject to his directions. There is no reason why they should resign upon an adverse vote of Congress, or why, if any one of them resigned, all should do so. The houses have passed resolutions of inquiry of Mr. Manning and Mr. Whitney, and those gentlemen have made response to the committees. For reasons which have been pointed out *ad nauseam*, and which indeed are obvious enough, it would be infinitely more effective if this work were all done in public session; and there is no more reason why the Cabinet should resign upon political differences then than now. As party majorities could not turn out the Cabinet, party discipline would not be the first object, and an independent vote would not be regarded as equal to high treason. Policies, instead of being subject, as in England, to the chance of a moment, and that of each department to every other, would have a fair degree of permanence, and while Congress would not dare to refuse the means of carrying on the Government, it could by protests and speeches educate the people to any desired change.

It is said that the improved position of the Cabinet would detract from that of the President. But the Cabinet, not being responsible to Congress, would still be responsible to him and through him to the nation. He could support them while he thought best, or, if he found any of them seriously out of harmony with Congress or public opinion, could ask for his resignation. His position would be one of the most dignified in the world.

We have taught Europe many things, and, in spite of their sneers at our Presidential system, it may well be that in this respect also we can show them more than is dreamed of in their philosophy. G. B.

Boston, February 22, 1886.

THE ACTING SPEAKER OF THE REICHSTAG.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The writer of the interesting paragraphs upon the procedure of the German Reichstag (*Nation*, No. 1074, p. 79) says very justly that "at almost every point the procedure contrasts with that to which we are accustomed," and this strangeness of the system he was examining may easily account for a slight error into which he has fallen. I refer to the qualifications of the acting Speaker, "the oldest member of the House," who presides over a newly elected Parliament until an organization has been effected. The error consists in the conjecture that "oldest" is to be interpreted as meaning "the oldest in service." On the contrary, the word is to be taken literally: this honorable office falls to the oldest in years. It may be reasonably assumed that such a rule as this would hardly have been invented fifteen years ago for the brand-new Imperial Parliament; as a matter of fact, it was found ready to hand in the procedure of existing legislative bodies in Germany. A brief extract from a newspaper report of the first sitting—on January 14—of the recently organized Prussian Landtag may be of interest:

"Immediately after the close of the opening ceremonies in the White Saloon of the royal palace the representatives gathered in the legislative chamber (*Sitzungssaal*). The attendance was unusually large, so that the House was competent to transact business. At twenty minutes before two o'clock the oldest member of the House, Landrath von Lessing, took the chair (*besteigt den Präsidentenstuhl*) and declared that he was born on November 14, 1809. No one announcing himself as having been born at an earlier date, Representative von Lessing assumed control of the House as President by seniority (*Alterspräsident*) in the following words. . . ."

His speech was commendably brief; after four short sentences, he called for cheers for the Emperor and King: "Er lebe hoch!" Three times the assembly shouted *Hoch!*

It will be noted that the opening of the Landtag by the King in person took place in the royal palace, while the English sovereign is received by the Lords and Commons in the Parliament House. But instead of attempting to attach any deep political significance to this difference, it may be enough to say that the building in which the Landtag sits is hardly suitable to the splendors of such a ceremony. G. H. Harrower.

Berlin, February, 1886.

THE PROHIBITION ARGUMENT EXTENDED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you oblige a reader of the articles "Indemnity for Prohibition" and "The Prohibition Fallacy," by continuing the argument used to answer to the illustrations of "gas companies," "tariff," and "butchers," so that it will apply to "the Emancipation Proclamation," "opium dens," and "lotteries"?—Respectfully,

Inquirer.

Bordentown, N. J.

[With pleasure. The Emancipation Procla-

mation was avowedly a "war measure," and therefore compensation was no more due under it to the owners of slaves than to the surviving relatives of slain Confederate soldiers. But compulsory emancipation in time of peace without compensation would have been confiscation—a fact recognized in the British abolition of slavery in the West Indies. The consumption of opium has never obtained the general recognition or approval of any civilized community, as that of wine and whiskey has. That is, even the moderate use of opium is in all civilized countries regarded as a vice. Lotteries have been forbidden as a form of gambling, which has also everywhere been regarded as a vice, although sometimes resorted to by individuals for love of excitement, or governments when very hard up. The pretence that lotteries have ever occupied the position in the civilized world, as an occupation or industry, that the production and sale of intoxicating drinks have, is, in fact, to us one of those painful quibbles which seem to have an undying attraction for the Prohibitionist mind.—Ed. Nation.]

OUR FUTURE INDIAN POLICY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Among the various plans proposed for use in making up the Indian policy of the present Administration, the most important are those of General Sheridan, Mr. Holman, and Mr. Dawes.

General Sheridan would give to each Indian family a half section of land, condemn the remainder of the reservation, and sell it to the United States at $1.25 per acre. The proceeds of the sale he would invest in Government securities to be deposited in the Treasury of the United States, the income to be used for the education and support of the Indians unto whom the land belonged, the sale of which created the fund. The General has shown that such a policy would create larger incomes for the various tribes, as a rule, than they now receive from the United States in annuities and other ways, and that the support of the Indians by this method would come really from their own property, instead of, as now, from the United States. His plan would, therefore, result in the saving of the several millions of dollars which now go annually to the support of the Indians. Besides, the adoption of this plan would, as he says, throw the greater part of the lands now held as reservations into the market, and open it up to settlers, and so improve the country.

Mr. Holman's plan has not at the present writing been so far made public as to show what it will be in full. But on one point he is reported to have announced himself as having convictions and courage. He would gather up the scattered bands and remnants of tribes and mass them on the large reservations, sell the abandoned reservations, and use the proceeds for the benefit of the Indians.

Mr. Dawes's Senate bill provides, among other things, that the United States shall patent the various reservations to the Indians now occupying them, but shall hold the patents in trust for twenty-five years; that when the President thinks it advisable he can have the reservations, or portions of them, allotted to the Indians in severalty, each person receiving 160 or 80 acres; that the United States shall issue to the individual Indians patents for their land, but shall retain them in trust for twenty-five years, at the end of which period the Indians shall receive patents therefor in fee discharged of the trust; that after the allotment has been made, the United States, with the consent of the Indians, may purchase the lands not allotted, paying therefor $1.25 per acre, which price shall be deposited in the Treasury on interest at 5 per cent. per annum, the income to be expended for the education and other needs of the Indians, and that every Indian born in the territorial limits of the United States, to whom an allotment has been made under this act, "is hereby declared to be a citizen of the United States, and is entitled to all the rights, privileges, and immunities of such citizens."

Looking at these several plans, one must admit a thorough sincereness of purpose to do the best thing possible for the Indian in them all. But while General Sheridan's method, if carried out, would make every Indian a gentleman or lady of leisure for the entire term of his and her natural life, it would certainly be the very worst possible thing for the Indians. To plant a family on a half-section which is to be its home as long as the family remain tenants of the earth, is to put them in jail. Besides, if the Indians are to become self-supporting farmers and stock-raisers, a half-section to a family is only a chicken-pen or a hog-yard. There must be room allowed for increase of population in the family, and there must be land enough to afford farms for all until the Indians have become so far like whites in their knowledge and skill that there will no longer be any need of lines of protection, and until whites and Indians, mingling together by natural desire, shall have solved the Indian problem by the laws of nature and the method of miscegenation, for wherever the Indians get a fair chance to obtain the advantages of education they will remove every particle of prejudice against intermarriage. I could name many men and women to-day in Michigan who are the descendants of Indian mothers, and who are among the most successful and honored families of the State. Within twenty-five years numbers of men and women came from the cities of Detroit and Saginaw to the Isabella Indian Reservation and proved themselves Chippewa Indians, and drew annuities and obtained patents for lands from the United States, who had been for years moving among the best families of those places.

But now General Sheridan's plan would make the Indians dependent upon their moneys or bonds invested in the United States Treasury. It would virtually make them paupers subsisted on public charity, for though they should be rich yet their riches would be forever withheld from them, and they would be fed like charity patients from a Government table. It would remove all need of efforts at self-support, and so would put an end to all possibility of making them self-supporting.

Besides, the worst evil the Indians have had to endure has been the presence of bad white men among them or sneaking about them, as wolves hang around a sheepfold. The chief reason why the Isabella Indians in Michigan are not to-day prosperous farmers and rich men is, that they were harassed and ruined by white scoundrels. Let it be known that the Indians of any tribe are henceforth to become the recipients of lands or moneys in their own right to any considerable extent, and there will at once gather around them a gang of white men whose actions and conduct would not be tolerated in any honestly civilized community in the world. Such men, the jackals and hyenas of humanity, are always on the watch for an opportunity to rob some one, and as the Indians are by far the easiest victims to be found on this continent, and especially as they are the recipients of moneys justly due them from the United States for lands that they have from time to time ceded thereto, it follows that these men look upon the Indians as their best source of income. To carry out General Sheridan's plan would put more money into the hands of the Indians and thereby increase the temptations for the white thief, and so augment the dangers of the Indians and hurry their ultimate ruin and extermination. What the Indian needs is not money, but what money will bring him as long as his money is safe. That is, it should not be placed in his hands until he has first learned what it is and the proper use it serves in the world. To teach an Indian how to raise cattle and convert them into money, how to raise grain and convert it into money, is to save him. To support him in idleness is to lose him, soul and body and race. Anything that will make him work and work understandingly will be a good. Anything that will bring him into contact with evil-minded white men will help to ruin him. The less money, then, the better. Give him honest, practical farmers and mechanics to show him how to work, and equally honest, common-sense teachers to instruct him in his schools; make his surroundings moral throughout; let his religious training enforce upon him the great importance of honesty, truthfulness, industry, and chastity, and above all compel white rascals to keep away from him, and his success is just as certain as it is that he belongs to the human race.

For these reasons I do not think General Sheridan's plan a good one. Of Mr. Holman's plan, as far as known, to mass the remnants of tribes and scattered bands, I think well. Here in Michigan the Isabella reservation was ceded to Chippewa Indians only, but white men, anxious to increase the number of Indians receiving lands in severalty, sent half-breeds all over the State and into Canada to get other Indians to come upon this reservation and claim lands. It was the same game that the Cherokee Roberts is said to have been playing in Canada the present winter to get more Indians in the Indian Territory preparatory to an allotment of those lands in severalty. Well, the result of the work was that there are here now representatives of half-a-dozen different tribes all welded together by consanguinity and living in harmony. The same thing would result, in my opinion, were the scattered bands and small tribes brought together further west; and when Indians have learned to be harmonious among themselves they have come a long way toward learning that it is best for them to live in harmony with the whites also. Such a plan would, for instance, come as a savior to this remnant of starving, pauperized Indians on this Isabella reservation in Michigan. They can do nothing for themselves, and if left here will in a few years be exterminated. But they have yet about 10,000 acres of land, all of which the whites there are waiting to steal as soon as it is allotted to them in severalty. That land is worth $5, much of it $10, per acre. If sold for the benefit of these Indians, the proceeds would go far toward giving them a new start in the world in a land where they could forget the wrongs they have suffered in Michigan. I think, therefore, that this plan should be added to the many careful provisions of Mr. Dawes's bill.

The Senate bill is certainly a strong one as a protection for the Indians. But if it were to make the period of trusteeship fifty years instead of twenty-five, I think it would be fully 100 times as good as it now is. The thing to be accomplished is to civilize the Indians and make them self-supporting, self-protecting citizens, who shall take their place among citizens in general and be absorbed by the conglomerate citizenship which has come to us from all parts of the world. What are the chief obstacles to the accomplishment of such a purpose? The inherited race customs of life and the dishonesty of the white men who come in contact with the Indians. Secretary Lamar says the Indian must make his final stand where he is, and either adapt himself to civilization or be annihilated. But

his environment is not white civilization, but the scum and vice of civilization. The whites who hang upon the Indians where there is anything to steal from them are men who would not be tolerated among respectable people, and it is this terrible evil to which the Indian must adapt himself or be exterminated. That is, he must learn how to protect himself against it; and until he has learned that lesson he must be protected. Whether it takes 25, 50, or 100 years makes no difference in the duty that is laid upon the United States. It was this evil power of the mean and scoundrel whites who gathered about the Chippewas on the Isabella Reservation in Michigan twenty-five years ago that made the honest effort of the United States to help those Indians of no avail. But in twenty-five years the character of the men who still watch these Indians for opportunities to rob them has not changed. They are bad men still, though out of their ill-gotten gains several of them have tried to buy a good name and bribe God Almighty by building and supporting churches! The Indians will be surrounded by human wolves and jackals twenty-five years hence out West just as they were here twenty-five years ago, and they will not be safe until the civilization to which we would have them adapt themselves in order to prevent their extermination has itself been civilized, until from the Lakes to the Gulf, from Cape Cod to California, no man shall dare to wrong another, when race and color prejudices shall have been lost in the grander recognition of the rights of man, and man shall mean all mankind.

CHARLES ELLIS.

EAST SAGINAW, MICHIGAN.

THE DEPRECIATION OF THE GOLD DOLLAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems a little remarkable, in view of former acts of Congress upon the subject, that a suggestion has not yet been made to adjust the relative values of gold and silver coin by depreciating the gold dollar.

The Act of April 2, 1792, provided that the relative values of silver and gold should be as 15 to 1, and that both should circulate as money when coined by the Government in conformity with this standard.

In 1823 the Secretary of the Treasury called the attention of Congress to the fact that gold had appreciated in value so that an ounce of it was worth 16 ounces in silver (Cong. Debates, February 6, 1823, p. 859), and that this appreciation of gold had resulted in the very evils that are now apprehended, to wit, the silver had driven the gold out of circulation. It was publicly asserted, in fact, that in 1834 there was hardly a gold piece to be found in the whole United States (Cong. Debates, June, 1834, p. 4654).

To meet this evil the standard was corrected by making the legal value of gold and silver conform to their actual value in the markets of the world. *This result was accomplished, however, by depreciating the value of the gold dollar* (Act June 28, 1834), and not, as is now proposed, by raising the value of silver coins—out of regard, presumably, for the debtor class (Cong. Debates, June 21, 1834, p. 4650, *et seq.*). And after the discovery of gold in California, the relative values of gold and silver were again disturbed by the depreciation of gold. It was again proposed to adjust the matter by diminishing the weight of a silver dollar. And the fractional currency was actually depreciated (Oct., 1851), although to a very slight extent. The disastrous consequences of such a policy are, of course, easily apparent. If, in the event of fluctuation in the value of either of the precious metals, the more valuable be depreciated, ultimately a dollar will be worth nothing. But I think it is equally absurd to attempt to correct inevitable variations by increasing the weight of the cheaper. Some other course must be adopted so long as both gold and silver are retained in circulation.

Respectfully yours,

I. H. LIONBERGER.

ST. LOUIS, March 2, 1886.

AN OVER-PRAISED TRANSLATOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: What can Mr. Evelyn Abbott mean by praising as he does Miss Alleyne's translations from Zeller's great work on Greek Philosophy? In the preface to the recently published English edition of Zeller's small compendium on the same subject, the 'Outlines of the History of Greek Philosophy,' Mr. Abbott says: "She [Miss Alleyne] knew the value of accuracy, and was at great pains to secure it. She had also a keen sense of literary style, and would turn a sentence three or four times before she could be satisfied with it. Hence the excellence of her work as a translator."

I have recently read a good deal of her translation in two volumes of the first division of Zeller's larger work ('The Pre-Socratic Philosophy'). These volumes were published in 1881, five years after she had brought out, in conjunction with Prof. Alfred Goodwin, an English version of the second division ('Plato and the Older Academy'). She was therefore no novice at the time. The measure of her success may be judged by a few specimens culled from the pages I have last read, viz., vol. ii, pp. 407-445. Besides minor inaccuracies, such as "copied" for *abstrahirt*, and "ancient philosophers" for *ältere Philosophen*, I have noticed in these pages the following extraordinary blunders:

Im übrigen ist uns von seinem Leben nichts bekannt (p. 946).	Of his doctrine nothing is known to us (p. 411).
die Aussicht . . . ist es vor allem, was sie der Jugend ihrer Zeit als unentbehrliche Führer erscheinen lässt (p. 975).	it is the prospect . . . which they, as indispensable guides, hold out before everything else to the youth of the period (p. 441).
so haben sich die bedeutendsten Sophisten auch ausdrücklich darüber erklärt, und die übrigen haben es wenigstens durch ihr ganzes Verfahren an den Tag gelegt, dass sie sich von der älteren Philosophie lossagen (p. 977).	yet the most important of the Sophists never expressly declared, and the rest only implied by their general procedure, that they had broken with the previous philosophy (p. 444).

If it were worth while, I could produce from other parts of the book still more remarkable mistakes, but *ex pede Herculem*. The truth is, this translation is about as bad as such work usually is. One who attempts to read it comes every now and then upon some senseless passage which proves, on reference to the original, to turn the author's meaning topsy-turvy. A reader who does not know German, or who has not the original at hand, must often get into a sad muddle.

FRANK B. TARBELL.

YALE COLLEGE, NEW HAVEN, CONN., February 23, 1886.

MR. FITZEDWARD HALL AND THE NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The reviewer of the English Philological Society's Dictionary, at page 103, *ante*, after acknowledging that he is "generally impressed with the accuracy of the work" as regards its "treatment of American usage," goes on to say: "We shall probably not be far out of the way in supposing that this state of things must be due largely to the supervision of" myself. And then follow some rather severe strictures. For the shortcomings which the reviewer points out I am not, however, responsible in any manner or degree, his conjecture as to my "supervision" being wholly gratuitous. I have not supplied Dr. Murray, for the entire alphabet, with matter equal to that of one of your columns bearing on Americanisms. In reading the proof-sheets of the Dictionary, I have, further, paid next to no attention to anything distinguished by the letters U. S. The subject of Americanisms is one by which, as a whole, I am much more repelled than attracted, and with which I have none but the most superficial acquaintance. It could not well be otherwise, seeing that I have been forty years away from home and that I know very little of American literature.

Your obedient servant, F. HALL.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, February 16, 1886.

[Our reference to Dr. Hall was intended to be entirely complimentary, as the context shows. It implied (mistakenly, as now appears) rather that he had saved the work from all but a small measure of inaccuracy, than that he was responsible for the shortcomings which we pointed out, and which unavoidably in the review took on proportions greater by far than they have in the work itself.—ED. NATION.]

MR. PAGE ON YALE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For the benefit of such readers of the *Nation* as are not familiar with the matter, I should like to call attention to one or two misleading statements in Mr. Page's recent letters. In his first table he compares the academical departments of Yale and Harvard. This seems fair at first sight, but, since Harvard has practically united the Lawrence Scientific School to the college proper by throwing open most of the courses to the academic students, this comparison gives her an undue advantage. Students will attend the College for a scientific education to gain the other benefits which the College offers, to say nothing of the éclat of a degree of B.A. Under these circumstances it is hardly fair to omit mention of the flourishing Sheffield Scientific School, which contains about ten times as many students as the Lawrence School at Harvard.

The same point deserves attention in presenting the courses offered in the two institutions. Harvard has thrown open to her undergraduates many of the courses of the Divinity School, besides those of the Scientific School above mentioned. In Mr. Page's tables, then, we have the teaching force of three Harvard departments pitted against that of one department in Yale. It is true that the Harvard undergraduate has these additional advantages, which was Mr. Page's point; yet at the same time it gives an unfair notion of the resources of Yale to make such a comparison. If Mr. Page is so earnest a Yale man, it seems as if he should not have neglected to caution his readers against misjudgment. Tables comparing the amount of the instruction given by Yale's Academic, Scientific, and Theological faculties with Mr. Page's figures for Harvard would present a much better appearance and be a fairer exhibition of her powers.

Mr. Page is of opinion that Yale has advantages of situation over Harvard, because she is not so near a "great and wicked city." But can it not be said that Harvard has a great advantage over Yale in being near a great literary centre, a city proverbial for the devotion of its inhabitants to literature?

Mr. Page gives two great reasons for the expansion of Harvard—that she is governed by her alumni, and that she has completely adopted the optional system. Mr. Page distinctly implies that the Harvard Overseers correspond to the Yale Corporation. Such is the natural interpretation.

What are the facts? Harvard is governed by a far closer corporation than is Yale. The Yale Corporation is composed of the President, the Governor of Connecticut, ten self-elected clergymen of the State, and six graduates, elected by the alumni. Harvard is governed by a self-electing corporation of seven—the President, the Treasurer, and five other gentlemen. A quorum for the transaction of business is made by the President and three of the Fellows, provided the others have been warned of the meeting. The college property is held and managed entirely by the Corporation. The Overseers ordinarily have no voice in the investment or disposition of funds, but their consent is necessary in matters relating to the statutes, regulations, appointments, and internal administration of the College. The graduates have no direct hand in the management of the funds. Harvard College, in short, is governed by a small self-electing body, held responsible to the Board of Overseers elected by the graduates. It will be seen that the graduates of Yale have a much larger direct share in the government of their alma mater than the Harvard graduates have. These facts are found in the opening pages of the Harvard Catalogue.

In respect to elective studies, says Mr. Page:

"Yale stood till five or six years ago just where she stood in the eighteenth century, and stands to-day almost exactly where Harvard stood in 1841. Of course, the opportunities of choice are far greater at Yale to-day than they could be at any American college forty-five years ago; but they are still far inferior to the advantages which Cambridge now affords."

It would be difficult to combine more misrepresentation in so short a space. In the first place, Mr. Page seems entirely ignorant that two extensions of the optional system have recently been made at Yale. In 1876 four hours a week of elective work were allowed juniors and seniors; in September, 1884, the first trial was made of the present system, which allows the juniors to choose eight-fifteenths and the seniors twelve-fifteenths of their work. But let us see what Harvard had in 1841, which Mr. Page says was almost exactly what Yale has now. The Harvard Catalogue of 1841 mentions certain electives without particulars, but in 1844 we find electives offered. The choice, however, was not given to the student, but to his parent or guardian; and if they failed to exercise it, the Faculty laid out a course as their own judgment dictated. As late as 1871 the Harvard seniors had five and a half hours of required work, against three hours now required at Yale. Mr. Page, for a Yale graduate, is commendably generous to the Harvard of forty-five years ago. His remark, "If elective studies are good, why were they not adopted years ago?" applies equally to Harvard if we go back fifteen years. Yale had the germ of the elective system as far back, at least, as 1821, the date of the earliest programme of studies that I know of, when for one term the juniors could choose between fluxions, Greek, and Hebrew. French was added to this list in 1825–6, Spanish in 1826–7, German in 1841–2, and Italian in 1845–6. At this time the seniors had a similar limited choice. The policy of the College has varied somewhat in this respect. Mr. Page should have informed himself on these matters before assuming that the optional system was unknown at Yale till five or six years ago.

To conclude with Mr. Page, it seems to me that he measures the two colleges too much by numbers, especially by the numbers of students that attend them. Is not that somewhat parallel to judging two authors by the number of readers they attract? The judgment may be correct and it may not. The popular patronage of a college proves much or little, however advantageous it may be, according to the popular standards of culture. Inasmuch as American standards are too often sadly utilitarian, the popular judgment of a theory of education may easily be somewhat untrustworthy. Oberlin has twice or three times as many students as Amherst. Is Oberlin better? It may be and may not be; only, numbers are not the final criterion. The graduate department at Johns Hopkins contains twice as many students as the Harvard department, though it is hardly ten years old. Is it that much better?

It seems to me that a very simple reason for the expansion at Harvard may be given in addition to the common ones. By relaxing all restrictions requiring fixed courses of study, she has taken a position filled by no other institution. Here is the oldest and most celebrated university in the land changing its character, offering opportunities of specialization hitherto out of the reach of the American student. Harvard stands in her new position practically without a competitor, while Yale, still preserving a curriculum somewhat like that of Amherst, Princeton, and others of our best colleges, competes with them. Obviously we should expect immense expansion at Harvard and only moderate growth at Yale. Yale has grown as rapidly as her sister institutions of her own kind. Suppose Yale to adopt the Harvard system, then Harvard would have one competitor and probably grow less rapidly. Yale could never reap as much as Harvard, since Harvard secured the first fruits. Whether it would be wise for Yale to attempt to follow Harvard in this respect is very much doubted. It is a grand thing to have Harvard offer the immense advantages she does, but it would be mischievous if she should be imitated by all the institutions in the land.

Another cause for Yale's slower growth deserves a word. She draws some sixty per cent. of her students from outside the State, a large proportion from the West. Now of late the Western colleges have been improving rapidly, and are competing with Yale more and more for this Western contingent. Harvard does not feel this competition so heavily because of her unique character. The fact that some ten per cent. of her undergraduates are special students, not studying for a degree, illustrates how her growth has been accelerated by entering a new field.

There are other points about the comparison instituted by Mr. Page which might be touched upon, but I believe enough has been said to show that his conclusions need to be taken with some allowance if one desires to form a fair estimate of the present position of Harvard and Yale.

EDWARD G. BOURNE.

NEW HAVEN, March 8, 1886.

Notes.

A FORTNIGHT ago we announced the undertaking of the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia College which will shortly be embodied in the *Political Science Quarterly*. A recent gift of $15,000 by Mr. John E. Thayer to Harvard University, to establish a publication fund in political economy, is, we learn, soon to be utilized after the foregoing example. The University will, at the opening of the next academic year, begin to publish at regular intervals a series of contributions to political and economic science. They will neither be limited as regards authorship to the work of members of the University, nor represent any particular economic school, or method, or set of ideas. Rather, according to its capacity, the series will be made a repository for anything in the way of discussion, investigation, or criticism which is believed likely to promote the study of the science and its literature. At this time we are unable to give any further details, except that what is contemplated is not a series of monographs. In other words, the publications of this kind at Johns Hopkins, Columbia, and Harvard will supplement, not rival, each other. Together they mark an epoch in the political education of the American people, and have a high and cheering significance.

Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston, will publish a limited parchment-bound edition of Mr. Rideing's 'Thackeray's London'; 'The Log of the *Ariel*'; and a new work from the German on 'Electric Lighting.'

D. C. Heath & Co. announce 'Systems of Education,' by Professor John Gill, of the Normal College, Cheltenham, England.

Johnson's 'Rasselas' and Lamb's 'Ulysses' will be added to their "Children's Classics" by Ginn & Co.

'Mrs. Peixada,' a new novel by "Sidney Luska," is announced for early publication by Cassell & Co., who have also in press 'No. XIII: The Story of the Lost Vestal,' by Emma Marshall.

The Chicago *University*, which has already absorbed three periodicals, is about to add to itself another, and will henceforth be known as *Unity and the University*.

Outing for March is the first issue under the direction of Mr. Poultney Bigelow and in New York. Mr. Bigelow's travels about the globe have well qualified him for the charge of this wholesome organ of outdoor life and sports. The present number is fully up to its high standard of literary and artistic excellence. We remark the usual instalment of Mr. Thomas Stevens's record of his extraordinary bicycling trip around the world.

The second (March) number of the *Academy* (Syracuse, N. Y.: George A. Bacon) confirms the impressions we derived from No. 1. Mr. Bacon manifests a strong editorial sense, a clear head, a modest and undogmatic spirit. It is already manifest, too, that this periodical meets a want, and has touched a responsive chord in those who are engaged in secondary instruction. Nor do we know of any other publication which would have been as fitting and natural a medium for the recent address, by President Adams, of Cornell, on "The Educational System of Germany," printed in full in the issue before us.

General Buell's paper on Shiloh in the current *Century* is reinforced by one on the same battle by Gen. W. F. Smith in the March number of the *Magazine of American History*. It stops short of the first day's fighting, and will doubtless have a sequel.

The February *Antiquary* (New York: D. G. Francis) is on the whole a light number, but none the less readable. It opens with "Stories of Noodledom," by W. A. Clouston—Gotham being apparently a principal town of Noodledom. "Quaint Conceits in Pottery," by Llewellyn Jewett, contains amusing cuts of "Sussex Pigs" and "Toby Fillpot." Other entertaining illustrations are found in a notice of Mr. Ashton's 'Dawn of the Nineteenth Century.' "The Black Assize at Oxford in 1577," by Dr. Frederick Pollard, is a valuable contribution to medical history. "Black Assize" is the name given to a session of court at which an epidemic of fever breaks out, caused by the filth and confinement of the jails. Dr. Pollard examines one of the most famous of these, with the aid of a plan of the locality. Mr. H. B. Wheatley commences a series of papers upon "Precious Stones" with an account of Pearls. Mr. Richard Davey has the opening article of a series on Beatrice Cenci, in which he makes use of the newly-discovered evidence in regard to her and her family. The present paper is devoted to showing the bad character, as well as inferior origin, of her father

Francesco Cenci. Mr. A. Folkard, on "The Antiquity of Surnames," proves that surnames were in use in the Anglo-Saxon times. This, too, is to be continued. Other short papers are on "The Lord Mayor's Show in 1590," "Lewisham Wells," and "Newly-Discovered Fresco Paintings in an Old Danish Church."

Two substantial but likewise entertaining articles occupy the forefront of *Le Livre* for February. L. Derôme recites the origin and career of the first *Revue de Paris* (1829-1845), founded by the versatile Dr. Véron, whose *article de début*, written by Sainte-Beuve, was an attack on Boileau of which the writer grew less proud as he grew older. In the files of this Review one may see other beginnings equally instructive, and there is much evidence lurking in them concerning the literary history of the most famous Romanticists—Victor Hugo, Mérimée, Charles Nodier, etc., with Delacroix, Rossini, and Tony Johannot. M. de Saint-Heraye, on the other hand, treats of the first bibliographical journal, the *Annales Typographiques, ou Notice du progrès des Connoissances humaines* (Paris, 1759). In connection with a short-lived though really earlier periodical, the *Bibliothèque annuelle et universelle* of Burtin and the Abbé Ladvocat (1751-1753), M. de Saint-Heraye alludes to these editors as "les auteurs," apparently after the usage we lately pointed out as once prevalent in England, of addressing the Editor as the Author. We seem to see the same thing in a contemporary reference by the editor of *L'Année littéraire* (1759) to the plan of "l'auteur *des Annales typographiques*," where one might, to be sure, interpret *auteur* by 'founder'; and again, thus, "M. Morin (c'est le nom de l'auteur des *Annales typographiques*) a certainement beaucoup d'érudition. Il rapproche les ouvrages publiés sur la même matière," etc., where the editorial function is uppermost in the writer's mind. However, Littré does not record any such meaning under *auteur*. In the "Chronique du *Livre*" are printed some inedited verses by Alfred de Musset.

A list of 376 rivers, large and small, of all countries, with length, distance of mouth from source, and watershed areas, approximately estimated, is given in No. 120 of the Berlin Geographical Society's Journal. The Nile ranks first in length, the Mississippi second.

Mr. M. M. Ballou's 'Edge-Tools of Speech' (Ticknor & Co.) is a thick volume of nearly 600 pages, full of "elegant extracts," which will delight those who think the free use of them a mark of culture or of thought. Prose predominates, we should say, but the poetry is disguised by being printed as prose. Foreign authors are cited in translation. The compiler's range includes at one extreme Josh Billings, whose aphorisms are quite as good as those of more literary characters, and better than platitudes like this from William Howitt: "Whoever has not ascended mountains knows little of the beauties of Nature"; or this ordinary remark from Emerson: "We are disgusted with gossip"; or this stimulating "edge-tool of speech" from Cowley: "Merab's long hair was glossy chestnut brown." Mr. Howells is one of the latest laid under contribution, in this from 'Silas Lapham'—"It is certain that our manners and customs go for more in life than our qualities." The classification is sometimes forced, as when we find under Flirtation, "Who is it can read a woman?" It is often incomplete, as, after disposing of Originality, Mr. Ballou puts the same kind of texts under Plagiarism, with no cross-reference. The heading Woman, it would be safe to say, includes less than a quarter of the quotations in which the word occurs. To gather these together there is no index, nor is there any index of authors, though a useless list is given.

Beyond some half-dozen corrections in the ascriptions of poems, and the bringing down of biographical dates to 1884, and more tasteful typography and binding, we perceive nothing to remark in the new edition of Schaff and Gilman's 'Library of Religious Poetry' (Funk & Wagnalls), first published in 1880. It is a good and comprehensive collection, though the term "religious" is construed somewhat narrowly, as if a hymnology had been contemplated.

A very attractive book has been made by rendering into English Froebel's 'Mutter- und Kose-Lieder' ('Mother's Songs, Games, and Stories,' London: William Rice). The ladies, Frances and Emily Lord, who have done this, have of course preserved the pictures which are the basis of Froebel's object-lessons, though with a reduction in scale which somewhat impairs their usefulness; and they have rearranged the music for children's voices, with pianoforte accompaniment. The translators lay stress on the fact that this work, unlike others on the theory of education, puts a "distinctly prepared means" into the hands of those who have not a knack of inventing. That its value lies more in its suggestiveness than its "means" can be interred from such rhymes as these, which a dime-novel could not surpass in unreality, though their motive is apparent and respectable:

"Though black the Charcoal Burners are in face,
Though grimy are their shirts, ill-shod their feet,
Their hearts are kind and warm, *and always beat*
For what is blameless, good, and right, in every place."

'Holly and Mistletoe, or Songs across the Snow, written and illustrated by E. T. G.' (Baltimore: Glass & Co.), is a seasonable production, especially as to the second part of the title. The illustrations, with their winter sparkle, and the whole getting up of the letter-press, are in taste and refined execution far above the usual holiday gift-books—if books they may be called that books are none, but rather a cross between Christmas cards and a portfolio. If we had leisure to read the songs—twenty-five in number, ten of them illustrated—we might judge whether "E. T. G." writes as well as she paints. Our trial with "Golden Rod," which we took by way of sample, was fairly encouraging.

Mr. B. F. Harding, teacher of Greek in St. Paul's School, Concord, N. H., is the author of a little book of forty-four pages on 'Greek Inflection' (Boston: Ginn & Co.). It has various objects in view, among them to "furnish a large number of words for ready use as paradigms," to "suggest a systematic and scientific treatment of the noun and verb," to be used "for parallel work with the grammar, . . . by the beginner as well as by the more advanced scholar or teacher," to "collect in small compass the latest developments of philology," on the subjects of case-endings, terminations, person-endings, and the inflection of the noun and verb generally, and "to form a stepping-stone between the school and comparative grammars." We shall leave our readers to judge of the success of an attempt to accomplish all this within the limits of about forty pages. The book is really an attempt to teach the inflection of the Greek noun and verb according to the "stem theory," by a new method which presents many points of originality and ingenuity. That the "stem theory" is destined to supplant all others in teaching Latin and Greek we have no doubt; but we do not think the manner in which it is here presented is the best. The book is, however, suggestive, and well worth the perusal of teachers, even though they may not adopt it for use in the class-room.

"Twenty-second thousand" must be inscribed on the new edition of the late Stephen S. Foster's famous anti-slavery tract, 'The Brotherhood of Thieves; or, a True Picture of the American Church and Clergy,' about to be issued by Mr. Parker Pillsbury of Concord, N. H.; the prior edition having been exhausted. We have before called attention to Mr. Pillsbury's inexpensive series of reprints, which includes also J. G. Birney's 'The American Churches the Bulwarks of American Slavery,' and Mr. Pillsbury's own 'The Church as It Is; or, the Forlorn Hope of Slavery'—all a part of the anti-slavery warfare of the forties, and a repository of irrefragable testimony as to the pro-slavery subserviency of churches and ministers of almost every denomination. Every public and every theological library should have them, and every student of the abolition agitation. A larger and recent work by Mr. Pillsbury, 'Acts of the Anti-Slavery Apostles,' whose field of retrospect is principally New Hampshire, and which has taken its place among the important memoirs of the period to which it relates, is likewise procurable of the author-publisher.

From the Government Printing-office we have Vol. 13 of the Census, being the Statistics and Technology of the Precious Metals, prepared, under the direction of Clarence King, by S. F. Emmons and G. F. Becker.

It is a pleasure to be able to declare that a book about a game of cards—most of which are a weariness to the flesh and a provocation to assault and battery—accomplishes exactly what it intends; and this can be declared of 'A Handbook of Whist and Ready Reference Manual of the Modern Scientific Game,' by "Major Tenace" (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons). It is a successful attempt to set forth dogmatically the proper play at any given condition of the game, leaving explanation and discussion to other works, which the genuine student of whist may be supposed to have in his possession.

Mr. Edward Roth, 1135 Pine Street, Philadelphia, makes slow but steady work with his index to *Littell's Living Age*. The biographical section ends in No. 8 at Lord John Russell.

The first report of the Art Students' League of New York, by the President, Mr. Frank Waller, is on our table. Its encouraging retrospect covers a period of ten years.

Mr. Christern has received the catalogue of the eighth exhibition of the French Water Color Society. Its illustrations are made to ornament the pages very effectively.

We have had occasion more than once to commend the admirably edited and neatly printed 'Nouvelle Bibliothèque Classique' of M. Jouaust, the latest issues of which are a four-volume Rabelais and a three-volume Bossuet. The new quarterly Bulletin of the Librairie des Bibliophiles now announces that there will soon be added Montaigne's Essays and a selection from the interminable writings of Voltaire. Another announcement from the same Bulletin is that M. Jouaust has now for sale most of the original drawings from which the etchings were made that have adorned the many beautiful books he has published in the past ten or twenty years.

One of the chief points in which Waitz's view of the development of the feudal system has heretofore failed of general acceptance has been his assertion that gifts of land by the Merovingian kings created only a limited and not a full right of property. This view has been received with general scepticism, especially by jurists, who have been unable to find any support for it in the legal ideas of the time. An important paper on the subject from the distinguished historian of law, Professor Brunner, has just appeared in the Transactions of the Berlin Academy (for December 17, 1885). He asserts that the reason given by Waitz for the inability of the jurists to accept his views, that they demand a doctrine to be fully developed before they can recognize its existence, is not the true one, but rather that the early adoption of the principles of the Roman law in regard to gifts of this sort has

induced jurists to overlook the scattered traces of earlier German ideas. He then proceeds to a study of the subject worthy to rank in some respects with the celebrated studies of Sickel in the Transactions of the Vienna Academy on the related subject of the Immunities. In this he attempts to recover from the usages of other Germanic nations, and from the scattered notices in Frankish diplomas, the standpoint of the early German law in regard to such gifts, and decides that the only satisfactory conclusion is that gifts of land from the Merovingian kings created only a limited right of property unless a full right is expressly granted. This is the more noteworthy as Brunner has heretofore maintained the opposite view, as in Holtzendorff's 'Encyclopädie,' 1882.

Halliwell-Phillipps writes to an American correspondent: "I am well aware of the two great defects in my 'Outlines' to which you allude, the want of a good index and of an account of the engravings. I had made considerable progress with both of them last spring when I was almost suddenly prostrated; and, feeling from what the doctor said that a long and absolute rest was a necessity, I preferred issuing the volume without them to deferring its publication for an indefinite period. As it was, though pretty well in general health, I was unable to do book-work all the summer, the examination of the records of two towns being pretty much all that I managed to get through with during upward of six months. If I have better luck this spring, these blemishes will, I hope, be removed. What I have left of literary ambition has been abundantly satisfied by the kind reception my book has met with in every direction, especially among American students—a reception that is stimulating me to do my best to add to its utility."

At Reykjavik, on January 21, died suddenly Bergur Thorberg, Governor-General of Iceland; or, as the Icelanders themselves style their highest official, "Landshöfdingi," or "Head of the Land." He was born at Hvanneyri, in the extreme north of the island, January 23, 1829, was educated at the University of Copenhagen, became a judge, and then Governor of the southern and western provinces; he was made acting Governor-General May 1, 1883, and received a year later the permanent appointment. He was the first native Icelander who, for many generations, filled the office, his immediate predecessor, Hilmar Finsen, being by birth a Dane, though a descendant of an Icelandic family. Governor Thorberg was a man of marked courtesy, of great honesty of purpose, and of ready eloquence. Those who have visited his library and seen his table covered with the principal reviews and literary journals of Scandinavia, Germany, and France, will bear testimony to his broad culture. His widow is a daughter of the island's venerable bishop, Dr. Pètur Pètursson. It is worthy of note that, two days after the decease of Governor Thorberg, news reached Reykjavik of the death at Copenhagen of the ex-Governor-General Finsen, who was at the head of the Icelandic Administration from 1865 to 1883, and who, after his resignation, became a member of the Danish Cabinet.

— *Lippincott's* for March is very agreeable reading. Fiction occupies the leading place, and Mr. Brander Matthews's short story, "Perchance to Dream," is very bright, ingenious, and pleasing, with just enough of dramatic compression and interaction to give relief and vivacity to the tale itself. One suspects that the author's study in French comedy was the most fortunate training a novelist of his cosmopolitan "machinery" could have, and perhaps tyros in the art might profitably take a hint from this. The attractive article of the number is Mr. Laurence Hutton's historical résumé of "The American Play," by which he means drama American in theme as well as in authorship. He displays the most detailed knowledge of his subject, as was to be expected, and though our dramatic literature turns out to be very ephemeral and insignificant, both intrinsically and by comparison, the story is made entertaining. The magazine's symposium, which it calls "Our Monthly Gossip," has received its share of the fresh life infused into the whole body, under the new management, and two of the participants, at least, write cleverly. One of them brings the discussion of "Our Literary Centre" to a *reductio ad absurdum*, perhaps unintentionally, by pointing out that if the test is the output of published matter, Washington is more than the rival of New York, and if it is original quality and excellence, then the Southwest, or, to choose a locality, Murfreesboro', Tenn., is the omphalos of our literary republic. Further than this the discussion can hardly go. We expect now that some one of these minor chatterers, who have a corner reserved for them in nearly all the magazines, will suggest the location of our "National Westminster Abbey" in the Yellowstone Park.

— The *Century* for March, besides its usual assortment of fiction, has one of Mr. Benjamin's interesting papers upon Persia, another chapter on our recent architecture, with examples, and a sketch of "Italy from a Tricycle," of which the character is sufficiently indicated by its title. Mr. Washington Gladden contributes the serious public article, and adds one more to his persistent efforts to invigorate our social life with a catholic Christian spirit. He discusses the "Strength and Weakness of Socialism," and criticises in particular Gronlund's recent work on the 'Coöperative Commonwealth.' The subject naturally falls into the two divisions of grievances and remedies, or the critical and constructive aspects of the movement now demanding wide attention for itself; and Mr. Gladden seems to accept the validity of the criticism while he rejects the proposed reconstruction. It is scarcely necessary to add that he is of that group who hold that a revival of the religious spirit on the side of philanthropy—or, as he might prefer to put it, the Christianization of our economical system—is the one thing needful; not the elimination of the motive of self-interest and the method of competition altogether, but their limitation by a humane public spirit and the coöperative system in the industrial groups. The paper is suggestive of the advance of opinion, and helps to state the social problem in clearer terms for popular apprehension. Every such article is a gain.

—General Buell's paper on the battle of Shiloh is one of the most important that have yet been published. Its chief interest, of course, lies in the fact that it is his response, as Commander of the Army of Ohio at the time, to General Grant's statements of the character of that engagement and the results of the first day's fighting. The subject has been one about which much bitter feeling and prejudice has gathered, and opposite opinions are almost fiercely held by the surviving officers and men of the two great army organizations of the Tennessee and the Cumberland. General Buell's paper, although certainly guarded in expression, is really a determined attack upon the military reputation of both Grant and Sherman as connected with that campaign. It is unfortunate that it conveys the impression that it is written from the enemy's point of view (in the military sense), and that, if its reasoning is correct, the Confederates had nothing to do in the late afternoon of April 6 but to capture the remnant of Grant's army almost without resistance. That this is an exaggerated view is sufficiently clear from the simple fact that such a capture was not made before Buell's divisions could cross the Tennessee. To thus put Grant's command quite *hors de combat* was logically necessary in order to show that what General Buell calls the second battle of Shiloh was the victorious work of the Army of Ohio alone, or substantially alone. A very significant counterpart to this article is found in the "Memoranda," where, from a respectable Confederate source, is clear confirmation of the fact that Beauregard's order withdrawing his troops was being executed at the Confederate left and centre before the final attack by their extreme right at dusk; thus showing that Grant was correct in saying that the "*furor* of the attack was exhausted" before that time. There was glory enough on the two days for both the national organizations and for the brave Confederates to boot, and the unprejudiced reader will not sympathize with an army *esprit de corps* which seeks victory over its comrades more than over the common foe. This paper has valuable additions to the views from photographs of the field and the river at Pittsburgh Landing, and excellent portraits of Generals Crittenden, Wood, McCook, and Terrill.

—The *Southern Bivouac* for March has a valuable contribution to the history of the "Kentucky Resolutions of 1798 and 1799." This consists in part of a facsimile of Thomas Jefferson's letter of December 11, 1821, to J. Cabell Breckenridge, in which he avows the authorship of the Resolutions. There is also a facsimile of a printed copy of the Resolutions as they passed the Legislature, of which the author of the article says it is "an original copy now in the possession of the writer." The reproduction of the letter, with the address, frank, and postmark, conclusively settles the disputed point as to the person to whom the letter was addressed. The face of the letter had no address upon it, and the executor of Mr. Jefferson, finding a copy among the deceased statesman's papers, was misled by its phraseology into supposing it was addressed to a son of Wilson C. Nicholas, of Kentucky, and so endorsed it. From this the error has passed into general history. An inspection of the facsimile shows how naturally this occurred in the absence of the proper address. Mr. Jefferson accidentally omitted a comma in his sentence mentioning the trio of gentlemen who consulted over the matter at Monticello. The letter reads: "your father Col. W. C. Nicholas and myself happening to be together," making apparently a conference of but two persons. The restoration of the outer address of the letter proves that "your father" and "Col. W. C. Nicholas" were different persons, the former being John Breckenridge. As to the second document (the facsimile of the printed copy of the Resolutions) the evidence is less conclusive. It is known that varying versions of the Resolutions got early into print with every apparent mark of authenticity. Attention was formerly called to this matter in the *Nation* (vol. 37, pp. 330, 392, 414). A facsimile of an old printed copy therefore proves nothing unless it be established when, where, and by what authority the printed copy was made. For the authenticity of the present one nothing is offered but the assertion of the author of the article; an omission which would indicate that he was not aware of the precise form the discussion has taken. The original archives of Kentucky of that date were lost in an accidental burning of the State House many years ago. The Governor of the State had been authorized to send copies of the Resolutions to the other States, and some of these official transcripts should be in existence. Till they are found, it would seem premature to assume that the official text is restored—certainly not without full evidence of superior authenticity of the copy produced. The effect of any al-

leged modifications by Mr. Breckenridge in Jefferson's original draft would be a question still further on.

—Henry Stevens, who died at his house in London on the last day of winter, had lived there forty years, but was by birth a Vermonter. His father, a farmer far up the Connecticut, when the boy had learned "small Latin and less Greek" from the village minister, gave him a colt and told him he must work his passage through college. The youngster rode to Middlebury, entered the freshman class in 1838, sold his horse to pay for books and board, and eked out his income by teaching penmanship. After a year or two, obtaining a committee clerkship in Washington, he became acquainted with Peter Force. Thanks to a few old Revolutionary papers sent to the young clerk by his father, he obtained from Mr. Force and others funds enough for his support while completing his collegiate course at Yale. Being a bibliomaniac, both by heredity and habit, he was eager to see a library worthy of the name. Obtaining a loan of eight hundred dollars, half from Mr. Force and half from Francis Parkman, he crossed the ocean in 1846. Before he had rambled very long in the British Museum he detected some of its weak points. In an interview with one of its managers he pointed out its lack of certain American books it could not afford to dispense with. In this exposure he showed such intelligence that he received a commission to supply the deficiency. Faithful in little, he was gradually commissioned to do much. In 1884 he told an American visitor that he had furnished the Museum library with a hundred thousand books or pamphlets. He showed him one thin volume for which he was paid two hundred and fifty pounds. He had supplied the greatest of British libraries with the larger part of its American books. In turning over its catalogue for an illustration, he opened to the name of Joshua Bates, once President of Middlebury College, and read the titles of twenty-eight of his publications garnered up there by Mr. Stevens. One of his early enterprises was buying up the books of Washington from the proprietor of Mount Vernon, and forcing the solid men of Boston to pay well for those of them that were retained in America. Another of his exploits was gleaning and gathering so many papers of Dr. Franklin that Congress paid thirty thousand dollars to secure them. Mr. Stevens was followed abroad by brothers, and trained up a son to take his place as a literary and pre-eminently an historical intermediary between the New World and the Old. His book-store lately showed more than fifteen thousand curious and rare pamphlets relating to America, each bound up as a separate volume, and his last labors were in preparing a catalogue of this unique collection. On the whole, while cosmopolitan in his relations, he always turned fondly to his mother State. He named his house Vermont Cottage. G. M. B., meaning 'Green Mountain Boy,' was the only title he would affix to his name. When a freshman at Middlebury he had advertised his wish to be a writing-master by writing his proposals, in a superb hand, on a sheet of paper which he stuck up on the bulletin-board. That sheet he carried to London and hung it in a frame in a conspicuous place on the wall of his store. No doubt it hangs there still.

—A writer in St. Petersburg, reviewing a translation into Turkish of Griboyedoff's famous comedy, "Woe from Wit," gives some curious details about the stage on the shores of the Bosphorus. Within ten years not a few plays have been written in verse by Turkish authors. Thanks to them, the close-drawn curtains of the harem become more than transparent. They show the women not jealously veiled, but in their ordinary home dress, in the midst of an exact reproduction of the furniture and decorations of the harem. Even their soft, musical speech, almost a dialect of itself, is reproduced. The subjects are chosen sometimes to present the comedy of manners, and sometimes the tragedies of which that life is full. The writer further notes the change that has been rather rapidly going on in the last few years, from a kind of blind aping of western manners in certain respects to an intelligent study and understanding of western civilization, especially of its literature. An interesting list is given of books translated into Turkish since the beginning of the reign of Abdul-Aziz. The most important are Chateaubriand's 'Atala'; Victor Hugo's 'Les Misérables,' "Ernani"; Dumas's "La Dame aux Camélias," and his father's 'Monte Christo'; Sue's 'Les Mystères de Paris,' Octave Feuillet's 'Le Roman d'un jeune homme pauvre,' Lamartine's 'Graziella,' X. de Maistre's 'Les Prisonniers du Caucase,' Volney's 'Ruines,' Silvio Pellico's 'Le mie Prigioni.' 'Robinson Crusoe'; "The Winter's Tale," "Othello," "The Merchant of Venice"; Molière's "Le Bourgeois gentilhomme," "Le Mariage forcé," "Le Médecin malgré lui," "Tartufe"; Émile de Girardin's "Cléopâtre," selections from Voltaire, La Fontaine, and Fénelon—of 'Télémaque' there are two translations. It may be added that all these books are regularly for sale by the leading bookseller of Constantinople, who, by the way, is an Armenian.

TWO RECENT BOOKS UPON CALIFORNIA HISTORY.

History of California. By Theodore H. Hittell. Volume i. San Francisco: Pacific Press Publishing House. 1885.

History of the Pacific States of North America. By Hubert Howe Bancroft. Vols. xiv and xv. California, vols. ii (1801-24) and iii (1825-40). San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.

THE Territorial history of California was until very recently an obscure and, in many parts, a quite unknown field. Lawyers, toiling over the great land cases, had indeed produced and printed a few very valuable historical briefs, such as Dwinelle's 'Colonial History of San Francisco.' The life of Junípero Serra, by his friend Palou, together with a few travellers' books, had also been made the basis of many tales about the early mission life. But nearly all the rest of the history of the Territory of California, before the conquest in 1846, had remained a mystery, concerning which we were ready to believe almost any story that an apparently well-informed person might repeat. Of a sudden, however, this blank ignorance has passed away, and all things are become new. Mr. Hubert Howe Bancroft's elaborate history has reached, with the volumes before us, the year 1840, and now comes Mr. Theodore Hittell with the first of his two volumes, wherein he reaches the end of the Spanish rule in California, and begins the history of the Territory under Mexican government. The second and closing volume of Mr. Hittell's work is to bring his history to the admission of the State of California in 1850, while the fourth and fifth volumes of Mr. Bancroft's history are expected to cover the years from 1840 to 1846, the conquest by the Americans in 1846-47, and the remaining Territorial history as far as to the gold discovery in 1848. Thus, in a very short time, we may expect to have two elaborate and independent accounts of the whole life of California before 1849.

Two questions occur at once to the general reader's mind when he sees these bulky volumes, whose contents are so very largely made up from previously inaccessible manuscript sources, and whose methods of treatment are, in both cases, so space-consuming, and, in form at least, so thoroughgoing. Why, one first asks, has our previous knowledge of Territorial California been so meagre, so inaccurate, often so legendary? For these books contain on nearly every page information never before in print, and very frequently correct errors of many years' standing and of wide prevalence in previous literature. And why, on the other hand, one again asks, has it been found necessary, now that the truth has at last been studied, for both Mr. Bancroft and Mr. Hittell to state it at such length? The paradox of this sudden transformation, whereby one of the most ill-treated of our Territorial histories becomes of a sudden one of the most elaborately and minutely investigated of all, deserves explanation. The answer to both our questions lies no doubt partly in the singular love of the modern Californian for colossal undertakings. Either the Californian must utterly neglect and despise the colonial history of his province, or else he must endeavor, so to speak, to provide means for a careful cataloguing of every bullock whose hide was ever exported from Mexican California: such seems the inevitable expression in this direction of the fine energy and the somewhat extensive ambitions of a community whose youth was passed in dreams of gold, and whose later years have been devoted to vast industrial and commercial undertakings. The wealthy Californian of mark and intelligence undertakes some such task as founding his own private university, producing his own private school of literature, or leaving as his monument the greatest observatory on earth, just as the wealthy Californian of mark but not of intelligence is contented with building a bigger house than his fellow-millionaire, or with owning more acres of land than his rival. Such sorts of magnificence extend themselves very readily to the methods of scholarly work. Mr. Bancroft is a wealthy Californian of a certainly uncommon intelligence and power for work, and Mr. Hittell's ability and energy are also undoubted. Mr. Bancroft's book is on a far larger scale than Mr. Hittell's, but both books agree in a scrutiny of the early history of California such as shows an ardent desire to produce not only serviceable, but also monumental books.

But in another way, also, our questions may receive a partial answer. This minute scrutiny of the old California life expresses not only the private ambitions of authors, but the late and now fruitless repentance of the American as he remembers the little world of life that his cruel progress in California has destroyed. If there was any purpose strong in our American mind in the early golden days of California, it was to neglect, to despise, or to ignore everything peculiar to the natives of the land that we had so rudely seized. For years we set our faces against the customs and the rights of the former inhabitants. Only the strong necessities of land litigation could force us to begin the study of the older history; but this study, vivified after a good many years by the warmth of poetic sentiment, has now, under the influence of the personal ambitions aforesaid, suddenly assumed the imposing proportions of these works. We who came to contemn have remained to study most lovingly and devoutly.

As to the relative merits of these two books as they stand, a considerable examination has convinced us that not only in bulk, but also in scholarly completeness and in accuracy of detail, the work of Mr. Bancroft and his collaborators is greatly superior to Mr. Hittell's work. In readableness, however, Mr. Hittell's book stands on the whole a little higher. In fairness toward the people described, in good sense, in sound judgment of the meaning of facts once fully ascertained, both books seem, so far as we can now decide, nearly equal—a fact which cannot fail to be of great value to any future student of the subject. As the case stands, then, one cannot be

sure of the details of Mr. Hittell's story, in any of its more complex or obscure portions, without comparing it with Mr. Bancroft's account. But it is easier to read Mr. Hittell's book, chapter after chapter; and his opinion about the significance of the once correctly narrated story is always worthy of consideration. Were Mr. Hittell's book alone, one would think of it very highly indeed. So long as it is not alone, but has for its rival an undertaking that began to appear in the field some years earlier, and that is founded upon a far richer collection of original material, we can only regret that Mr. Hittell did not either publish his work five or ten years ago, or else postpone publication until he could appear as Mr. Bancroft's best equipped and ablest critic. For the moment, however, Mr. Hittell says nothing of the existence of the larger work, and the two undertakings lack all evidence of that friendly and critical coöperation and rivalry with each other wherein lies the very life of progressive scholarship. Mr. Bancroft's volumes have had, to be sure, no opportunity to mention or to criticise Mr. Hittell's book, which appears later than they.

Our opinion as to the comparative accuracy of the two books is indeed, we must confess, necessarily dependent almost wholly upon a comparative study of their own pages, since, save the authors, no man has had the opportunity to deal elaborately with the manuscript sources upon which nearly all this early California history rests. But where the work done is so elaborate, a comparison is sufficiently fruitful of results to make such a judgment as we have formed at least a possible one. Both writers mention their chief sources, and in Mr. Bancroft's book these sources are in all doubtful cases elaborately cited and compared, so that the reader is able to form in some measure his own opinion. Mr. Bancroft's work also cites numberless and, for us, of course, quite inaccessible minor authorities, whose actual presence in mind, as determining factors in the attainment of the results set forth, is at least presumable. Mr. Hittell's citations are briefer, and his principle of selection among the authorities that he has used is seldom if ever confessed. But, in any case, a fair comparison of the work done in the two books is, on the basis of these quotations and citations, not out of the question. One sees, in the first place, the advantage given to Mr. Bancroft by the far greater wealth of his material. Wherever, for instance, the Russian colony at Ross is under discussion, Mr. Bancroft's collaborators have at hand original Russian documents of great importance for the purpose, while Mr. Hittell is confined to the printed accounts and to the Spanish archives. Mr. Bancroft's Mission documents, again, are vastly more numerous, and his collections of private letters, written by Californians of all periods from the beginning down, are very helpful to him. Mr. Hittell uses, among manuscript sources, for the most part only the public archives, and has the advantage of only a very few private manuscripts. In this respect, then, he is at some distance behind his bulky competitor.

But the result of this, for the accuracy of the work done, is considerable. If the history of an outlying and impecunious Mexican province, such as California was before 1846, is to be told at all, especially in such large volumes, it might as well be accurately told. And where Mr. Bancroft gives elaborate citations to prove what he relates in great detail, while Mr. Hittell, passing over the same point more hastily, and citing either no authorities at all or less important authorities, makes statements in direct or indirect opposition to the results of the rival work, the general reader must have, at least provisionally, more confidence in the historian whose witnesses are the more numerous and the more carefully cross-questioned. Examples of such conflicts are not hard to find. Where dates are concerned, the formality of Mr. Bancroft's story, with its strictly chronological statement of the general history of the Territory for each successive year, generally assures us of his greater care in this respect. Thus, on page 501 of his volume, Mr. Hittell says that Señan "seems to have held" the two offices of president and prefect of the missions from 1823 to 1825; while Mr. Bancroft, using mission archives that Mr. Hittell does not cite, knows (vol. ii, p. 489, *seqq.*) that Señan died in August, 1823, and that thenceforth, until April, 1825, Sarría was mission president. The offices in question were of course important, if anything in California in those days can be called important. There are a number of instances of this sort in Mr. Hittell's record of the mission life, so that one could not venture to found any conclusions on his dates of minor events.

More important, however, are the differences between the two historians as to the policy of the Californian authorities in certain cases. Mr. Hittell knows (p. 494 and p. 642) that the San Rafael Mission was founded in 1817 as "a kind of bulwark or barrier" against the Russians in the north. This opinion he seems to found on one or two authorities only; but Mr. Bancroft's book, in a discussion founded on an elaborate study of the whole correspondence of the time, concludes (vol. ii, pp. 316 and 329) that "there is nothing to indicate such a purpose," and shows us that commercial intercourse between San Rafael and the Ross Colony was from the first "almost continuous." In case of the earlier affair of Rezánoff's visit to San Francisco in 1806, the relations of that officer both to the Californian authorities and to the fair Concepcion Argüello, whose romantic tale Mr. Bret Harte has made so famous, appear in Mr. Bancroft's account for the first time in their true light, since Rezánoff's official reports to his Government contain facts about the policy and conduct of the officials which the Spanish authorities could not well record in their archives, and some facts about his own intentions that even Doña Concepcion herself never learned. Rezánoff, namely, although he tried to conceal the fact, had come to buy supplies for the starving Russian colony at Sitka. The Californian officials had no legal right to trade with him, and for a time refused. Thereupon Rezánoff, to carry his point, made love to the commandante's daughter at San Francisco, and, when he had won her heart, her good father permitted their betrothal. Thenceforth Rezánoff, as he says, "managed this port of his Catholic Majesty" in the interest of his own undertaking. Soon the supplies were obtained, by an illegal compromise with the officials, and thereafter Rezánoff spread his sails, and, having promised an early return to his beloved, disappeared through the Gate into the sea. His death soon after concealed his to-day obvious infidelity, and left Doña Concepcion a faithful mourner for the rest of her life. All this affair Mr. Hittell has read of only in the old and much-distorted printed narratives. His entire account of it is therefore untrustworthy. The incident itself is important, as being the first in the history of the Russian activity in California. Utterly ungrounded appears to be Mr. Hittell's assertion (p. 626) that the Russian Government ever gained permission from the Spanish Court to found an establishment on the Californian coast for the purpose of fur hunting. The settlement at Ross was made without any sort of Spanish permission (Bancroft, vol. ii, p. 82, p. 299, note, and p. 304, note). Mr. Hittell's assertion is apparently founded only on Kotzebue's, while Mr. Bancroft's is, as usual, the outcome of the study of many cited authorities.

Especially subject to error Mr. Hittell seems further to be wherever he follows the manuscript of very imperfect reminiscences which Alvarado, sometime Mexican Governor of California, prepared in his old age, and of which Mr. Bancroft also possesses and frequently cites a copy. Upon this manuscript is founded Mr. Hittell's account of the transition of California from Spanish rule to the Mexican Imperial Regency of Iturbide in 1822; and here, in consequence, his story of the change is as dramatic as it is unreal and even absurd. The locally important events of months, painfully detailed in Mr. Bancroft's account of this period, are by Mr. Hittell treated as non-existent, and the events of entirely different years are crowded into one scene. The result is an extreme of misstatement that can only be appreciated by comparing the accounts of the two historians at this point; and Mr. Bancroft's relative accuracy is plain from the fact that he could not well have invented the months full of events which he here carefully details, and which Mr. Hittell's account, were it true, would render impossible. Mr. Hittell here makes, in fact, statements as far from the historical truth as would be the assertion that our Declaration of Independence was signed on the day of the battle of Lexington.

While, therefore, Mr. Hittell's accuracy, never perfect, is at some points intolerably wanting, his general knowledge, so far as, with his relatively imperfect sources and with his rather summary method, he could be expected to attain it, is for the greater part of this volume indubitable; and so, properly checked by reference to Mr. Bancroft, his book will be of no small use to students of his topic. His style is simple, unadorned, and not unpleasant; and his reflections are always worthy of respectful notice.

Of volumes ii and iii of Mr. Bancroft's 'California,' considered in themselves, one must surely say that their method is obviously conscientious, and has aimed to secure exhaustive accuracy. Whether the end has been fully attained, we can in no wise judge. For if Mr. Bancroft frequently gives us positive data whereby we may with fair assurance correct Mr. Hittell, the latter, so far, has given us no such help with respect to his rival, and a perfectly intelligent and thorough-going criticism of Mr. Bancroft's results would require long researches among the documents that fill his own immense library. What we can say here must be confined to a more external criticism of his book. That these volumes are unreadable is already a common assertion of popular criticism; and they are surely not exactly a great work of historic art as art. But we find in them many admirable literary qualities. To whom in particular these are due is indeed not revealed, since Mr. Bancroft confessedly and willingly shares with his devoted anonymous collaborators the honors of his colossal literary undertaking. At all events, however, we do find in these volumes one quality that some critics have missed in other volumes of the "Pacific Coast History," namely, a certain unity, both of workmanship and of judgment, which we must highly admire in view of the number of hands that are supposed to have been at work in preparing the manuscript. Mr. Bancroft and his collaborators have here somehow joined themselves in an exceptionally close personal union, so that they for this time actually work as one man, whose character and general literary style are equally admirable: an unrhetorical, thoroughly sensible man, with an unwearied diligence, a suppressed but plainly intense scholarly enthusiasm, a quiet humor, and an excellent facility for summarizing, in few words, characters and situations. As Mr. Bancroft's use of many subordinates is too often supposed to give to all the labor done in his library a composite and disunited character, which his own work in rewriting the manuscript is gene-

rally insufficient to remove, we take pleasure in pointing out the well-defined personal unity manifest throughout the 'California,' and in congratulating Mr. Bancroft, as the presumed master workman, that here at least is a book which reads like the almost undisturbed product of a single devoted and enthusiastic mind. May his revision and final alteration of the work of his collaborators always affect their industry in just the same fashion as here, and with just as happy results.

What we do object to in this book, therefore, is not the style, which is simple, manly, and earnest, nor the immensity of detail, which is the result of the original plan, but rather that defect of method which has forced the worker to distinguish so sharply secular annals from mission annals, both of these from commercial annals and from foreign affairs, and all these together from the local annals of each district. It is this sharp division which gives the best foundation to the charge that this book is unreadable. Personal unity, as we have said, is present throughout these two volumes—unity of purpose, of judgment, of enthusiasm, and of knowledge. But an artistic unity of the many currents of the narrative into one great stream has not been quite reached. If the same hand that has given the personal unity to the work could only once more rewrite it, the higher unity of historical workmanship could now perhaps be attained. But it is not given us to live our lives twice.

The third volume of the 'California' is full of the complex political struggles of the republican era, and closes, with 1840, in the midst of the Alvarado administration. We await with great curiosity and interest the fourth and fifth volumes, which will embrace, as we have said, the exciting story of the American conquest. Meanwhile we wish for this whole California history, the most carefully prepared of all Mr. Bancroft's great series, the fullest attention and best criticism of all historical students interested in the topic. For here, whatever else may be said about the matter, is a very remarkable and permanently valuable book.

An Apache Campaign in the Sierra Madre: An account of the expedition in pursuit of the hostile Chiricahua Apaches in the spring of 1883. By John G. Bourke, Captain Third Cavalry, U. S. Army, author of 'The Snake Dance of the Moquis.' Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886. 112 pp.

THIS little volume is handsomely bound, the print is good and large, but the illustrations are insignificant. Whoever has read Captain Bourke's excellent book on the Snake Dance must regret that he has not done better by his present highly interesting subject—General Crook's Sonora expedition, of which he was the acting Adjutant-General. His failure, however, is mostly ascribable to the fact that the text is composed of magazine articles, which originally appeared in *Outing*.

Captain Bourke always writes well and pleasantly for the general and superficial reader, but in this instance the public had a right to ask for positive geographical information, for an historical introduction explaining the real causes of the Chiricahua troubles, and, above all, for much greater impartiality. Our author says truly: "Within the compass of this volume it is impossible to furnish a complete dissertation upon the Apache Indians or the causes which led up to the expedition about to be described." But there was absolutely no need for a volume of such limited compass, and as to the geographical data, we insist on them, first, because nobody in the present century has described the regions traversed, and because geography is, according to Count Moltke, one-half of military science, and to pretend explaining Indian warfare without resorting to it is futile. Capt. Bourke has many clever descriptions of local scenery, and scattered allusions to vegetation and rock-formations, but what we miss is a clear and comprehensive topographical statement. A single page would have sufficed for that purpose, but the book has not even names of mountain chains in it; that of "Sierra Madre" excepted.

The Chiricahuas are not at all to be confounded with the rest of the Apaches, and Captain Bourke ought to have dispelled a common error which imputes to the whole tribe the acts of only a small fraction of desperadoes, with whom that tribe disclaims, and disclaimed in 1883, any communion. The history of the Chiricahuas can be gathered from *printed* sources; it goes as far back as 1684, but might have been summed up in half a page. Captain Bourke does well to shield the Apaches from numberless distorted and slanderous statements. His excellent description of their physical appearance and of their character stands in happy contrast with Mr. H. H. Bancroft's incorrect appreciation. It is, however, in bad taste for an officer of the United States army to lean so strongly to the Apache side at the expense of the Mexican people and army. Mexicans, more particularly in the mountain districts of Sonora and Chihuahua, were always at a great disadvantage. Fire-arms, until lately, were scarce and of very old patterns. The Apache was far better provided. Regular troops hardly came into play, being needed to head off "revolutions" and unable to protect the Sierra Madre; and yet the Mexicans have not done so very badly after all. Of course, the affair at Tres Castillos, when Victorio, after outgeneralling and whipping everybody in New Mexico, was wiped out by the Chihuahua militia, does not count. But the Alisos fight on the 30th of April, 1882, is sadly misrepresented by Captain Bourke, following Apache statements. It is true that a great majority of Indians killed were women and children, but as to the Chiricahuas' claim "that when the main body of their warriors reached the scene of the engagement, the Mexicans evinced no anxiety to come out from the rifle pits they hastily dug," just the opposite occurred. A number of Apaches hid in a sinkhole and were exterminated there at the point of the bayonet. Mexicans have been surprised time and again; so have our troops, even during the last campaign. As to killing the Mexicans with rocks only, Captain Bourke should have known that it was an Indian boast in allusion to an affair at Taraysitos in the Sierra Madre. There they did indeed hurl rocks upon the troops and wounded some; but when the "cowardly" Mexicans scaled the almost vertical cliffs, the "brave" Apaches vanished.

The book contains a number of covert slurs and flings at the army and people of our neighbor republic. As far as the army is concerned they are mostly concealed behind Apache utterances; still, their tendency is to bias and prejudice the reader's mind. In regard to the people he is more outspoken, so much so that even buildings do not escape his wrath. He speaks of churches as "in the last stages of dilapidation," and includes the temple at Babispe, a noble structure, built after the plan of San Javier del Bac, only much larger, of masonry and not with an "adobe exterior." Careless statements abound. The "Estancia" is called a "hamlet" like Huachinera, whereas it is only a *hacienda* belonging to Don Antonio Samaniego. No clue is given to the locality where General Crook met the Apache camp, no names of mountain chains surrounding it. For the benefit of the acting adjutant-general we will state that it is called Los Metates, and lies between the Sierra de Huachinera and the Sierra de los Parapetos, almost north of Nacori. The cañon which they moved up "in an easterly direction" is called Cajon de Bamochi, and the Apaches had camped in its upper parts for some time previous, as every child at Huachinera well knew. The Opata-Indian name for the range at whose feet the *rancheria* was surprised, is Quéva-ué-richi. Of the Opatas, who still form the bulk of population along the upper Yaqui (called Babispe) River, not a word is said, yet they are a most interesting people.

Like carelessness is evinced even in matters pertaining to the so-called "campaign" proper. In the first place, it was no "campaign"—rather an armed peace mission, and General Crook was actuated by motives which forever commend him to sincere admiration. He would have carried it out exclusively on that plan had it not been for the cowardly rashness of his own scouts. At Los Metates they fired prematurely, against the positive orders of Captain Emmet Crawford, and it is very doubtful if more than two of the renegades were killed (Captain Bourke says nine). The fourteen or fifteen Apaches who were in the rancheria afterwards defied all of the scouts boldly and openly from the tops of the cliffs, but the others did not dare to attack; they were and always have been mortally afraid of the Chiricahuas. These scouts were the weak element in General Crook's force; they came very near upsetting all his plans and bringing him and his troops to the verge of utter ruin. It was in the negotiations which followed, and in the fact that General Crook remained quietly where he was without pursuing or retreating, that he showed his genius and ability. Thus he secured the women and children, and saved himself from a surprise at daybreak that Gerónimo had planned. There is much more romance about this Sonora dash than Captain Bourke has intimated, and its commander has claims upon more respect, admiration, and gratitude than this book would entitle him to. The subject is worthy of careful treatment, such as the 'Moqui Snake Dance' has shown Captain Bourke capable of undertaking and accomplishing.

Lord Beaconsfield's Correspondence with his Sister. 1832–1852. Harper & Bros. 1886.

THESE letters are the merest notes, dashed off wherever the writer happened to be, only to give the news of the moment, literary, social, or political. They cover the opening of his London career both as an author and a politician, and afford a singularly effective proof of the completeness of Disraeli's absorption in his worldly success. It is not that he speaks of himself, for that was the subject his sister wished to hear of; but the tone of the whole is that of the worldling. Besides this, there are only a few *mots* and characterizations to interest posterity. Most interesting is his account of his "failure" in his first speech, which seems to have been by no means what it has been represented. He says he gets on "easily in the highest set, where there is no envy, malice, etc., and where they like to admire and be amused," while he is "hated by the second-rate men"; and in his first Parliamentary years we find him ascribing his popularity "to the smoking-room." He evidently cultivated the art of being agreeable in the right quarters with forethought and effort, and always had his eye on the effect. There are maxims of Rochefoucauld prudence and fulness of meaning here. He was frank in describing men. Washington Irving he thought "vulgar and stupid"; Webster, he believes, "considered a very refined and *spirituel* Yankee, but seemed to me a complete Brother Jonathan—a remarkable twang"; "chattering Milnes" (Lord Houghton) kept him at a dull dinner from "the consolation of a silent stuff";

Gladstone (in 1845) "may have an *avenir*, but I hardly think it"; "a Guizot or a Thiers, a professor and a *rédacteur*"; and again, "that rascal Thiers, a thorough representative of the *gaminerie* of Paris"; and so on. Very characteristic is this on the French aristocracy: "What names, but where are their territories? There are only one hundred men in France who have 10,000*l.* per annum. Henry Hope and De Rothschild could buy them all!" His family attachment seems the only part of his nature not touched with the calculating spirit.

Three Americans and Three Englishmen: Lectures read before the students of Trinity College, Hartford. By Charles F. Johnson, A.M. Thomas Whittaker. 1886.

Prof. Johnson's book is a characteristic product of American literary culture. It exhibits wide and intelligent reading, a frank indebtedness to others, a modest deference to established critical authority, a tendency to philosophy, an admirable working style, shrewdness, incisiveness, and definiteness of thought; and within its department is altogether creditable. We say this with no idea that any one will expect to find in these college lectures on Coleridge, Wordsworth, and Shelley, Hawthorne, Emerson, and Longfellow, anything startlingly novel in the way of criticism, and in spite of the fact that more than one paragraph is merely traditional, narrow, not to be justified—as, for example, the denial of the sense of moral responsibility to Shelley against which so slight a fragment as his four lines on "Consequence" is final evidence. But the general tone and level of the work are signs of a mind cultivated in the best sense. One very striking feature of the whole, for it would be superfluous to speak of such essays individually, is the lament over the present decadence, as it seems, of literature into something which may be art but surely is not wisdom, and the incessant praise of the idealistic temper and imaginative sight which made the dying age as memorable as the Elizabethan, saving only Shakspere's name. It is something that the youth who hear such teaching as this may thank heaven for, to have one over them who is so sure of the exceeding worth of the spiritual interpretation of life, and can read it to them from such masters of it as five at least of these six men were. Prof. Johnson's words go home with an edge, too, and are not lost in any mere cloud of ethereal eulogy; they are of the kind that educate, both by their enlightening power when used for praise, and their discriminating power when employed for censure—just such work, we should say, as college boys need, but perhaps too closely adapted to that audience to have their full effect in the world.

History of Ireland for Schools. By William F. Collier, LL. D. Marcus Ward & Co.

Apart from intrinsic merit, this work deserves notice as the first 'History of Ireland,' so far as we know, recognized by any British governmental department for study in Irish schools. It has lately been placed upon the list of books for the use of children who are annually examined before the Intermediate Education Board. Even to this day no Irish history is taught in the national schools and very little in private (especially Protestant) academies. We heard an Irish boarding-school lad remark, on first seeing a copy of this book, "I didn't know there was any history of Ireland." We have here clear type and arrangement and plenty of wood-cut sketches of things and places, antiquities, dress, weapons, portraits, besides a colored map of Ireland. There could scarcely be a better companion to a traveller's hand-book. Upon the whole it is more suited for advanced than junior pupils. There is much in it that will perhaps be new even to many who consider they have a fair knowledge of the subject, or that will revive their recollections. Written for common use in a country where there is as yet no common national life, it is necessarily guarded and unemotional. There is every effort to be fair. That test period of the real opinions of an Irish historian—1641—is moderately treated. But upon the whole the Nationalists have more reason to complain than their opponents. The inspiring spirit of Swift's later writings regarding Ireland—protest against the subjection to England—is hardly even referred to, and more justice might be done to the aims and intentions of the United Irishmen and Young Irelanders.

This book must appear to children dry and depressing compared with the histories of successful countries. Irish history is made interesting and inspiring only when vivified by the lives and characters and intentions of the constant succession of men who, on behalf of Ireland, have exhibited devoted and unflinching self-sacrifice. That would be difficult in such a work as the present. The introduction in the early part of the book of the original names of persons and places in the Irish character is not suited to the readers for whom the book is primarily intended, although perhaps it may pique curiosity regarding the ancient language. The use of this history in Irish schools will doubtless have the effect of increasing the interest of numbers of the youth of Ireland in their own country, and of arousing a spirit of inquiry which can be satisfied only by reference to other sources of information, probably of a less passionless and more suggestive and inspiring character.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Deering, F. P. The Codes and Statutes of California, as Amended and in Force at the Close of the 26th Session of the Legislature, 1885. Vol. 4. Penal Code. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co. $7.50.
De Graff, E V. The School-room Chorus: A Collection of 200 Songs for Public and Private Schools. 70th ed. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 35 cents.
Devas, C. S. Studies in Family Life: A Contribution to Social Science. Burns & Oates.
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Directory of the Charitable and Beneficent Organizations in Boston. Cupples, Upham & Co.
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Johnson, Prof. E. E. Life After Death, and Other Sermons. 2d ed. Hartford: Brown & Gross.
Lamb, Charles. Mrs. Leicester's School, and Other Writings in Prose and Verse. With Introduction by Alfred Ainger. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 18, 1886.

The Week.

THE Senate, in executive session on Thursday, agreed to confirm the nomination of Richard S. Dement as Surveyor-General of Utah, in place of General Salomon, suspended. We are told by the reports that there was a contest over the appointment, lasting for several hours, but that the friends of the Administration finally won. As there is a Republican majority in the Senate, this must mean that enough Republicans voted with the Democrats to secure a majority, and we infer that this number of Republicans was made up of Senators who have friends in office whom they do not wish to see disturbed. There was no other reason for voting in favor of Dement. He is an Illinois tailor, from Commissioner Sparks's district, who has no fitness whatever for the position. He had probably never seen a surveyor's instrument in his life when he was appointed. The man whom he superseded was a brother of ex-Governor Salomon and a general in the Union army. No cause was ever given him for his suspension, and none could be, as he had performed his duties honorably and well. Here was an opportunity for the Senate to make a double point on the Administration, by rejecting a bad appointment and expressing its disapproval of the removal of a worthy official. But though the nomination had been reported unfavorably from Committee, and although all the Democratic members of that Committee who were present voted to reject it, the Senate confirmed it. As its confirmation was given in secret, nobody can be held responsible for it There could be no better illustration than this of the evil influence of the secret session. It is and always has been a shield for unworthy nominees and for unworthy Senators who help them into office.

Senator Gorman, of Maryland, is now trying to capture the offices of United States District Attorney and Marshal for two of his tools, and led all the Gorman members of the State's delegation in Congress to the White House the other day, to back up his demand for the appointment of two professional Democratic politicians, named Talbott and Fenton. We are glad to observe, from a report of the interview in a Democratic paper of Baltimore, that the President gave the patronage-mongers little encouragement. Mr. Cleveland is quoted as saying that he would like to appoint as Marshal Colonel Franklin, brother of General Franklin, and himself a gallant soldier, not only because he had been recommended by the late General Hancock, but because he was in every respect qualified for the position; and that he was greatly embarrassed by the recommendations of the Maryland Congressmen in these particular cases because he had received protests against the appointment of Messrs. Fenton and Talbott, not only from their political opponents, but from gentlemen of high standing in Maryland who were known to be of the same party as the gentlemen present. The President would have been justified in treating the Gorman delegation with even less than this scanty consideration. After his experience with Higgins, Thomas, and Rasin, the simple fact that Mr. Gorman recommends a man should be sufficient reason with Mr. Cleveland for peremptorily refusing even to consider his candidacy.

The action of the House Committee on Education on Friday, in voting to postpone consideration of the Blair bill until the middle of April, justifies that confidence in its rejection by the lower branch which led so many cowardly members of the upper branch publicly to vote for a bill which they privately condemned, in order to "keep their records straight." Every week's discussion weakens the measure in public estimation, and another month's riddling of the project by the press will leave it few defenders.

The keen scrutiny to which the Blair bill is now being subjected by the press is clearly exposing its many vicious principles. As finally passed by the Senate it is proposed that the educational subsidies shall be distributed among the States upon the basis of their illiteracy, as shown by the census of 1880, until the census of 1890 is taken, when a new distribution shall be made. The Cleveland *Leader* points out the inevitable influence of this provision to lessen rather than increase the disposition of the Southern people to improve their schools during the next four years, since "it will be to the interest of every State to make a bad showing of illiteracy in 1890," so as to get the biggest possible share of the appropriations during the following years.

Mr. Reagan, of Texas, has been a good many years at work regulating inter-State commerce by law, and has succeeded once at least in getting the House of Representatives to agree with him. He has introduced his bill again this session and has got his committee at work upon it, and will probably pass it in some shape. It provides against all the evils of railroad management except that of total stoppage of inter-State commerce. This happens to be the condition of things in a large share of the section of country of which Mr. Reagan is a distinguished representative and political leader. We therefore commend to him and his committee the existing state of affairs in Texas, Arkansas, and Missouri as a topic for early consideration. In order to regulate inter-State commerce it is necessary to have some. We can conceive of the Southwestern blockade operating all over the country. We can imagine a case where all discriminations and irregularities in freight charges would be obliterated in a sudden stoppage of intercommunication like that which took place in 1877 in the chief trunk lines of the country. The existing blockade on the South western roads may be raised within a short time, or it may become more stringent and unbearable. It may be raised peacefully or otherwise. However much we may hope for orderly conduct on the part of the strikers, the experience of 1877 justifies very grave apprehensions when the Missouri Pacific officers attempt to start their trains with new hands.

If Congress has the power to regulate commerce among the several States, it must possess the power to keep it going in so far as unlawful obstacles are thrown in its way. Of course men cannot be compelled to work on terms disagreeable to them, or to work at all if they prefer not to. But when any car-load of freight has been started on its journey from one State to another and its passage is resisted by violence, the power to assist and force it through to its destination undoubtedly resides in the national Government, having been put there in express terms by the Constitution. When Mr. Jefferson Davis and his confederates sought to establish an obstruction to commerce on the Mississippi River at the Tennessee border, the power of the Government was invoked to clear it away. The first tentative efforts of the Government to deal with the rebellion were based upon commercial and fiscal regulations and considerations. The great speech of Senator Douglas, at Springfield, Illinois, which aroused and confirmed the loyalty of his party of the Northwest, was grounded upon the commercial rights of the people of that section of the Union, whose pathway to the sea was disputed by forces "bearing new and odious banners" unknown to the law and Constitution of the United States.

The proposition or offer of Mr. T. V. Powderly, Master Workman of the Knights of Labor, to go to Texas to arbitrate the differences between the receiver of the Texas Pacific Railroad and the Knights, was inspired by good motives, and is so far entitled to commendation. But it was grounded upon the misconception of supposing that there was something to arbitrate. The truth is, that all the powers of arbitration were assumed by the Circuit Court of the United States when the road became bankrupt. This is no fanciful statement of the case. The facts perfectly support the theory upon which Receiver Brown's reply was based. The Texas Pacific Road is for all present purposes a cadaver; the Knights of Labor have struck against a corpse. Undertaker Brown is under no compulsion to pay dividends, interest, running expenses, wages, or anything else. The Government of the United States is, however, under obligation to protect the property, and to arrest and punish all persons who unlawfully molest it. The situation into which the Knights might have brought a more flourishing property—that is, ruin—was the situation in which they began the fight. It is quite true, therefore, as Receiver Brown says, that there is no question to arbitrate. The Texas Pacific had been boycotted to death financially, judicially, and every other way before the Knights tried their hand on it. The more extensive boycott of the Missouri Pacific system is beginning to tell on "organized labor" in other trades, through the closing of manufacturing

establishments for want of raw material. This is the only cure for boycotting. It is desirable by all means to let it run its course, and prove its results by experiment on the largest scale. If every employer in the United States were under a boycott, every employee would also be under boycott. The sooner this ideal system of industry is reached, the sooner will the country be physicked of this terrible malady.

It is difficult to form any correct estimate of the actual extent of the present labor disturbances from the mass of despatches in the daily press, and *Bradstreet's* has done the public a service in collecting and summarizing the facts in the matter from all parts of the country. It finds that there are no serious troubles anywhere in the South, east of the Mississippi, or in the Northwest. In the bituminous coal regions of Pennsylvania, Maryland, Ohio, and elsewhere, there is a strike of unexampled proportions, involving 21,480 men; in the textile, boot and shoe, and metal industries of New England 9,960 employees have struck; in the strike on the Texas Pacific and the Gould Southwestern railways, and the allied difficulties in Texas cities, not less than 9,000 men are involved; and in the great nail strike west of the Alleghanies, about 4,000 men. As compared with a year and a quarter ago, when *Bradstreet's* made a similar review of the field, there are nearly as many boot and shoe employees on strike, more than twice as many textile workers, nearly three times as many miners, and, in all, at least 51,000 men in various branches of industry, against only 18,000 in December, 1884. At the latter date almost all the strikes were against a reduction of wages, while now they are generally for an increase of wages, often in connection with efforts to secure a recognition by employers of employees' organizations, and compliance with their demands in other matters than wages. On the other hand, fewer active boycotts are now being waged than were reported three months ago, when *Bradstreet's* made an exhaustive study of this phase of the labor question.

Railroad Commissioner Kernan's Arbitration Bill, if its provisions have been correctly reported, either goes too far or not far enough. A judgment of court ought not to be entered in any case where there is no power to enforce it. What we understand by a judgment is the last expression of the power of law. It is something which the State can and must carry into effect, whether it be against the property or the life of the individual to whom it relates. Suppose that the court enters a decree, in a certain case of dispute, that the employees are wrong and must go back to their work, and suppose that they refuse to do so. The court has no power to compel them to work. Is not this something like the present situation on the Texas Pacific Road? That road is now operated by the highest court in the United States, except the Supreme Court, and the employees have no more respect for its decrees than for those of Vice-President Hoxie in St. Louis. Nor is there any reason why they should have, so far as questions of the employment and discharge of workmen, or the rate of wages, or the hours of labor are concerned. Again, suppose that the judgment under Mr. Kernan's bill should be adverse to the railroad, and the railroad should not be willing or able to pay the wages or do the other thing required by the judgment. How is that to be managed? There is evidently only one way, and that is for the State to seize the road and operate it under the decree of the court. This would be taking private property without just compensation, which is forbidden by the constitutions of the State and of the United States.

It may be said in reply that a decree of the Court entered in pursuance of the proposed arbitration would probably be respected by the parties to the dispute. But probabilities have no place in decrees. We never say that a man will probably be hanged, unless pardoned by the Governor, after being sentenced to death. We never say that property decreed to be sold under judgment of court will probably be sold. Courts are established to create certainties, not probabilities. All the moral force that the proposed arbitration can carry, it must derive from the arbitrators and the publicity of their proceedings, and not from the entering of the form of a decree in another tribunal. It is not a helpful step toward the solution of existing social problems to introduce an element of uncertainty into the final proceedings of the judiciary. Mr. Kernan's bill ought either to leave the courts out altogether, or arm them with powers to carry their decrees into effect in spite of all imaginable opposition.

The Constitution devolves upon the Vice-President the powers and duties of the Executive office in case of the President's "inability" to discharge them, as well as in case of his removal from office, death, or resignation. No provision, however, is made for securing the proper representation of a State in the Senate in case the Senator fails to discharge his trust, save what is found in the clause that "if vacancies happen, by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies." Since the present session of Congress opened more than three months ago, Senator Jones, of Florida, has not once been in his seat, or even in the capital, having persistently remained in a Western city. With only half her proper representation in the Senate, Florida begins to feel as though the matter must be treated seriously. The Jacksonville *Times-Union*, the leading newspaper of the State, says seriously that "if Senator Jones will neither take his seat in the Senate nor explain his absence, Governor Perry should take some steps toward securing Florida her constitutional representation in Congress." It is not quite clear what steps Governor Perry can take, as it has not been usual to regard a Senator's absence from Washington as producing a "vacancy," but we have little doubt that Senator Evarts might help him out by suggesting some feasible way of getting rid of Mr. Jones under the "general welfare" clause of the Constitution.

Absence, however, may prove the greatest service which a member of the national Legislature can render the nation. The Senate Committee on Commerce consists of thirteen members. Twelve of them are in Washington, attending to their duties at the Capitol. Six of them favor the Eads ship-railway job; the other six oppose it. Mr. Jones, of Florida, is the thirteenth man, who has the casting vote. He is supposed to favor the job, and if he were in Washington, the bill would be reported to the Senate with the recommendation that it pass. But Mr. Jones has been in Detroit for months past, and apparently means to remain there for months to come. In his seat the Florida Senator never did much for his country; by his absence, which thus blocks the Eads raid on the Treasury, he is doing a great public service which his home critics ought not to overlook.

There is everything to commend in Senator Ingalls's proposition to substitute the 30th of April for the 4th of March as the day for inaugurating Presidents. The 4th of March limit shortens the second session of each Congress so that the work is of necessity done hurriedly and carelessly, while there would be ample time for orderly proceedings if the session lasted through April. The 4th of March even in Washington is apt to be a raw and disagreeable day, which slays a host of victims to pneumonia and other diseases caused by exposure, while the 30th of April is the most cheery time of the whole year at the capital. The change would simply be a reversion to the date of the original inauguration of Washington, and there would be a sentimental fitness in celebrating the hundredth anniversary of that event in 1889, as Mr. Ingalls proposes. The suggested amendment to the Constitution ought to be adopted.

The most striking feature of the testimony taken by the telephone investigation thus far is the statement made by Rogers, junior, as to the conversation which Mr. Casey Young had with the Attorney-General concerning the bringing of a suit to cancel the Bell patent on the ground of fraud. According to young Rogers, Mr. Garland said to Casey Young that he would have Solicitor-General Goode bring the suit to cancel the patent, as it would look better for the Solicitor-General to do it than for him to do it himself. Rogers, senior, is said to have been the only witness to this statement of Casey Young. If this allegation can be sustained, the statement of Mr. Garland to Mr. Young is at variance with the declarations of the Attorney-General since the agitation of this question began. But it should not be overlooked that Rogers, senior, is a very unbalanced character, and that even he has not yet been examined or cross-examined as a witness. The testimony of Mr. Pulitzer signifies merely that he considered the contents of the Rogers album a promising sensation, which would be likely to sell a good many copies of the *World*. This is what all newspaper men understood in the beginning. Some Democratic politicians have taken the serious view that since Mr. Pulitzer is a Democratic Congressman, he must have been moved by private malice in making the publication rather than by the expected sale of newspapers

Here is what we think proper to require in case of any harm done to Americans in China. We quote from the *London and China Telegraph* of March 1:

"With reference to the outrage upon the members of the American Methodist Mission committed December 30, we learn by this mail that Mr. Smithers, the Acting United States Consul-General, having consulted the British and American Admirals, H. M. S. *Wanderer*, in the absence of an American man-of-war, was ordered to Chinkiang, and was followed by American man-of-war *Marion*. As soon as the Taoutai of Chinkiang became aware that men-of-war were going to his port he came to the conclusion that he had better punish the rioters. The ringleaders were arrested and cangued [pilloried in a heavy wooden collar] in front of the United States Consulate. Besides this they were each sentenced to receive 300 blows."

This account of the manner in which any Chinese ill-treatment of American residents in China is handled—on both sides—may be commended to the careful attention of Pacific Slope anti-Chinese agitators and legislators.

The discovery that a New York Alderman has for years been a regular receiver of stolen goods—an accomplice, in fact, of a notorious gang of thieves—appears to create a great deal of surprise in the public mind, but we do not see why it should. In 1884 and again last year the *Evening Post* published a "Voters' Directory," setting forth precisely the kind of men who were running for Aldermen. Thus it showed in November last that of the 57 candidates for Aldermen, no less than 19 were liquor-dealers and seven others had no reputable occupation. Out of the 57 there was only one of whom it could speak with commendation, and that was Mr. Van Rensselaer, who had stood almost alone against corrupt jobs in the former Board, and who occupies a similar lonesome position in the present Board. After the election we called attention to the fact that seven of the Aldermen elected were liquor-dealers, and that in the whole twenty-four members there were at most no more than three who could be counted upon to legislate in the interests of the city. The vote on the Cable Railway franchise showed this to be an accurate estimate. It is absurd to expect a Board made up of liquor-dealers and political adventurers, many of whom are professional gamblers, to act like honest men, and worse than absurd to keep such a Board in existence.

The members of the Baptist Social Union, after dinner at Delmonico's last week, discussed "The Sunday Question and the Saturday Half-Holiday." It seems odd that opinion should have been about equally divided for and against the Saturday half-holiday, considering that the Union was of one mind in favor of keeping all the museums and art galleries for ever closed on Sundays. One gentleman said: "A good deal of sympathy was wasted on the men who worked with their hands eight or ten hours a day. The proper subjects for sympathy were the professional men, who labored ten, twelve, and fourteen hours a day with their brains." There is much truth in this statement, but its bearing on the question of opening the museums, etc., on Sundays is directly against the argument of the speaker. Does he class professional men among those who cannot profit by museums of art or natural history? and, if not, how does he fancy that men who work from ten to fourteen hours a day are to make any use of places which are closed on evenings and Sundays? The reasoning is all the other way. It is a truth that a great many professional men in New York have never even entered, and under present regulations never can enter, public institutions in the use of which they are by education and disposition peculiarly fitted to gain not only intellectual pleasure, but also knowledge which in many cases would be of direct assistance in their daily work.

The loss of the great steamship *Oregon*, in sight of land, admonishes us that notwithstanding the great strides made in naval architecture and in the art of navigation in the last fifty years, we are very far from the line of safety in case a steamer is struck amidships by any floating thing having sufficient momentum to knock a hole in her side below the water line. Here, it seems, water-tight compartments are not effectual to prevent sinking, although they may delay it sufficiently, as in the case of the *Oregon*, to insure the transfer of passengers and crew to other vessels if there are any within reach. It was most fortunate, if there was to be a collision of this kind, that it occurred near the entrance to a great port, the converging point of hundreds of craft of all kinds, where any steamer which could keep afloat eight hours was almost certain of finding help. The immunity of the Cunard Line in this instance was due to good luck. The company can still boast that they have never lost a passenger on their transatlantic route, although they did, not long ago, meet with an accident on their Mediterranean line, which was attended with some loss of life to passengers as well as crew. The Cunard Company has had a wonderful career, and one which the *Oregon's* loss will but slightly mar, although no one can read the story of this disaster without a shiver.

Mark Twain's rôle of iconoclast is familiar to everybody. In his performance of it as a writer he has broken up many images long revered or sacred, has brushed the bloom of romance from many cherished pictures, and destroyed many illusions. But in his later capacity of publisher, bringing the Pope of Rome into the American "subscription book" field, he has outdone all such performances of authorship. The figure of the Sovereign Pontiff and Vicar of Christ submitting his biography to Mark Twain's publishing house "as a commercial enterprise" surpasses the most audacious travesty of Mark Twain's books. As a stroke of "business" it is probably supreme in its way. The effect of it on the popular idea of the Holy Father will perhaps be unfortunate. Until now this latest addition to the list of Royal and Noble Authors, in his secluded and withdrawn state, could fairly be allowed on all hands to be the most impressive figure in Christendom; but the centre of infallibility "booming" the subscription book market with a life of himself "published in every style," including "elaborately bound and illustrated copies," though it make the unskilful laugh, cannot but make the judicious grieve.

The colonial fever is strong in Germany just now; and one result of it has been a flood of pamphlets and magazine articles on colonies. One of the most interesting contributions to the discussion, especially to us of the United States, is an article in the last number of the *Jahrbuch für Gesetzgebung*, in which Mr. C. Herzog discusses emigration from Germany to this country. Some of the facts which he brings out are very curious and striking. Thus he shows that the proportion of women and children to the total number of emigrants is distinctly larger among Germans than among emigrants from other countries. Of course, the proportion among emigrants of men in the prime of life is always greater than it is in population at large, but the discrepancy is least among the German emigrants. In the years 1879-83 there were 612 males and 388 females for every 1,000 emigrants from Europe to this country; but for every 1,000 German emigrants there were but 596 males, and as many as 404 females. And similarly the number of children (under fifteen) was, among emigrants from Europe in general, 230 for every 1,000; but among German emigrants it was 272 for every 1,000. The proportion of people in the vigor of life, between the ages of fifteen and forty, was 669 out of 1,000 among European emigrants; among German emigrants it was only 622 out of 1,000. All of which means that German emigration is more distinctly an emigration by families, a steady stream from the general mass of the population, while from other European countries there is more emigration of individual roving spirits. It is very curious, too, that within Germany emigration is much larger from those provinces where the land is cultivated in large farms and estates than it is in the provinces where peasant proprietorship is the rule.

The figures show that as yet the German emigrants make for the United States as much as ever, if not more than ever. A recent statement showed that in the years 1871-84 about 95½ per cent. of all emigrants from Germany went to the United States. For the earlier part of this period, the ten years 1871-80, the proportion had been only 93½ per cent.; so that in recent years there must have been an increased proportion going to this country. And the figures for individual years, so far as we have them, bring this out very clearly. In 1881, nearly 98 per cent. went to the United States; in 1882, about 97½ per cent.; in 1883, over 96 per cent. The truth is, that although the Germans have a strong sentimental attachment to their country, they cannot and will not sacrifice their individual welfare to the advancement of its prosperity and power. This country offers them a settled civilization, security of life and property, an improvement in material welfare; in face of these advantages they will not go to the Balkans or to Buenos Ayres for the sake of possibly retaining a closer connection with their native country. The attraction of free and democratic institutions may not be as strong now as it was twenty or thirty years ago, and yet it counts for a good deal. It certainly counts for a good deal as against one feature of German government, compulsory military service, which is undoubtedly the strongest direct cause of emigration.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 10, to TUESDAY, March 16, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND has vetoed the bill to quiet the titles of settlers on the Des Moines River lands in Iowa. He says: "I cannot but think that every possible question that can be raised, or at least that ought to be raised, in any suit relating to these lands, has been determined by the highest judicial authority in the land. And if any substantial point remains yet unsettled, I believe there is no difficulty in presenting it to the proper tribunal."

President Cleveland on Tuesday sent in the name of Mr. Trenholm, of South Carolina, one of the present Civil-Service Commissioners, to be Comptroller of the Currency in place of Mr. Cannon, resigned; that of Mr. John H. Oberly, of Illinois, now Superintendent of Indian Schools, to be the Democratic Civil-Service Commissioner in place of Mr. Trenholm; and that of Mr. Charles Lyman, who has been the Chief Examiner of the Civil Service Commission since its inauguration, to succeed Mr. Dorman B. Eaton, term expired. Neither Mr. Oberly nor Mr. Lyman knew he was going to be appointed, neither of them had made application for the office, and neither had any papers on file in his behalf. Friends of the President say that both the new Civil-Service Commissioners are his own selections. Mr. Oberly has long been a journalist, and has had experience in executive office. He was Chairman of the Democratic State Committee of Illinois in the Presidential campaign. Mr. Lyman has been identified with the cause of civil-service reform since the first Commission appointed by General Grant, and is an enthusiast on the subject, as well as a very practical man.

Senator Eustis, according to an authorized statement, in his recent conferences urged the President to withdraw the nomination of all unconfirmed appointees against whom adverse criticisms have been justly made. "The record," said Senator Eustis, "can be forestalled. The names of appointees as to whose fitness there is any doubt can be withdrawn. Every man whose presence in the Government is a source of criticism and suspicion can be eliminated. From the highest to the lowest, I would lop off every branch that threatened the health and vitality of the Democracy."

Senator Pugh replied to Senator Edmunds in the Senate on Wednesday. At the start he pointed out the important fact that the nomination of Burnett to succeed Duskin had lain in the Judiciary Committee for a month after it was received; in the meantime, on December 20, Duskin's term of office expired. One month later, when Duskin was no longer an incumbent of the office, the resolution calling for the papers in his case was passed. The fact that Duskin's term had expired was news to most of those who heard it. Mr. Pugh also read a letter, signed by Mr. Thurman, which was read by Mr. Edmunds as an important precedent, calling for papers bearing on the removal of Judge Shaffer of the Territory of Utah, and said that in the provision conferring the power of removal on the President there was an express exception of judges of the United States; these could be removed only by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. The question was whether Territorial judges were embraced in that language. The Senator from Vermont knew that that question was an open one before the Committee of which he is Chairman.

In his argument on the President's refusal of papers to the Senate, Mr. Kenna (Dem., W. Va.) cited the confirmation of R. S. Dement to be Surveyor-General of Utah, by the aid of Republican votes and in the face of an adverse report by the Public Lands Committee, as a proof of the insincerity of the Republican profession of a desire to guard the interests of the service. The vote is said to have stood twenty-five for confirmation and twenty-two against. Of the majority seven Republicans are reported as voting for Dement, viz.: Stanford of California, Manderson of Nebraska, Sewell of New Jersey, Mitchell of Oregon, Logan of Illinois, Hoar of Massachusetts, and McMillan of Minnesota. Colonel Morrison says of Dement: "He is totally unfit for the duties of the office. I supposed, of course, that the Democratic Senators knew the services that he rendered General Logan in his recent contest for the United States Senate. I regard the confirmation of Dement as a reward for his treachery to me at Springfield."

The United States Senate on Tuesday passed the House bill increasing the pensions of soldiers' widows and dependent relatives from $8 to $12 per month. The bill now goes to the President.

An adverse report upon the Bennett bill to repeal the Civil-Service Law was made on Wednesday to the House. Mr. Stone (Dem., Mo.) will make a minority report. The opponents of that measure are, however, confident of a favorable report on the bill to repeal the law which was recently referred to the Committee on the Revision of the Laws.

The minority report of Mr. Rice, of Massachusetts, from the Committee on Foreign Affairs, against the Morrow Anti-Chinese Bill, which was presented to the House on Thursday morning, makes these points: That the bill is unconstitutional; that the provisions relating to the limitation of certificates and the twenty years' limitation are in violation of treaty; that the original restrictive act was in violation of the treaty, but that, inasmuch as it is working advantageously, there is no present necessity for a change; that statistics show that there are now 30,000 less Chinese in the country than there were when the restrictive act was passed, and that that act has six years more to run; that Chinese immigration is decreasing in volume; that there is no reason for the passage of an act which could only have the effect still further to irritate the Chinese Government, and that it is a wiser policy to let well enough alone; that there will be time enough to pass another bill, if it shall be deemed necessary, when the present act shall terminate; that, in the meantime, everything that is necessary to do can be accomplished by amicable arrangement with the Chinese Government.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs on Tuesday, by a vote of seven to six, postponed the consideration of the Morrow Chinese Bill, and will instead take up the President's message recommending the payment of indemnity to China for outrages perpetrated on Chinese subjects in this country. The Chairman (Mr. Belmont), who cast the deciding vote, declared himself opposed to the Morrow bill on the ground of its being a violation of treaty obligations.

The House Committee on Education on Friday morning voted to postpone the consideration of the Blair Educational Bill to the third Friday in April. This action is regarded as unfavorable to the bill. It will probably be smothered in Committee

The House Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads gave a hearing on Friday to a number of people who appeared to advocate the passage of the measures which have been introduced providing for the establishment of postal savings banks. Speeches were made by Assistant-Secretary Fairchild, President Gilman, Walter Howe, E. L. Godkin, and others.

The House Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads has decided to report adversely the bill to double the rate of postage on fourth-class matter or merchandise.

Mr. J. Harris Rogers testified before the committee investigating the Pan-Electric scandal in Washington on Friday. One of the most significant points brought out was that which related to bringing the Government suit last summer. Some time in the summer—probably in July—Casey Young came to his house and informed him and his father that a suit would be brought by the Government to annul the Bell patent. The witness said, "My father asked him if Garland had promised, and he replied, 'Yes, he has promised.' 'Then if he has promised he will do,' my father said. Colonel Young said that the Attorney-General felt some delicacy about ordering the suit himself, and that he would leave it with Mr. Goode or turn it over to Mr. Goode. My father then asked if Goode was all right, and Colonel Young replied in substance that Goode was our friend, and that he did not know but he would rather have Goode than Garland to attend to the matter."

In the New York Senate on Wednesday a high license bill was introduced fixing the liquor tax as follows: "In cities of over 500,000 inhabitants, hotels, bars, saloons, and restaurants, first class, $500 per annum; second class, $300; third class, $150. Where wines alone are sold, the taxes shall be respectively $150, $75, and $60. In cities of between 100,000 and 500,000 inhabitants the taxes shall be $300, $200, and $100, and for wine alone $100, $50, and $40. In cities of between 10,000 and 100,000 the taxes shall be $150, $100, and $75, and for only beer $30. For all other places the tax shall be $100 for beer, malt liquors, and wine, and $20 for malt liquors. The taxes shall be paid to the county treasurers and the Comptroller of New York city. No further license tax shall be required. The taxes shall be paid into the State to meet the interest on the debt, prison maintenance, and general State expenses. The act does not apply to shops where liquor is sold in sealed bottles not opened on the premises."

Governor Hill, of New York, on Wednesday nominated Dr. Charles Phelps for Health Officer of the Port of New York; for Quarantine Commissioners, Dr. John H. Douglas, Marshall B. Blake, and Charles S. Higgins.

A sensation was created in the Broadway Railway investigation in this city, on Friday, by an affidavit showing that Alderman Jaehne had been accused of receiving stolen goods and had paid $1,100 to settle the matter.

About $1,207,000 was realized by the sale of the late Mrs. Mary Jane Morgan's collection of paintings, etchings, engravings, books, and art objects.

The Missouri Pacific Road was able to move a freight train on Friday from St. Louis only by letting police officers act as engineer and fireman, the persons employed regularly in those positions refusing to act. All efforts to compromise the strike have so far failed.

The steamship *Oregon*, of the Cunard Line, from Liverpool, while about fifteen miles off the American shore near Fire Island, at 4:30 o'clock Sunday morning, was run into by an unknown schooner, which struck the steamship on the port side. A large rent was made in the *Oregon's* side, through which the water poured rapidly. The 896 persons on board were transferred in three hours to a schooner and pilot-boat and afterward to the steamer *Fulda*, which brought them to this city. The *Oregon* sank at 1 P. M. She was one of the finest steamers afloat and cost $1,250,000. Only 138 out of 598 sacks of mail matter on board were saved. The cargo was valuable and large. Nothing is known of the fate of the schooner which struck the *Oregon*.

The celebrated physician, Austin Flint, M. D., of this city, died of cerebral apoplexy on Saturday afternoon, at the age of seventy-four.

Michael Hahn, the only Republican Congressman from Louisiana, died suddenly in Washington on Monday, at the age of fifty-six. He was a strong Union man during the war, and was the first Governor of the free State of Louisiana, having been elected in 1864.

Prof. Edward Tuckerman, of Amherst College, died on Monday of Bright's disease He was graduated from Union College in 1837. He was a botanist of note, and made a special study of lichens, on which subject he was recognized as an authority.

Capt. James I. Waddell, who commanded the famous Confederate cruiser *Shenandoah*, died in Annapolis, Md., on Monday, aged sixty-two.

Mrs. George Bancroft, wife of the historian, died in Washington on Monday.

FOREIGN.

It is reported that Mr. Gladstone decided against Mr. Giffen's plan for buying out the landlords, on the ground that, as the Irish land is mortgaged in England to an enormous extent, such a measure would benefit chiefly the English mortgagees, and be of little help to the Irish landlords.

The London *Observer* says that Mr. Gladstone's draft of a home-rule measure, submitted to the Cabinet on Saturday, deals exclusively with expropriation, for which a colossal sum (estimated at £200,000,000) will be required. The administration of the fund is to be intrusted to an Irish local body, the constitution of which is left blank in the draft, but which the Ministers were informed would be of the character of an Irish Parliament. The *Standard* on Monday morning said: "It is supposed that Mr. Gladstone's scheme for the government of Ireland proposes the establishment of a single-chamber Parliament at Dublin, and embodies the principle of minority representation. Ireland will continue to send members to Westminster, not in proportion to her population, but in proportion to her contribution to the imperial revenue. Under this scheme there would probably be thirty Irish members of Parliament. The police are to be disarmed, and are to be under the control of the Government at Dublin. Provision is made for the use of the imperial forces when needed for the security of life and property. The Government at Dublin will not have power to impose duties on British goods, to treat with foreign Powers, to employ the revenues of the country for the endowment of any religious body, or to pass measures impairing the validity of contracts."

All the London papers except the *News* oppose Mr. Gladstone's scheme. The *Times* says: "The addition of £200,000,000 to £220,000,000 to the national debt is the estimated cost to the British taxpayer of the luxury of permitting the author of the abortive land bills of 1870 and 1881 to carry out another of his interesting experiments. An annual burden of five or six millions sterling to be borne by ourselves, and transmitted to the unborn generations who will not have the satisfaction of listening to Mr. Gladstone's lucid expositions, will perhaps appear to some among us a rather high price even for so much honor. We do not believe that the people of this country will be imposed upon by the sham, if their proper leaders and teachers have the courage and manliness to do their duty."

The *Pall Mall Gazette* professes to have authority for saying that the statements of the *Times* and *Standard* that Mr. Gladstone's Irish expropriation scheme contemplates an outlay of £200,000,000 are ridiculous, and that the sum which Mr. Gladstone calculated necessary to buy out all the present landlords of Ireland is much nearer £100,000,000 than £200,000,000.

It was reported on Monday afternoon that at the Cabinet meeting on Saturday Mr. Trevelyan, Secretary for Scotland, and formerly Chief Secretary for Ireland, and Mr. Edward Heneage, Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, both tendered their resignations. Mr. Heneage has authorized a denial of this report. The reason alleged to have been given by both gentlemen for their action was their disinclination to support the Irish policy outlined at the meeting by Mr. Gladstone.

Despite all stories to the contrary, it was authoritatively announced on Tuesday that both Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, President of the Local Government Board, and Mr. Trevelyan, had actually placed their resignations in the hands of Mr. Gladstone. The Premier had, however, declined to accept the resignations outright. His answer to the tender of them was a most conciliatory one. He suggested to both gentlemen that they should defer final decision on the resignations until after a personal discussion of the question at issue between them and him. To this both Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Trevelyan have assented. It is now known that the subject of dispute between the Prime Minister and Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Trevelyan is Mr. Gladstone's Irish expropriation scheme. The exact sum which will be required to buy out all the land-owners of the country according to the Premier's plan is £120,000,000. The proposition to increase the public debt of Great Britain that much in order to purchase peace in Ireland is asserted by the Radical leaders in the Cabinet to be asking far too much for what will be obtained. Both Mr. Trevelyan and Mr. Chamberlain were in their usual places in the House of Commons on Tuesday afternoon.

Mr. Gladstone's scheme was elaborated with the assistance of Earl Spencer, Mr. Morley, and Sir Robert Hamilton, the permanent Under Secretary at Dublin Castle. It provides for compensation for the vested interests in Irish tenanted land in case the possessors of those interests desire to abandon their property on the establishment of a statutory Parliament in Dublin. Wherever a landlord accepts a State commutation of his interest a land tax is to be substituted for rent. The new Irish Government will depend chiefly upon this tax for its revenues.

Messrs. Chamberlain and Healy flatly deny the intrigues attributed to them by a provincial paper for the overthrow of Messrs. Gladstone and Parnell.

Mr. Joseph Cowen, M.P. for Newcastle, and the colleague of Mr. John Morley, writes to his newspaper: "It is said that Mr. Gladstone has changed his mind about an early dissolution. If the Lords reject one or other of the Irish bills, he will hold an autumn session and pass it a second time in the Commons, as was done with the Franchise and Redistribution Bills. If the Peers should throw out the measure a second time, it will be passed by the Commons a third time, and, if again rejected, dissolution will follow in the spring next year. The Prime Minister believes that the people want to be educated about home rule, and that a discussion in Parliament will have the effect of enlightening them." Mr. Cowen's relations with Mr. Gladstone add special significance to this statement.

Lord Charles Beresford (Conservative) moved in the House of Commons on Monday that in view of the large number of workingmen out of employment and the cheapness of labor, the present time is opportune to suspend the sinking fund in order to place the navy in a state of efficiency. The motion was defeated by a vote of 206 to 98.

Mr. Henry Labouchere, Radical, during Thursday's debate in the House of Commons on the Government's civil-service estimates, moved to reduce the grant for the maintenance of parks belonging to or used exclusively by royalty or members of the royal family. The motion was carried against the Government by a vote of 131 to 114. Parnellites and Radicals made the majority.

Mr. Parnell publicly urges members of the Nationalist party in Ulster to refrain from celebrating St. Patrick's Day by demonstrations, such as parades, likely to anger the Orangemen. In his circular advising this course the Irish leader says: "Do not irritate the Orangemen, however misguided you may deem them; this is of vital importance now."

The distress among the inhabitants along the western Irish coast is said to be terrible. Gunboats have been placed at the service of the Relief Agent.

Lord Rosebery, British Foreign Secretary, has advised a reduction of the army of occupation in Egypt by six regiments, the withdrawal of the British troops from Assuan and the Egyptian troops from Wady Halfa. In a skirmish near Suakim on Sunday between the British and the rebels, thirty of the latter were killed.

Before Mr. Justice Stephen, in London, on Thursday, a wealthy Tory farmer was prosecuted by the Government for committing felony in having voted three times at three different places in one Parliamentary borough. He had three qualifications. Had these been in different boroughs, the Government admitted his right, but opposed his right to vote three times for one candidate. The defence admitted the voting, but claimed entire absence of guilty intention. The jury found the prisoner guilty, but with no guilty intent whatever. Mr. Justice Stephen entirely agreed with the verdict, but said that the law must be upheld, and the prisoner had done what the law decided was felony. The Court had no option in passing sentence but to inflict imprisonment with hard labor. He did not wish to pass any such sentence, and the only way he could avoid it was by ordering the prisoner to enter into his own recognizances and come up and receive judgment when called upon. Probably, unless he offended again, he would never hear any more about it. The prisoner was then bound over and discharged.

Richard Belt, the London sculptor, was on Monday found guilty of a misdemeanor in having obtained money of Sir William Abdy by false pretences, and was sentenced to a year's imprisonment at hard labor.

Sir Charles Warren has been appointed Commissioner of the Metropolitan Police of London.

The Earl of Chichester is dead at the age of eighty-one. He was Lord-Lieutenant of Sussex, and took an active part in the management of many leading religious and charitable societies of the Church of England.

Viscount Dupplin, heir of the Earl of Kinnoull, died at Monte Carlo on Wednesday.

The French Government has decided to issue a loan of 1,000,000,000 francs to consolidate the 618,000,000 of six-year bonds now outstanding, and to redeem the floating debt.

The Bank of France has given 40,000 francs for the proposed Pasteur Institute. Baron Rothschild has given a like sum, and the Institute of France has given 30,000 francs.

Louise Michel announces that she will make a lecture tour in America.

Austria has decided to prohibit the teaching of Old Catholicism in any public school in the empire.

The Austrian Minister of War has issued instructions to all the commanders of corps in the Austro-Hungarian army to order the enforcement of the study of German among all the troops. The Count complains that the use of local dialects among the soldiers has greatly increased of late. The Czechs, meanwhile, are steadfast in adhering to their own language. It is also asserted that a movement has been organized in Russia to convert to the Greek Church the Catholic Czechs in the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

The Committee of the Reichstag to which was referred Prince Bismarck's Spirit Monopoly Bill, on Friday rejected the first two clauses of the measure. As these clauses contain the essence of the bill, the action of the Committee virtually defeats the measure.

The conference of representatives of the Powers which met at Constantinople to consider the Turco-Bulgarian treaty (which, among other things, creates Prince Alexander, of Bulgaria, ruler of Eastern Rumelia) has accepted the treaty in its entirety.

Twelve thousand Burmese rebels are reported about to march on Mandalay.

COMPULSORY HIRING.

THERE are various plans on foot, some in the Legislature and some outside, for the settlement of disputes between workingmen and their employers by means of arbitration. But no scheme of this kind, however carefully considered, can be successful unless it is based on a clear understanding of what the rights of the parties who submit to arbitration are. That is to say, there can be no sound, lasting, and healthy settlement of the labor question which is not preceded by a plain definition of the position of the parties whom it affects. Thus far nothing of the kind seems to have been reached. Apparently a very large body of the workingmen all over the country seem to be possessed with the idea that they have a right to be hired by any employer whom they select for that purpose, at a rate of wages to be fixed by themselves or by the trades unions to which they belong. It may be said that this is an exaggeration—that all that the trades unions claim, at most, is the right of men to continue in the service of men who have already employed them. But this is a distinction without a difference. In the field of morals a right to be employed by any man you please flows logically from the right to be employed by a particular man who does not want your services. The right, if it exists, runs with the laborer. If A has a right to insist that B shall give him work at $2 a day heaving coal when B does not want him to heave coal for him on any terms whatever, A has a right also to impose himself on C, D, or E as a coal heaver.

In most of the strikes which occur nowadays this point is clearly brought out. The laborers of the Steam Heating Company, for instance, call on the company to make certain changes in its mode of doing business, as a condition of their continuing to work for it. The company refuses, and the laborers consequently leave its service. All is right thus far. Each side has exercised its liberty as a citizen. But the laborers do not go away and let the Steam Heating Company alone. They surround its premises in an angry way, as if the company were in possession of something which belonged to them, and they threaten those whom it takes in their places with serious bodily harm. They insist that they have a right to continue in the company's employment for an indefinite period, on terms fixed by themselves and without regard to their behavior. They do not concede to the company any right whatever of withdrawing from the relation or dispensing with their services, nor will they allow it to mention any fixed term of office for them. They are so sure of the justice of this arrangement, too, that they propose to assault anybody that interferes with it, and to damage the property of anybody who deals with the company and refuses to be a party to the quarrel.

Now, arbitration on a basis of this sort is impossible. It cannot succeed in any organized shape unless it is avowedly conducted between free agents—that is, unless the parties to it have perfectly equal rights: unless the Knights of Labor, for instance, openly acknowledge, and agree to live up to the acknowledgment, that the employer has the same right to dismiss that the employee has to leave, and that the laborer has no more right to hit or kick the capitalist, or damage his property for not giving him work, than the capitalist has to hit or kick the laborer for refusing to stay in his service. We trust, too, that employers of labor throughout the country, and all intelligent and peaceable men of every calling, whether employers of labor or not, will insist now on the abandonment of the monstrous theory, which the Knights of Labor are either putting forward or sanctioning, that one man has a right to be hired by another man whether the other man wants him or not. This sounds when one sees it in a paper so absurd as to be laughable; but such doctrine is not laughable when held by great bodies of the citizens of what is supposed to be a free country: it is dangerous. It merits the prompt and unfaltering resistance of every lover of his country and his kind. Nothing much more monstrous and oppressive was ever concocted in the Middle Ages to bolster up the power of feudal lords. All this "boycotting" which is going on in support of it is simply a disguised form of robbery, and should be met and stigmatized as such. Working by all sorts of methods to injure a man's business, or, in other words, to damage his property because he will not hire you, is no more moral or respectable than going to his safe and taking some of his money, and it is a pity and a shame that it is not as punishable and as easily punished. Everybody, no matter what his place or calling, who encourages it, or even submits to it, or connives at it in the case of his neighbors, is an accessory to a most odious offence against society and against his fellow-man. The moral law has not changed since the Knights of Labor were organized any more than the law of the land, and no change in the law of the land which does not take the moral law into account can possibly work anything but confusion.

Moreover, the doctrine of compulsory hiring is capable of indefinite extension without losing any of its force. It can easily be applied to the sale of any other commodity as well as labor. If I have the right to insist on another man's hiring me whether he wants me or not, and am entitled to kick and cuff him, and smash his machinery and furniture, and persuade his neighbors not to deal with him in case he refuses, why may I not do the same thing if he refuses to purchase goods of my manufacture? Why might a trades union not set up a producing co-operative shop and carry their goods round to people for sale, and hit them over the head, and break their windows, and hang round their door hissing and hooting, and threatening everybody who attempted to enter, in case of their refusal to buy? What can be said in defence or justification of the first of these performances which cannot be said in defence or justification of the second? Nothing that we know of.

The issue is a plain one. It must be met by the American people sooner or later. The present position of the Knights of Labor is an attempt to introduce terrorism and intimidation in their most odious forms into the every-day life of that community of all in the world from the success of which the workingman has most to expect. This is as good a time to meet it as will ever come.

THE TELEPHONE SUIT.

THE long delay which has attended the preparation of the bill of complaint of the Government against Bell, will surprise no one who has in mind the difficulties of the problem with which counsel have had to deal. It was quite evident that the original bill prepared by the Pan-Electric Company was never intended to come before the courts upon its merits, being gotten up merely to afford the Attorney-General an excuse for commencing suit. If the synopsis which first appeared in the Washington *Post* is, as would appear, a careful preparation by competent hands, the new bill is a much stronger document than the original one, and has avoided most of the absurdities and inconsistencies of the other. But the effect of this added strength is to bring out in a clearer light than ever the absence of all sound reason for commencing the suit.

We have no desire to anticipate in any way the final verdict of the court. When we consider how many informalities may invalidate a patent, how the extreme freedom with which our Government issues patents is set off by laws giving every possible advantage to parties contesting them, how numerous the competitors, and how great the reward of overthrowing the Bell patent, we cannot but regard the unbroken series of decisions in its favor as a marvel. It would be hazardous to claim that no loophole in the document and no invalidating circumstances in its issue could be brought to light by the searching inquiry now to be instituted. The point we wish to bring to the attention of our readers is, that the bill makes a number of statements which, if true, show that the action taken by the Gove.nment is quite unjustifiable, and the expense caused by it a flagrant waste of the public money.

For example, it is averred that Bell purposely framed his application and claim in general and ambiguous terms in order to cover both antecedent and future inventions, and to deceive and mislead the examiners of the Patent-office and the public. Now, if Bell did this, and if it was a fraud, then the fraud was practised on no other person than Bell himself. For the statutes of the United States clearly provide that if a patentee does this, any citizen of the United States may use the invention at his pleasure; and if Bell is so imprudent as to bring suit against him on his patent, the citizen can not only secure a verdict, but make Bell pay the costs of the suit. What excuse, then, can the Government have for going into court with such a plea? The bill also states that on March 10, 1876, Bell obtained a patent for a telephone in which the transmission of speech was obtained by a liquid transmitter or water telephone described in Gray's caveat, which had been filed three weeks before. Now, Gray's caveat has been before the courts and the public for many years, as well as Bell's patent. A patent by Bell for anything contained in Gray's caveat is not worth the paper it is printed upon. What possible excuse, then, has the Government for going to such expense in annulling the patent? The proceedings are very much as if the Government should be asked to expend several thousand dollars in erecting machinery to re-

move an objectionable building, on the motion of parties who averred that the building was only a fog-bank which would be carried away by the first breeze.

Our readers will be interested in knowing what the complainant now says about the state of Bell's knowledge of telephonic transmission during the critical period under consideration. We have alluded to the claim of the Pan-Electric Company, that Bell well knew his apparatus to be a speaking telephone, but cunningly and wrongfully withheld that knowledge from the examiner of the Patent-office. We have also discussed the claim of another party that he did not discover his apparatus to be a speaking telephone until some time later. On this critical point we find that the Government counsel sweep away both hypotheses by claiming that the apparatus was not a telephone at all, and "lacked in description or drawings any machine then, or at any time, capable of transmitting speech." Here again we find a remarkable silence on the burning question why the Government should spend money in invalidating a patent for such a cumbrous and worthless piece of apparatus. It is curious to see the same fallacy coming in from beginning to end of the paper. It again calls the attention of the court to what has been considered the great fact justifying the suit, namely, that only the Government and not a private citizen can bring suit to repeal a patent. It ignores in the most extraordinary way the fact that the laws make ample provision against any necessity for such repeal, by legislation which protects every person against a suit for infringing a patent which there is any grounds for repealing.

We have looked in vain through the document for any allusion to the supposed fraudulent alteration of Bell's application by the addition of new matter. As this fraudulent proceeding is one which the Patent-office and its clients have been engaged in every week of its existence, we apprehend that the proper formulation of the complaint in this case must have caused some embarrassment to counsel, and that the matter was dropped in consequence.

THE NAVAL OBSERVATORY.

With the publication of each new document on the subject, it becomes more and more apparent that the reasons advanced in favor of the removal of the Naval Observatory are balanced by evidence that an improved organization is more urgent than a removal. It therefore provokes no small degree of surprise that the advocates of its removal continue to press the matter. To expect Congress to make bounteous provision for the purpose on such a showing is, to say the least, somewhat vain.

Executive Document 67, embodying a letter from the Secretary of the Navy to the President of the Senate, forms a new contribution to the literature of a subject already threadbare, and one in which many of the leading men of science of the country long ago lost all interest. Fourteen pages of this document are occupied with the report of a committee of seven members of the National Academy of Sciences, a minority of whom are practical astronomers; but the Committee unanimously concur in the conclusion (1) that it is advisable to proceed promptly with the erection of a new observatory upon the site purchased in 1880 for this purpose; (2) that it should be under civilian administration, and called the National Observatory of the United States, (3) that all except three of the instruments of the present Naval Observatory, together with a good part of its library, should be transferred to the Naval Academy, Annapolis, with such members of the staff as may be required to operate them, while what is left (library, instruments, and officers) is to become the nucleus of a new national observatory to be built in Georgetown or West Washington.

Leaving out of consideration here, what is probably true, that the proposed site possesses only meagre advantages over the present one, it is to be noted that the present Observatory buildings are somewhat dilapidated and unsuitable for observatory use; that they are located in a spot which, in the opinion of many, has been notably malarious and may perhaps continue so; that the observers on night duty have no houses near their instruments, as they ought to have; and that, from the proximity of the Potomac River, fogs and vapors sometimes exercise a baleful influence upon the astronomical work. The Committee think the sanitary question the most serious one, but are compelled to state that, while their evidence is mainly drawn from documents prepared eight years ago, the matter has since assumed a different aspect, as the flats or marshes about the Observatory are now in process of being rapidly filled up; so that it is the belief of some of the medical men of Washington that, with their reclamation, the deleterious influences of which they have been the cause will cease to be exerted. As authorities on the subject are at variance, and it would at the most be a matter of only a few years when a positive conclusion might be reached, a prudent conservatism would say that it is advisable to wait and see. As for the obstruction to observation by fogs, the Committee consider it not a matter of gravity; while the dilapidated state of the building may, they say, be a reason for repairing, or, if necessary, reconstructing it, but it is not in itself a reason for a change of site.

The Committee contribute an elaborate and very just estimate of the astronomical work of the Observatory; and, in reply to the question whether its superintendent should be a line officer of the navy or a practical astronomer, they find that the views of Professor Newcomb, expressed in 1877, are so perfectly their own that they have no hesitation in adopting his letter entire. His view is, of course, that the Observatory should have a scientific head, (1) because of the generally recognized necessity that every office should, as far as practicable, be under a head professionally acquainted with its routine of business; (2) because the Observatory should be administered with well-defined objects in view; and (3) because individual astronomers of talent are more secure in the recognition of their scientific claims under a head professionally interested in the advancement of science. Also, "the proper essential business of a State Observatory" is defined by the Committee in terms which admit of no doubt, and which the future management of the Observatory, whatever it may turn out to be, will do well to keep continually in mind. Examining the publications of the Observatory itself, the Committee do not hesitate to announce their detection of many features which are far from satisfactory, while the volumes themselves show sufficiently the absence of any preconceived plan directing the operations of the institution. Recognizing the truth of this charge, the Committee seem to be justified in recommending the practical dismemberment of the present Observatory, in the hope, it may be, of getting something different or better in the new and disconnected organization which they propose in its stead.

Though not himself a member of the Committee, but as a member of the Academy, the views of Professor Holden, an astronomer of mature experience at the Naval Observatory itself and subsequently at the Washburn Observatory, Wisconsin, and now Director of the Lick Observatory, are worthy of note here, especially as he appears to take the broadest view of the question, and the Committee append his letters to their own report. He expresses himself unqualifiedly "not in favor of a change of its site now or at any time, under the present condition of the improvements to the harbor of Washington"; and subsequently, in response to a letter from the Chairman of the Committee, he says: "I am decidedly of the opinion that this change [of site] is unnecessary and unwise." At the same time he advocates the very common-sense plan of selling the new sites, and using the funds to extend the grounds about the present Observatory, thus affording the needed room for observers' quarters. Furthermore, Professor Holden does not believe that the architect's plan of the proposed new observatory would "receive the unqualified approval of competent astronomers. . . . The best modern observatories, Potsdam, Strassburg, Mount Hamilton, and others, are built on different, and, I think, better principles." The Committee do not seem to attach the importance they should to Professor Holden's testimony on the subject of the malariousness of the present site. He lived in the immediate vicinity of the Observatory for eight years, and says: "None of my family were ever ill from malaria, and I myself had only two or three very slight attacks." Professor Newcomb also, on duty at the Observatory for sixteen years, and engaged in night-service the greater part of this time, though residing in a remote part of the city, in his letter to the Committee says: "I cannot say that I personally suffered greatly in health from the cause alluded to. I had occasional malarial attacks, but they were no worse than before my connection with the Observatory." Professor Newcomb disposes of the fog business by simply directing attention to the fact that nobody has ever made simultaneous observations at the new site, only a short distance from the present one, to see whether fogs at the latter may not cover the former too.

On the whole, the evidence now in must quite suffice to show that the chief reason why the Government is expected to expend half to three-quarters of a million dollars in building a new observatory is because a half-dozen

or so of the observers at the old one are occasionally ill with malaria—and that, too, without any attempt to investigate the very pertinent question whether these same observers would not be just as ill if they stayed at home all the time.

THE IRISH LANDLORDS.

THE probabilities seem to be at present that when Mr. Gladstone produces his scheme of Irish home rule to the House of Commons, nearly all opposition to it will have vanished. The solid and very effective support which the Irish have been giving to the Radicals in their assaults on what used to be called the "Throne and Altar," is frightening not only the Tories but the Whigs into acquiescence in almost anything that will take the Home Rulers away from Westminster. In fact, it seems now doubtful whether even the House of Lords will make their customary one attempt to stem the tide.

Nothing very definite seems to be known about Mr. Gladstone's plan, but it is almost certain that he will so combine the expropriation of the landlords with the restoration of the Irish Parliament that they will have to be swallowed together in one dose. In other words, when "Grattan's Parliament" is set up again, the class to which Grattan belonged, and which in Grattan's day carried on the Government of Ireland, will have virtually disappeared. Here and there an Irish landlord may survive the general wreck, but the main body will be known no more in politics or society. There are but very few who have managed to pass through the last ten years without becoming fatally embarrassed. Most of the estates have either been mortgaged, or saddled with settlements and annuities at valuations which even the good old times of high rentals did not warrant. These rentals have been reduced by the operation of the Land Acts on an average 25 per cent. The great fall in agricultural produce within the last two years has carried them still lower, or rather has left the tenants unable to pay even the reduced rate.

An Irish estate used to sell, in the days before the land agitation, for about twenty times the amount of the annual rental, or "twenty years' purchase," as it was called. But the rental no longer affords a basis for valuation. Not only has the amount of the rental become very uncertain, but the willingness of the tenant to pay any rent at all has seriously diminished. It is only very resolute men who now attempt to collect rents by force. Collecting them by force means calling on the police and the soldiers to assist the sheriff in seizing and selling the stock or evicting the tenant. It is all but certain that under the present Ministry this aid will be furnished very charily, which means that evictions and seizures for rent will be practically brought to an end. With such drastic legislation pending as Mr. Gladstone is said to be preparing, probably few landlords will feel disposed to bother themselves about arrears.

Most of the money paid for expropriation, however, will go to the mortgagees, who are generally English insurance and other corporations. The landlords themselves will get very little. The main body of them will be thrown on the world in very bad times. There is very great poverty among them already, but they have house-room, some little credit, and the produce of their farms. These will now also be lost, and they will literally have to seek their fortunes over again in very bad times. There will be something very dramatic in this ending to the great attempt made by England in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries to Anglicize Ireland. It has proved a prodigious failure. The Scotch settlement in Ulster was greatly reduced toward the close of the last century by the exactions of the landlords, which caused a large emigration to America and furnished some of their stoutest soldiers to the Revolutionary armies. There is no doubt, too, that the Cromwellian soldiery, who settled in considerable numbers on the forfeited lands in the midland and eastern counties, rapidly abandoned their faith, forgot their origin, and became part and parcel of the Celtic population. This Cromwellian element is very strong on the rich lands of Tipperary, and it showed itself in the stern and implacable hostility to the landlords for which that county was remarkable fifty years ago. It was there that assassination as a mode of reducing rents first excited serious attention in England. The Tipperary peasantry literally "shot their rents down," as some one humorously said, long before resistance had become really ferocious in other parts of the country; and the county during the last thirty or forty years has been comparatively peaceful. Finally, to crown all, in spite of the constant support and protection of the English Government, or perhaps we should say in consequence of them, the proprietors of the soil, after an experiment of 200 years, have to abandon it bankrupt and despairing. There is no more striking illustration in modern history of the powerlessness of force against a tenacious moral resistance.

But for English protection, the Irish land question would have been settled probably early in the eighteenth century. Left to their own resources, the landlords would have come to terms in some way with the tillers of the soil. Either they would have become blended with the native population, as the earlier Norman settlers were, or would have established friendly and sympathetic relations with them, or, in other words, would have come to regard them as their countrymen, and share their hopes and ideals in spite of the barrier of religion. This result would probably have come about by this time, had the Irish Parliament continued to exist and helped to keep the gentry in Ireland, and to cherish among them the feeling of Irish nationality. But reliance on the British troops and the British Treasury to pull them through all scrapes perpetuated the separation of feeling between the two classes, and kept alive the hard, cold, alien seventeenth-century temper of the dominant class toward the peasantry; and this has finally brought their ruin. Had they had to stand alone, either a revolution like that in France would have swept them away generations ago, or they would have avoided it by concessions which would have put them in the position of national leaders in a country where leadership has always been easy. But they kicked against the pricks, and set their teeth, and tried to remain Englishmen when they should have become Irishmen, in spite of a hundred warnings, until the democratic tide rose in England to sweep them away.

They were in their day, however, it must be admitted, a body not without merit. They furnished England with some of her greatest soldiers and administrators, and have served her well in every quarter of the globe. But they kept singularly apart from the moral and intellectual currents of later days Probably no educated class of later days has been less touched by philanthropic movements or sympathies, or has concerned itself less about the condition of the poor, or has remained more persistently Tory and reactionary in its politics than the Irish landlords.

LA BOURBOULE AND ITS WATERS.

ONE cannot examine the history of the thermal waters of central France without feeling anew the complexity of modern rivalries and the novelty of the forms in which they clash. That of La Bourboule in Auvergne, aside from its therapeutic and its geological interest, is a story of applied science and of business rivalry which is paralleled only, but only in some points, by that of certain oil-wells in our own petroleum districts. An account of the development of these mineral springs should precede a description of their curative virtues.

La Bourboule, until recently an insignificant and torpid village, now a thriving town, is situated in the centre of the springs of Auvergne, the richest, most varied, and most abundant group of mineral waters in the known world. They number about six hundred separate springs; and in the department of the Puy-de-Dôme alone, Dr. Petit of Royat, in his excellent chart of mineral waters (1878), indicates two hundred and seventy. Those of La Bourboule are the most important of known arsenical waters. Their history is modern, and it does not begin, like that of Mont-Dore, Royat, Plombières, Luxeuil, Aix, Vichy, and a score of other French mineral springs, with a Roman inhabitation and bath-installation. Duclos, in his 'Observations sur les eaux minérales de plusieurs provinces de France' (Paris, 1675), makes the first mention of La Bourboule as a mineral spring, remarking that the solid constituents of the waters amounted to 1-170 of their weight, and that these constituents could be partly dissolved in vinegar, being "semblable au sel commun." Their chemistry was not understood until long after this time; but mention of the waters and of their special virtues is not infrequent. Legrand d'Aussy, among others, in his 'Voyage dans l'Auvergne,' remarks the anomaly of a cold and a hot spring pouring from the same rock at a distance of but four feet from each other. At this time (1787) the place, though little known, already had, as he tells us, its establishment on a small scale, and cures were wrought here in cases for which even the waters of Mont-Dore were inefficacious. "In spite of all these miracles," he adds, "La Bourboule remains unknown, while Mont-Dore is famous. What a book could be made on the capriciousness of fame! Whoever may write it will not fail to instance the neglect of La Bourboule among the thousand and one illustrative facts which he will find ready to hand." Fame, as we shall see, came in course of time. The curative results obtained at La Bourboule were remarkable, and medical men had long recognized them as having much scientific interest. But it was not until 1854 that the waters were analyzed. Thénard then showed

that they were rich in arsenic beyond all other waters known; their medicinal reputation as an energetic blood restorer and alterant was fully justified in the laboratory.

But the small amount of water afforded by the springs was a serious hindrance to the development of the station: it did not exceed nine gallons per minute, a quantity entirely insufficient for an establishment. The attention of geologists was drawn to the question of the origin of the springs and to the possible augmentation of the water supply; and it was very thoroughly discussed by Poulet-Scrope, among others, in his admirable work on the geology of central France. In Auvergne, as in that other volcanic country, Bohemia, with its invaluable mineral waters, the springs are to be sought in the lowest parts of deep valleys and in the most disturbed and tormented ground. Formerly far more numerous than now, they are the last and departing signs of the inward eruptive forces of these regions. The central part of La Bourboule valley is filled with trachyte, erupted matter, tufa, etc., as a trough with so much mud or water. On either side this is walled in by abrupt granitic formations, dipping on the north toward the valley at an angle of forty-seven degrees. From this containing wall of granite, and from a point not far below its line of contact with the contained masses of trachyte, flowed the precious but insufficient stream of mineral lymph.

How, then, might the scanty flow of the springs be increased? Was the enclosing granite wall, as seemed likely from the regularity of its face, really a geologic fault? In that case, the water was brought to the surface by its means; and it would only be necessary to strike the inclined wall with a borer to liberate a layer of mineral water. But at what depth did the water actually leave the granite for the trachyte, thence to force its way to the surface? This it was impossible to tell. But it was finally decided, after careful study of the geologic situation, to sink in the tufa a shaft which should meet the granite at from sixty to eighty metres below the surface. It was the beginning of the battle of the wells, which, as we shall see, was to have the deepest interest, not only for the geologist, but for every inhabitant of the little French village, for years to come, and for many thousands of strangers besides.

The springs had been owned since the year 1828 by a family named Choussy. The only patients as yet were a few peasants from time to time; even as late as 1857 there were but 270 annual visitors to La Bourboule. But the time of transformation had now arrived. In 1864 M. Mabru began to sink a shaft on his own ground, at a short distance from the drowsy little establishment of the Choussys. Never was a well dug so slowly, even in a slow provincial village of France; but by January, 1867, it had reached the depth of thirty metres, and, to the great encouragement of M. Mabru, had already dried up three or four of the old springs. It yielded eleven gallons per minute, at a temperature of 35° C. (95° Fahr.), and in a few months this flow was doubled. An establishment was at once begun, and patients presented themselves in increased number.

Another rival now appeared in the person of M. Sédaiges. He leased the unoccupied lands of the valley (*terrains communaux*) for a term of fifty years, and sank another well; it yielded twenty-two gallons per minute. The Choussys saw that their subterranean reservoir was tapped, and that their only salvation lay in boring. Their well No. 1 took two years to sink; it was forty-eight metres deep, and it was afterwards deepened to seventy-eight metres; it delivered thirty-five gallons of arsenical water per minute, at a temperature of 54° C. (129° Fahr.). Best of all, it cut down M. Mabru's well to a flow of four gallons per minute; the rest of the wells it dried up entirely.

M. Perrière was incited to new exertions by the result, and in 1869 he deepened his well to fifty-three metres; he struck a deeper source, procured more water, and seriously diminished the yield of the Choussy well. During the following year he dug his well No. 2, but as he went down only thirty-three metres, the water delivered was weak in mineral constituents. It was now becoming evident that the deepest digger had the best chance. What might not be expected from further borings? Capital began to seek investment in the springs; the excitement deepened with each new boring. Many cures were made, and patients poured in upon the little village. New rivals appeared in the form of a company, which dug the "Fenestre" wells Nos. 1 and 2 in 1872 and 1873; and two years later the present company was incorporated, consolidating all the wells, except the stout M. Choussy's, under one management.

But M. Choussy was not to be beaten at digging. He returned unshaken to the field, and, at a point only four metres distant from the rival Perrière spring, he sunk his shaft No. 2. It penetrated to a depth of 75.73 metres, and the precious mineral waters poured forth with impartial abundance; but unhappily the rival spring continued to flow. And now M. Choussy had a brilliant idea: it was to bring the steam pump to bear upon his enemies. The principle of his procedure was not unanticipated. There is, or is reported to be, in Boston, a small restaurant, frequented mainly by patrons who do not dine every day in the week, and where a hard and unfeeling management demands prepayment for every dish consumed. A waiter, equipped with a large wooden syringe, is stationed behind each consumer of bean soup, and requires its price. If the color of silver or copper does not instantly appear, the entire contents of the soup-plate are reclaimed, at one stroke, by the wooden pump. It may be doubted whether M. Choussy was acquainted with this effective device; but the principle of it must have been familiar to him, for he showed no less intelligence in the treatment of the rival spring and the alimentation of his own. His boring was the deepest yet made; he placed a powerful steam pump at the mouth of his new well, and he had the grim satisfaction of perceiving, at the first stroke of the engine, that Perrière No. 2 had entirely ceased to flow.

This was in 1876. But the company, inscribing *semper inferior* upon their drills, deepened the Perrière well to seventy-five metres, and fitted it with a pump even more formidable than that of the ingenious M. Choussy. When, therefore, amid great excitement, it was set to work, he in turn saw his fortunes escaping in a small iron tube.

For several seasons the situation at La Bourboule had been an extraordinary one. The uncertainty as to the development of the rival establishments and of their springs affected the whole community—patients, proprietors, and the general public. The establishments, though repeatedly enlarged, could not contain the patients who poured in from every part of Europe. Now Dr. Choussy's, now the company's star was in the ascendant; yet each establishment in turn experienced water-starvation, and during whole seasons hundreds of invalids went to bed at night without any assurance that they could bathe or drink the next morning. The fortunes of either establishment depended upon the penetration of a still lower source. More than this, the integrity of the mineral waters, and consequently the "hydriatric fortunes" of La Bourboule itself, so geologists gave warning, depended upon the depth of the latest well, the efficiency of the strongest pump. Everything was perilled by this ravenous boring. If the disposition of the water-bearing substrata was so delicate as to be greatly disturbed by a single well, what mischance might not be feared from future borings? It was feared that some dilution, convection, admixture, or other injury to the precious waters might be wrought any day as the result of all these intrusions into the subterranean laboratory. Already the Perrière well No. 2 flowed weak. What if the springs should be destroyed entirely?

Meanwhile the supremacy passed rapidly from one establishment to another. The scientific question little interested the community, which found its profit in these rival interests. But the whole town was torn by the controversy, and to this day its feuds are not fairly laid, nor are all the losses that resulted from them made good. But for the greater part of the community, as for landed proprietors, the builders, the hotel-keepers, the physicians, this development was the source of fortune. The small land-owners sold their gardens and pastures at higher prices than had ever been known in the Puy-de-Dôme. Fine hotels arose; the incomplete establishments were urged toward completion; trade improved, and the population of La Bourboule grew. The little town was given over to prosperity; and yet there was no little anxiety as to its continuance, unless the hazardous borings could be checked. The whole prosperity of the place might run off, any day, through a three-inch pipe.

Such was the extraordinary situation when, in 1878, the irrepressible Dr. Choussy girded up his loins once more and returned to the field with new supplies of men, money, and boring tools. He deepened his well to the depth of eighty-four metres: La Bourboule hung upon the result. It was an anxious day for the company and for its patients when his great pump began to play. Would victory veer again to the original proprietor? The "hydriatric world" looked on breathless. But the precious water refused to answer to this last appeal. Waters, indeed, were reached, but the superiority remained with the company. Their borings had touched the vital point of the springs, verifying geological predictions in the matter; and during the following year, 1879, the stout Choussy gave up the contest and sold out to the company. All the springs, six in number, came under a single control; competition ceased from this date, and the destructive rivalry of the preceding years was ended.

Its record remains in a curious clause which forms a part of the present company's charter from the Government. By that clause all proprietors or other persons in La Bourboule are forbidden to dig any well, for whatever purpose, on any property within a certain considerable distance of the precious springs. The restriction, under the peculiar geologic conditions of the problem, is doubtless a reasonable one. "It makes one tremble to think," says the learned physician, Dr. Boucomont of Royat, "that a single puncture of the source might open a subterranean channel of escape for these precious waters, and in a moment swallow up one of the chief treasures of our Auvergne."

The recently completed establishment is one of the most perfect in Europe. Nowhere have I seen a fuller or more intelligently contrived apparatus of appliances for external applications of every kind. The waters are now assured in their integrity, and in the most ample quantity (fifteen hundred gallons per minute). About seven thousand visitors now come annually to La Bourboule, and with reason: its waters form one of the most efficient remedies known in certain extensive classes of chronic disease. Of these I may speak on another occasion.

TITUS MUNSON COAN.

TOLSTOI'S SOUVENIRS.

PARIS, February 25, 1886.

IT is impossible not to take an interest in whatever is written by Tolstoi. There is so much genius in 'War and Peace,' in 'Anna Karénine,' that you cannot help expecting some pleasure from whatever falls from the hands of the great Russian writer. I lately gave an account of his last work, 'My Religion,' and I could not help thinking, in analyzing it, of the old saying: "Aliquando dormitat Homerus." Now, I feel that I ought to give some account, not of the last works of Tolstoi, of the feelings and emotions of his old age, but of his early days and of his youth. There are few people who do not like to begin, so to speak, their lives over again. I confess that I have always admired the minuteness of the writers of memoirs, their extraordinary memory, the precision of their facts; to me, many years of the distant past are enveloped in a sort of dream, and I have great difficulty, when I wish to be perfectly sincere, and not to help my memory with my imagination, in reconstructing the past so as to give to it perfect life.

It is not so with Tolstoi; but Tolstoi is a man of genius, and distinctness of perception is one of his great attributes. He begins his 'Souvenirs' at the age of ten, and we learn much from him on the development of his mind. There is something quite childish in the first part of these 'Souvenirs.' Tolstoi had a preceptor, Karl Ivanitch, a German:

"Karl, with his spectacles on his nose, and a book in his hand, was sitting in the accustomed place. At the left of the door were two tables, one for the children, and *his*, the table of Karl Ivanitch. On ours were all sorts of books, some upright, others lying flat. . . . We were always ordered, before the recess, to put the *library* in order (this was the name which Karl Ivanitch gave to the table). As for his collection, if it was not as numerous as ours, it was more varied. I remember three volumes—a German pamphlet, unbound, upon the best manure for cabbages; a volume in parchment, with one corner burned, on the Seven Years' War; a complete treatise on hydrostatics. Karl Ivanitch spent most of his time in reading, so as even to hurt his eyes; but besides the books on his table and the paper, the *Northern Bee*, he read nothing."

Karl Ivanitch was old, he had a pure conscience and a peaceful soul, and Tolstoi loved him. "I sometimes said to myself: 'Poor old man! We children are many, we play, we amuse ourselves; he is alone and nobody fondles him. To be sure, he is an orphan. And how dreadful is his history! he once told it to Kolia." Nothing can be more charming than the description which Tolstoi gives of his mother, sitting by the samovar amidst her children, with the good old Karl, and the governess, Maria Ivanovna, or Mimi. "When mamma smiled (mamma was very handsome) she became even handsomer. . . . If I could only see that smile again in the difficult moments of life, I should not know what sorrow means. It seems to me that what is called beauty resides chiefly in the smile. If the smile embellishes, the face is handsome: if it does not change it, the face is ordinary; if it spoils it, the face is ugly."

Papa was a true Russian nobleman of the old school (he must often have been in Tolstoi's mind when he wrote his great novels), handsome, amiable, a man of pleasure, always in money difficulties, always mortgaging his estates. "He was," says Tolstoi, "a man of the last century, and, like all his contemporaries, he had in him something chivalrous, enterprising, confident, amiable, a passion for pleasure. He felt a great contempt for the men of our century. . . . His two great passions were cards and women. He gained or lost at cards, in the course of his life, several millions, and he was in love with an incalculable number of women, in all classes of society. . . . Nothing astonished him; in whatever situation he might have been placed, he would have seemed to be born for it." Here is another good *trait*: "He knew exactly the precise degree of pride and of presumption which raises a man in public opinion without giving offence to anybody." This gentleman of the last century belonged to the school of what was called then "sensibility"—he was emotional, he cried easily. When he read aloud he often became very pathetic. "He was one of those men who, when they wish to do a good action, must indispensably have a public." "There was no good in his eyes except what the public thought good." He could tell a story in a charming manner. "This," says Tolstoi, "is perhaps the reason why his principles were so elastic; according to the turn he gave to his talk, the same action became an amiable pleasantry or the greatest of horrors." It is clear that Tolstoi's father, whom he describes with so much impartiality, was not a family man, though he was adored by his wife. In the novels of Ivan Turgeneff, in the memoirs of Hertzen, we find the same type; the father of Tolstoi was a courtier of the time of the great Catharine.

The departure from the country to Moscow was a great event in the life of young Tolstoi. It is described with the minutest details—details which I might almost call photographic. "I still see all the domestics, and I could draw their portraits; but, strangely enough, the visage and the attitude of mamma are entirely out of my mind. This comes, perhaps, from the fact that during all this scene of the adieux I had not once the courage to look at her. It seemed to me that if I did, her sorrow and mine would surpass all bounds." The child travelled with his father, and his attention soon became absorbed by all the trifling incidents of the journey. In Moscow his education began more in earnest; but after a few months they were all recalled to the country by a grave malady of Tolstoi's mother. The child arrived in time to see her still living, but she died soon afterwards. Tolstoi describes his feelings on this occasion with great delicacy and pathos, analyzing them in a curious and almost painful way. When the service was ended,

"the face was visible, and all the assistants approached, one after the other, to kiss it. Almost at the end was a peasant woman, holding in her arms a pretty little girl five years old. God knows why she had brought her there. I had just dropped my wet handkerchief, and I stooped to pick it up, when I heard a scream, piercing, terrible, expressing such a terror that I shall never forget it if I live a hundred years; and when I think of it, I still shudder. I looked up; the peasant woman was on a footstool, next to the coffin, and tried to keep the little girl, who struggled and threw herself backwards with an expression of fear, and looked at the corpse with great screams. I screamed then even louder, I believe, and ran out of the room. . . . The idea that this face, so handsome, so amiable a few days before, the face of the person I loved above everything in the world, could inspire terror, unveiled (so to speak) the terrible truth, and filled my soul with despair."

We now come to the years of adolescence, and to the dreams which fill them. Tolstoi was a singular child. His imagination was morbid, his reflections were not much in accordance with his age. The reformer was already hidden in him. "During a whole year," says he, "I lived in an absolute moral isolation, lost in myself. The abstruse questions of human destiny, of a future life, of the immortality of the soul, offered themselves to me, and my feeble intelligence worked with all the ardor of inexperience at the solution of these great problems which human genius, in its greatest efforts, can only envisage without succeeding in solving them." He examined and tried, one after the other, all the philosophical systems. He had an abundance of ideas which gave him no rest, he lost himself in the wildest theories; and he acquired a rare faculty of incessant moral analysis. He sometimes thought that he was born for the good of mankind, that he should be a great man; "and, oddly enough, when I found myself in the presence of common mortals there was not one before whom I did not feel timid."

One of the prettiest chapters of the 'Souvenirs' is the story of Karl Ivanitch, who had to leave Tolstoi when he advanced in his studies and prepared to enter the university. "Was it really his story, which he had invented in his imagination while he remained in our house, and which he believed in the end for having told it so many times? Had he only put fantastic colors on true events? I do not yet know." The first time that Karl deigned to tell the long tale to his pupil he began thus: "God knows all and sees all! His will be done! Yes, Nicholas, my fate is to be unhappy; I was unhappy even before I was born, and I shall be so till I die. People have always rewarded me with evil for the good which I have done, and my recompense will not be given me in this world. If you knew all I have had to suffer! I have been a shoemaker, I have been a soldier, I have been a deserter, a manufacturer, a preceptor, and now I am dismissed, I am nothing, and I do not know where to lay my head." The military adventures of Karl Ivanitch are very characteristic: "It was a terrible time, Nicholas. It was the time of Napoleon. He wished to conquer Germany, and we fought to defend our country to the last drop of our blood. I was at Ulm, I was at Austerlitz, I was at Wagram." "So you really fought?" said Tolstoi, looking at him with astonishment. "You killed people?" The good Karl hastened to reassure his pupil. "Once," said he, "a French grenadier was left behind and fell on the road. I ran to him, and I was on the point of thrusting my bayonet through him, when he threw away his gun and said 'Pardon me,' so I let him go."

You can recognize easily in the story of Karl Ivanitch the author of 'War and Peace.' There is a curious chapter called "Eclipse," in which Tolstoi explains how, during his adolescence, his moral nature became, so to speak, eclipsed, and he was haunted by all sorts of bad ideas. He tells us the history of his *crimes*, as well as of his punishment. His new preceptor—a Frenchman, Saint-Gérôme—once shut him up in a dark room, and "'Basil,' he screamed, with a hideous and solemn voice, 'bring me the whip!'" This eclipse did not last long, and the 'Souvenirs' end with the account of Tolstoi's first friendship. He brought to it all the enthusiasm and ardor of his nature; he formed magnificent plans for the future of his friend and of himself. Alphonse Karr says that, in every affection, one loves, the other allows himself to be loved; one gives a kiss, the other offers the cheek. The friend of Tolstoi was of a passive disposition. Prince Dimitri Nekhliudoff, then a student, formed great plans for the regeneration of humanity, and, on the whole, his influence seems to have been good. Once in the University, Tolstoi enters into a new field of what he calls *rêveries*. He describes minutely his state of mind, his ambitions, his hopes, his family circle, the rules of life he made for himself. But the charm of all these confidences is entirely in the details, and I must refer the reader to the 'Souvenirs' themselves. On the whole, though they will add nothing to the fame of the writer, they are interesting as documents concerning the first stages of development of a great and noble mind.

Correspondence.

THE KENTUCKY RESOLUTIONS OF '98.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Sharing with you the interest you take in Mr. Durrett's valuable contribution to the history

of the "Kentucky Resolutions of 1798 and 1799," as found in the March number of the *Southern Bivouac*, I beg leave to subjoin to your note on that paper (*Nation*, No. 1080, p. 219) that the method of research to which you refer, as affording a probable means for ascertaining the genuine text of the earlier series, has already been brought to this inquiry by Prof. N. S. Shaler, in his recently published history of Kentucky. Prof. Shaler says: "Knowing that a copy of the document [the Resolutions of 1798] had been sent to the Governor of Massachusetts, it seemed to me worth while to search for it in the archives of the Secretary's office of that Commonwealth. The search was kindly undertaken by the present Secretary, Henry B. Pierce, Esq., and fortunately resulted in the discovery of the copy given below. The document is neatly printed, and in a perfect state of preservation. It may therefore fairly be taken as an exact copy of the original" (Shaler's 'Kentucky,' p. 409).

On comparing the text of the *Bivouac* reprint with the copy reprinted from the Massachusetts archives, I find the two to be identical in point of contents, the variations being such as result from the different spelling of certain words and from a difference in the frequency with which italic and capital letters are used. In Mr. Shaler's copy the punctuation and orthography are modernized. Mr. Durrett's copy seems to be the facsimile reprint of some copy which, in point of typography at least, must be closely related to the year 1798. In one of its passages, the blurred aspect of some of the characters in the original seems to have been reproduced.

Both of these copies contain in the first resolution of the series a clause—"its co-States forming, as to itself, the other party"—which has been dropped out in editions of Elliot's Debates published since the year 1832. As you remark that "varying versions of the Resolutions got early into print with every apparent mark of authenticity," I would be exceedingly obliged to you, or to any of your readers, if you or they will refer me to any publication prior to the year 1832 in which the above-cited clause does not form an integral part of the first resolution. I make this inquiry for purely historical reasons, because I suppose myself to have discovered the time and place in which the text was for the first time corrupted. JAMES C. WELLING.

WASHINGTON, March 13, 1886.

CHALLENGE AND BANTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Respecting the use of "banter" in the sense of "challenge," I would say that the word has that familiar meaning in southern Ohio, especially on the Ohio River, where I was reared. It was a favorite sport with the boys of my time to "*play 'banner'*"—for thus the word was commonly pronounced. A leader would start off on a series of adventurous acts, in which he would be imitated in regular turn by his Indian file of followers. These performances were often reckless and dangerous, and many a ducking or bad fall was the fate of the unskilful or unfortunate.

Also, one boy would "banner" another to do something, like: "I'll 'banner' you to skate over that thin ice after me," or, "to 'run' those loose logs."

I agree with "W. H. J.," in your issue of March 4, as to the distinction he draws between "challenging" a rival base-ball nine and one boy "bantering" another for a race. But the latter expression was not commonly used, our "banner" being more like a challenge of a "dare"—a test of skill, activity, or nerve. But the preposition "for" was not a necessary adjunct of the verb "banner." The preposition "to" with the infinitive of the act, or the present participle, like "skating," was the general use. We also said "doing 'banners'"; and to "make a 'banner'" was to make the break in the performance, or establish the route of ventures to be followed.

C. B., Jr.

DENVER, COL., March 8, 1886.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been surprised to find abundant confirmation of Mr. Utter's statement in your issue of February 18, that "banter" is generally used for "dare" in southern Ohio. Old residents in this neighborhood and in Cincinnati tell me such use is common. But I was much more surprised to-day to read, in an account of 'A Crosby Family,' page 61, printed in Lowell, Mass., the following:

"My father found a competitor in Moultonboro in Doctor Morse, but after a little while he bantered the doctor to sell out, which he did," etc.

The employment of the word in this peculiar sense by Judge Crosby, of Lowell, whose whole life was spent in New Hampshire and Massachusetts—the whole early part of it in remote country towns—seems to show that even in some towns of New England "banter" is used in a sense kindred, at least, to "challenge."

Respectfully,

WILLIAM F. BRIDGE.

FOSTERS, OHIO, March 10, 1886.

[We will close the discussion of this interesting locution by referring our correspondent to p. 172 of the 'Writings of N. P. Rogers,' a native and life-long resident of New Hampshire, editing the *Herald of Freedom* when he wrote (issue of October 1, 1841, italics ours): "Two scientific pedestrians halted here . . . and . . . *bantered* one another to jump in."—ED. NATION.]

"AUTHOR"—EDITOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Every person who is interested in having the New English Dictionary made complete and accurate owes you thanks for your conclusive answer to "J. P." in the issue of the *Nation* for March 4. Your timely caution to the editors and "more than 1,300 readers," said to be engaged on that work, will, it is to be hoped, make them more thorough and sharp-sighted. At all events, there ought not to have been any occasion for reminding them that the word "author" was used in the eighteenth century, both in America and England, in the sense of *editor* of a periodical. As you more than intimate, for the editors of the work to overlook the newspapers and magazines published in the eighteenth century, would be to overlook the department of literary production which best shows the remarkable growth and modifications of our language in that period.

In regard to the use of "author" in the sense mentioned above, permit me to make an inquiry. Instances of this usage can be found in Massachusetts newspapers as late as 1773; can an instance subsequent to that date be pointed out in any American publication? A. H. H.

BOSTON, March 8, 1886.

AN APPEAL FROM MISSISSIPPI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As the discussion of the Blair bill, in and out of Congress, is one of the most interesting topics at present, it occurred to me that the views of parties living in the illiterate section might be of interest to your readers.

Wilkinson County, of which Woodville is the county seat, has a population made up of about two-thirds black and one-third white people. The State and county taxes are 18 mills, of which the school tax is 3 mills. It would be a fair estimate that the taxes represent 15 per cent. of the net income of property-holders. With the low price of cotton prevailing, it would be impossible to increase the taxes. The white people pay 90 per cent. of the taxes and receive 35 per cent. of the benefit of the school tax. The black people pay 10 per cent. of the taxes and receive 65 per cent. of the benefit.

As the present working of the school system is the very best that we are able to have under existing circumstances, let us examine the condition of the public schools. The school fund enables us to run the public schools during four months of twenty days each annually. The teachers are paid, according to the number of scholars, from $8 to $50 per month; a fair average would fall below $25 per month, equivalent to $100 per scholastic year. Now, what kind of material can be had for such a salary? Our worthy Superintendent of Public Schools examined candidates for positions as teacher who were looking for the West Indies among the Rocky Mountains, and who had no idea of fractions. Can this material be depended upon to dispel the literary darkness around us? Is not our situation desperate? In our impoverished condition to educate the white children and twice the quantity of black children thrust upon us, may we not, without being considered paupers, exclaim: "Help us, or we perish!" P. MÖLLER.

WOODVILLE, MISS., March 1, 1886.

[This is a dark showing, truly, and still not the worst that the South might make. There are corresponding degrees of school privileges, or lack of them, and of teaching capacity at the North. They furnish a ground of compassion, but they do not affect the general principle involved in opposition to the Blair bill—the danger of fostering a fatal dependence on external aid, especially in a State which is making notable educational progress by its own impulse.—ED. NATION.]

STATE AID TO EDUCATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me to call attention to a point which seems to have been forgotten in the recent discussions as to the advisability of making national grants in aid of education? Your position, that gifts of money to the South for this purpose would in the long run prove a detriment to the self-reliance of the people, and consequently to education itself, is undoubtedly correct. The testimony of Connecticut would, at first thought, seem to confirm your objections to all national aid whatsoever. It is, indeed, a "fact," as you say, and facts, as all know, go a great way with Americans. We should not, however, so completely yield our allegiance to them as to forget to try to understand them. That State money has been and may still be badly used is no proof, though, that it can be made to do no good. The whole question turns on its administration. If the administration is bad, State or national grants in aid of education are likely to do more harm than good, as in the case of Connecticut. But if the administrators of that fund had been wise enough to make its distribution to the districts depend upon a reasonable amount of local effort, the State Commissioner would now have a different story to tell.

We have, for instance, in Illinois, an example of the good State money may do in stimulating local effort even with very light conditions. In that State the income from public-school funds, together with the direct State school tax, is 20 per cent. of all money expended for education in

the State. The distribution to the districts is made on the one condition of their supporting a school for six months each year. This condition is always complied with, and at a present cost of over $29.00 per pupil in average attendance. A much smaller grant from the State would secure the fulfilment of the imposed condition. Similar results follow the administration of the income from State funds in other States. Again, the Peabody fund is administered on the same principle; yet nobody claims that this tends to demoralize the people, for it helps only those who help themselves.

But the most striking example of enormous State subsidies to education, which at the same time have no tendency to produce stagnation and helplessness among those who receive their benefits, is found in England. The total Parliament grant for elementary education in England and Wales alone was, in 1884-85, £3,110,912, and was made not only to public schools, but, startling as it may seem, most largely to schools organized and managed by religious societies. That which at first view looks like subsidizing religious bodies at public expense, excites neither alarm nor serious opposition in England, yet this is perhaps the most thoroughly non-paternal government in the world. As in the United States so here, everything turns on the administration. Grants are made chiefly on these conditions, viz.:

1. That at least an equal amount of money be provided by local effort.

2. That the school be held in approved premises and taught by duly certificated teachers.

3. That a portion of the grant depend upon the individual examination of pupils by Government inspectors.

Subject to these conditions, the various classes of schools receive from Government subsidy the following per cent. of their whole school expenditure:

	Pupils.	Per cent.
1. Church of England Schools	1,607,823	43.5
2. Wesleyan Schools	128,584	45.8
3. Roman Catholic Schools	167.841	48.7
4. British Undenominational and Other Schools	253,044	42.5
5. School Board Schools	1,115,832	36.1
Total for Elementary Schools		41.04

Twenty years ago England was one of the worst educated of civilized countries; now, under the action of State aid, it is one of the best. Further, under the beneficial action of well-administered school subsidies, it has raised teaching from a poor calling to a respected and profitable profession. So it might be in America. A well-administered national grant for public schools would be as beneficial in its action as similar grants have been to elementary education in England. A national *gift* would do more harm than good.

CHAS. DE GARMO.

HALLE, February 26, 1886.

YALE COLLEGE AND THE SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

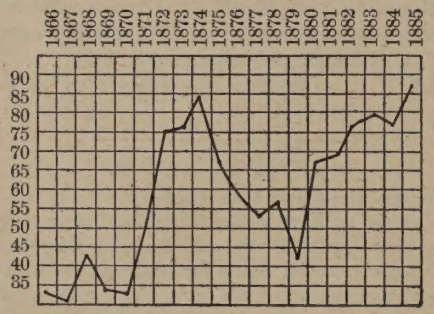
SIR: It is a common assumption, among the defenders of the "old régime" at Yale, that they are entitled to whatever credit may accrue from the progress of the Scientific School. They claim that since it is an undergraduate department of the University, its numbers should be added to those of the similarly undergraduate Academical Department, in any comparison with the progress of rival institutions.

It was with full foresight of this probable but illusive objection that I determined to exclude the Scientific School from the larger part of my previous comparison. The baselessness of the objection is apparent to any graduate of the School; but to the alumni of the other department a few words of explanation may be necessary.

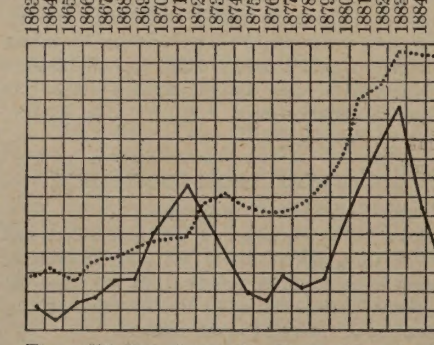
The first and most obvious reason for its exclusion is the fact that the President and Fellows of the College have had nothing whatever to do with the progressive management of the School. The credit of its success belongs elsewhere, as is well known.

A second objection is found in the fact that the comparison is drawn between two systems of education, as well as between two colleges that practise them. It could only confuse the solution to make the Scientific School, with its three years' course and strictly technical education for an average of 74 per cent. of its students, a factor in the problem. It is designed to educate good civil and dynamical engineers, chemists, and metallurgists. President Eliot's annual report for the college year 1884-85 shows that nobody goes to the Academical Department of Harvard College for this class of instruction. And besides, while every Harvard undergraduate receives the full benefit of all the instruction offered in the Academic Department of the University, no academical undergraduate at Yale can share in any way the instruction so admirably given in the Scientific School. To include the Scientific School in the comparison of numbers would therefore vitiate the force of the whole argument with respect to instruction.

In the third place, just as the management of the Scientific School has had nothing in common with that of the College, so has its growth been determined by other and entirely extrinsic causes. The following diagram shows the fluctuations in the number of students entering the Freshman classes of the Scientific School every year of the last twenty:



It will be found instructive to compare these lines with those that display the same facts for the Academic Department (*Nation*, p. 148). And the causes of the contrast are as different as the results. The Scientific School sends the bulk of its graduates into the great technical professions. It furnishes the supply for a certain demand; and the number of its students is dependent upon the progress of the industries in whose development these technical professions play a part. The following diagram shows the progress of railway construction and the output of the iron and Bessemer steel trades for the twenty-two years 1863-1884:



The solid line shows the fluctuations in the miles of new railway annually constructed, while the dotted line denotes the number of tons of steel and iron annually produced. It will be observed that there is a remarkable relationship between this diagram and that which precedes it, indicating that the fluctuations of the classes follow, accurately enough, the fluctuations of these great industries, at an average distance of two or three years. No such relationship is apparent in the figures of the Academical Departments of either college.

The fact is, that any attempt to mix more than about 26 per cent. of the Scientific School figures with those of the Academical Department is a simple attempt to obscure the real causes of Yale's decline. Had the cases been reversed, and were it a question of adding one of *Harvard's* professional schools to the College in order to enable it to make a fair showing alongside of Yale, the Yale apologists would have made a terrible outcry against it. And yet it would be almost as fair to add the Harvard Law School to the College figures as the Sheffield Scientific School to Yale's.

For the accuracy of my statement with regard to elective studies at Harvard in 1841, I shall cite President Eliot as authority. He shows, in his annual report for 1883-4, page 13, that a system of elective studies was opened by vote of the Faculty, May 24, 1841, not only to juniors and seniors, but even to sophomores. These reports also afford information concerning the influence and functions of the Board of Overseers which the College catalogues do not supply.

EDWARD D. PAGE.

NEW YORK, March 11, 1886.

THE TARIFF ON DIRT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to your editorial of the 11th inst., on the "great struggle over the tariff on dirt," permit us to call your attention to the fact that, inasmuch as the scoured wool loses nearly 50 per cent. of its weight in being cleansed, a duty of two and one-half cents per pound on unwashed wool is equivalent to five cents per pound on scoured wool—*i. e.*, the same quantity of wool as it left the sheep's back unwashed at two and one-half cents per pound would bring into the Treasury, when scoured and charged five cents per pound, no more duty. Therefore, the difference between two and one-half cents on unwashed and five cents on scoured wool is practically one and the same thing, and wherein it is a tax on dirt is not apparent.

The other two and one-half cents per pound on scoured wool (making the entire duty seven and one-half cents) is no more than a fair equivalent, in view of the fact that the thorough cleansing or scouring has made an article fitted for other uses than those for which unwashed wool can be employed. The scoured wool is ready for immediate use by the manufacturer, and will take dyes without further cleansing. This is not the case with either unwashed or washed wools, both of which require further cleansing.

The statute imposes a certain duty on wools in a certain condition, *e. g.*, scoured. It matters not how they got to be scoured, whether by the use of chemicals and machinery or by hand labor and hot water. It is the *condition*, and not the process, which governs. Now, in the case of the Donskoi wools, it is undisputed that they are so thoroughly cleansed that nothing more is requisite to fit them for dyeing and manufacture.

Truly yours, DALLAS SANDERS,
JAMES W. M. NEWLIN.

NEW YORK, March 13, 1886.

[It seems, then, that the duty on wool is two and one-half cents per pound, and the duty on scouring two and one-half cents per pound more, and the duty on immediate usefulness two and one-half cents per pound more. We are no sticklers for terms, but it looks to us as though

the last two and one-half cents were a premium on the importation of dirt. This is the view taken by Mr. John L. Hayes, a great tariff authority, in a recent humorous publication.—Ed. Nation.]

POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The failure of the "Dime Savings Bank" at New Brunswick, with the widespread suffering that it entails, affords another proof, if any were needed, of the pressing call for Congressional action in the matter of postal savings banks. An event like this failure operates as a discouragement to thrift in every town and village through the country to which the news penetrates. The poor have little opportunity of discriminating in such matters; they learn that those who placed the fruits of self-denial for years in the New Brunswick bank found it swept away in a moment; the depositors had economized in order that a dishonest cashier might speculate in Wall Street. To the poor, laying up money involves a multitude of sacrifices, and, at least, when laid by it should be made safe for them. But through a very large portion of this country this can only be accomplished by the action of the Government. The matter is now under discussion by a Congressional committee, and public opinion should be brought to bear upon the committee in a very emphatic way. L.

DUTY AND HONOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have, by chance, in the same half-hour, come across two stories, each interesting in itself from the men concerned, and both together so singularly emphasizing an excellence of English character and a peculiar form of moral discipline connected with English Parliamentary life, that it is perhaps worth while to bring them in connection with one another before your readers. The one is to be found in Mr. Leslie Stephen's 'Life of Fawcett,' the other in Mr. J. Cotter Morison's study of Macaulay—both works of much interest in all respects.

Mr. Stephen, in relating Mr. Fawcett's action with regard to the preservation of Commons, describes the incessant vigilance on Fawcett's part needed to secure the legislation desired. At one moment the struggle (which was between the Government and Fawcett and his supporters) resolved itself into a determination on Fawcett's side to prevent the passage of a proposed bill:

"The third reading of the bill was set down for every Government night. It did not come on for discussion till the end of the evening's debates—that is, often at 2 or 3 A. M. . . . If Fawcett or his supporters had failed to be in their places, the third reading might have been achieved without opposition. But night after night he was ready, and the motion for the third reading postponed. On one occasion Fawcett, as he used often to relate, had caught a bad cold. He sent a message to the Government whip asking that the motion might be once more postponed as it had been so often before. He received no answer; but fancying that his request would be granted as a matter of course, he was retiring to bed. A friend happening to call suggested that it would be safer not to relax even for a night. Fawcett struggled into his wraps, went to the House and found that business had been so arranged as to secure the passage of the Enclosure Bill. The whip started 'like a guilty thing surprised' on the apparition of Fawcett in the lobby, but good-humoredly admitted the failure of his little bit of dexterity, and gave a formal undertaking which enabled Fawcett to get once more into bed with a safe conscience."

It was not he alone who would not go to bed except "with a safe conscience." After the breakdown of Macaulay's health in July, 1852, he was constantly oppressed with asthma and heart disease, and so weak at times that he could hardly walk, even with a stick. But as long as he was a member of the House of Commons, although his constituents were willing to grant him every indulgence, his attendance in the House often took little heed to prudence. On one occasion, as he wrote in his diary,

"I was in pain and very poorly. I went down to the House and paired. On my return, just as I was getting into bed, I received a note from Hayter to say that he had paired me. I was very unwilling to go out at that hour [it was in January], and afraid of the night air; but I have a horror of the least suspicion of foul play, so I dressed and went again to the House, settled the matter about the pairs, and came back at near 12 o'clock."

It is such men as these who not only "command the applause of listening senates," but who may proudly "read their history in a nation's eyes."

In speaking of this devotion to duty as an excellence of English character, let it not be supposed that I would imply it to be *peculiar* to the English; but with what kind of emotion does an American read on another of Mr. Stephen's pages *this* passage, which, perhaps, I may also be allowed to quote?

"Fawcett frequently remarked to me [while Postmaster-General] upon the high standard of honor in the public service, observing that officials in receipt of moderate salaries had often to decide upon questions, such as mail contracts, involving large sums of money, and that there was never the slightest suspicion of their turning their opportunities to private profit."

* *

SLEET OR HAIL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is curious to note that there is a wonderful lack of uniformity as to what is understood by the term "sleet." If you merely announce that "it is sleeting," and refer to an ordinary Physics or Physical Geography to see what sort of information you have really given, you will no doubt be astonished, if not amused, to learn that no less than six varieties of phenomena are described by Geikie, Maury, Steele, Webster, and the leading encyclopædias.

Now, in Maryland—at least in this section—it is only "sleet" when the rain has frozen on the ground. Further south, "it sleets" when fine particles of ice (frozen rain) pepper one on the upturned face. Indeed, a professor in a university of note has told me, "Sleet is frozen rain; hail is an aggregation of sleet-drops—*i. e.*, is always compound."

Since I am convinced that there is no little confusion in the ordinary understanding of the terms, I have thought to call forth some really reliable information through these most discriminating and satisfactory columns.

G. F. Yonce.

Lutherville, Md.

STENOLOGY (?).

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Does man possess an instinctive language—not the Babel of the thousand and one tongues that divide human intercourse, but the defined form of sound of natural intuition? Has not the bee, the ant, its own language by which the common interests of the community are directed; the brute creation instinctive sounds, by which ideas are communicated? The bird also—for instance, the nightingale—has it not a language? The beautiful songster sends forth its notes without hesitation, no mistake is made, the phrase is decided on before utterance, the words conveyed to his fellow companions, to us unintelligible, though a most enchanting symphony of sound. Has man, then, no inborn language, revealed perhaps in part and dispersed in the language of the world, to be further evoluted as the human mind is developed?

This question has been suggested under the following circumstances. At the moment between waking and sleeping an imaginary conversation frequently crosses the field of the mind. It is then, occasionally, that a few syllables appear to me to express the exact idea intended to be conveyed. On waking, the words have no apparent meaning, although so precisely adapted at the moment of expression. This ideal phraseology has been repeated, at intervals, for years past, perhaps on fifty different occasions, the words differing each time. No record has been kept, as until now the writer has paid no attention to the question. The idea has suggested itself of the possible existence of an innate language. So far as memory carries me, the words, in general, were short, and the letter *a* was pronounced as in the Italian language.—Yours truly, F.C.

Notes.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press a new translation from the German by Mrs. A. L. Wister, 'Violetta'; a new novel by George Thomas Dowling, 'The Wreckers: a Social Study'; and 'The Story of Don Miff as told by his friend John Bouche Whacker: a Symphony of Life, edited by Virginius Dabney.' This last, a subscription book (the author's address being No. 108 West Forty-ninth Street, New York), is an attempt "to portray life in the South in the old days," at first in peace time in Richmond and the lower tide-water region of Virginia; afterwards, during the rebellion, in "The Valley."

A Hancock Monograph, with a steel portrait of the late General, will be published immediately by G. P. Putnam's Sons. They have also nearly ready 'A Study of Dante,' by Susan E. Blow; 'Essays on Finance, Wages, and Trade,' by Robert Giffen, President of the British Statistical Society; the 'Physics and Metaphysics of Money,' with special regard to California, by Rodmond Gibbons; and 'Torpedoes for National Defence,' by Lieut. William H. Jaques, U. S. A.

Another reconciliation of science and theology will be attempted in 'Reason and Revelation, Hand in Hand,' by Rev. Thomas M. McWhinney, D.D., of which Fords, Howard & Hulbert are the publishers.

'The Prelate,' a story of the American colony and native society in Rome, by Isaac Henderson; 'The Sphinx's Children: and Other People's,' by Rose Terry Cooke; and 'A Stroll with Keats,' by Frances Clifford Brown, illustrated, are about to be issued by Ticknor & Co.

A missionary work is announced to be 'Triumphant Democracy,' by Andrew Carnegie, now in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

Ginn & Co. announce for May 1 'Our Government,' a text-book, by J. Macy, Professor of History and Political Science in Iowa College.

D. C. Heath & Co. announce 'A Short Manual of Chemical Arithmetic,' by J. Milnor Coit, of St. Paul's School, Concord, N. H.

A 'History of the Storrs Family,' compiled by the late Charles Storrs, of Brooklyn, is promised immediately by A. S. Barnes & Co.

'In Aid of Faith' is the title selected for a series of articles, by the Rev. Lyman Abbott, that appeared in the *Christian Union* last year under a slightly different caption. They have been revised for republication in book form by E. P. Dutton & Co.

Whittier's new volume of verse, which Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have nearly ready, is to be entitled, 'St. Gregory's Guest, and Other Poems.'

The same publishers have just added to their dainty little Riverside Aldine Series Warner's 'Back-Log Studies'; and have likewise produced

a new edition of the late Richard Grant White's 'Words and Their Uses.'

A translation, by A. L. Alger, of the third edition of Reissmann's 'Life and Works of Robert Schumann' has just been added to the Bohn Library (Scribner & Welford). Reissmann is one of the most prolific and best informed of modern writers on musical topics. Besides editing a musical dictionary of his own and the last five volumes of Mendel's great work, he has written numerous theoretical works, biographies of Mendelssohn, Schubert, Haydn, Bach, etc. His style is somewhat diffuse, and his generalizations are occasionally too vague, but his facts are reliable, his inferences usually correct, and his opinions unbiassed. His 'Schumann' is perhaps the best of his biographical works; and as the world is only beginning to realize what inexhaustible treasures of beautiful music are stored up in Schumann's scores, this biography ought to have a wide circle of readers. Especially to be commended is the chapter on Schumann's *Lieder*, or songs, a department of music too much neglected in this country. The translation reads smoothly, and appears to be free from errors.

H. C. Banister's 'Handbook of Music,' of which twelve editions have appeared in England, was well worth reprinting in this country (Henry Holt & Co.). It covers the whole range of musical theory, beginning with notation and the scales, and explaining the chords, counterpoint, fugue, the elements of composition, etc. The various instruments are also briefly explained, and there is a glossary of musical terms, and numerous examples for practice. While avoiding anything that seems revolutionary, the writer believes in the enlargement of the basis of contrapuntal study, in conformity with the wider range of harmonies now recognized; and he does not sanction the rigid exclusion of the chord of the 7th and its inversions. The book was primarily intended for the use of students preparing for examinations; but it would make an excellent textbook in music schools, while the definitions are sufficiently clear to make it of value to private students. There are, of course, numerous illustrations in musical type.

Professor Lewis Campbell, of the University of St. Andrews, and Mr. Evelyn Abbott, of Balliol College, Oxford, have by their joint labors added to the "Clarendon Press Series" an edition of all the extant tragedies of Sophocles, "for the use of schools," in two beautiful 12mo volumes. In 1879-81 Professor Campbe l published a very elaborate and complete edition of Sophocles, also at the Clarendon Press, containing almost everything that the advanced scholar would like to know, and the knowledge of which is attainable, in regard to the great Greek dramatist. The present edition is founded upon the larger one, with such omissions, additions, and alterations as were necessary to render it more suitable for use as a text-book. The first volume contains the general introduction and the Greek text; the second, the commentary and indexes. Among the points of interest in the general introduction is a list of the titles, so far as they have been preserved, of the dramas of Sophocles. This list contains the titles of 115 dramas, all but 7 of which have perished with the exception of here and there a few lines or words quoted by other writers. For this wholesale destruction it is some consolation that we are justified in believing that the seven tragedies which time has spared are the masterpieces of Sophocles's genius. There is also a list of about 350 words "peculiar to Sophocles, or copied by later writers only." The metres of the dramas are very minutely treated, and the account of the MSS. from which our texts are made up is very interesting. It will perhaps surprise some of those who are unacquainted with the sources whence our texts of the Greek authors are drawn, to learn that between the date of the death of Sophocles and the date of the MS. which is at once the oldest and the best that we possess, a period of about fifteen centuries intervenes. The commentary is very full, and the "introductory analyses" to the plays are of such extent, and are evidently written with so much care and with such subtle appreciativeness, that they might with almost equal fitness be collectively entitled "Essays on the treatment and development of the plots and characters in tragedies of Sophocles." It may not be out of place to remind our readers that Professor Campbell was the schoolfellow, life-long friend, and biographer of James Clerk Maxwell.

The petition of Prudence Crandall (Mrs. Philleo) to the Connecticut Legislature for redress for injuries done to her estate in Canterbury in 1833-35 has revived the history of her *cause célèbre*. The pulpit (very properly, having some amends to make in the matter) has taken it up, and there lies before us a thin pamphlet discourse, 'Connecticut's Canterbury Tale, and its Moral for To-day,' by John C. Kimball, Pastor of Unity Church, Hartford. It is embellished with the early and the late portrait of the heroine already made widely familiar in the *Century Magazine* and in the Life of Garrison. The preacher is in error in making Miss Crandall a native of New Hampshire. She was born in Rhode Island.

Mr. S. S. Rider, in his last *Book-Notes* (Providence, March 13), gathers together some indications concerning the life of the wife of Roger Williams, whose maiden name is doubtful, as is the time of her arrival in Providence and also the date of her death.

An Audubon Society has been formed to protect wild birds from destruction for millinery and commercial purposes. Its headquarters are at 40 Park Row, New York.

The Sea-Side Laboratory at Annisquam, Mass., will be reopened to students during the coming season, by the aid of the Women's Education Association and under the direction of the Boston Society of Natural History. Address the Curator, Mr. Alpheus Hyatt.

We chronicle with pleasure the beginning of a new undertaking of value to our scholarly readers: *Wiener Beiträge zur Deutschen und Englischen Philologie* (Vienna, Braumüller). The editors are Heinzel, Minor, Schipper—names whose *imprimatur* is a sufficient guarantee to the initiated. In make-up and scope the *Beiträge* are evidently intended to rival the well-known Strassburg *Quellen und Forschungen*. The initial volume has just reached us: 'Sir Thomas Wyatt und seine Stellung in der Entwickelungsgeschichte der Englischen Literatur und Verskunst,' by Rudolph Alscher. The author is a pupil of Schipper's, and his pamphlet of 143 pp. is the expansion and rewriting of his work in Schipper's *Seminar*. It treats of Wyatt's life, works, and metres. Those of us who are already familiar with Schipper's thorough method will recognize in the débutant a worthy pupil. The series opens well, and we wish it a long prosperity.

—The second number of the *New Princeton Review* opens with an article on the poet Gray, by Mr. Lowell. It is sufficient of itself to make the number a success. The rubbish that is talked about the eighteenth century by men who know nothing about it, has now become so oppressively wearisome that the intelligent reader experiences a sense of peculiar gratification when he comes across an article even which has little to recommend it, save the fact that it is free from the conventional cant that finds constant expression about this period. In this case, however, we have exhibited, in addition, the most thorough appreciation of it, both as regards its strength and weakness. Into the nature of Gray's genius and the characteristics both of his prose and poetic style, Mr. Lowell seems to us to show far keener insight than has been displayed by any of that author's numerous critics, though the list of these includes some of the most eminent names in later English literature. We are disposed to say the same thing of the treatment of the poet's personal qualities and habits of mind. About the facts stated, were we to give utterance to any dissent, it would be merely that "courteously friendly" hardly seems a strong enough expression for the relations existing between Walpole and Gray after their reconciliation. On the part of the former, in spite of occasional slight criticism, it is surely not strong enough. Incidentally, the opening pages of this essay give, in a short space, the most felicitous criticism, felicitously expressed, of Dryden that we remember to have seen in our literature. But the whole article, from beginning to end, is full of striking and suggestive passages. Mr. Lowell furnishes from that most delightful of epistolary correspondence (the letters of Gray) a number of entertaining extracts; but it would be no difficult matter to pick from his own article a number of short sentences that would fully parallel them in their wit and wisdom. We trust that this essay is but the beginning of a series. Certainly if anything would justify the English-speaking race in rejoicing that Mr. Lowell had been withdrawn from the field of diplomacy, it would be that he had entered upon the field of literary criticism. There he has no living superior, and the periodical is to be congratulated which can secure his services.

—One of the first fruits of Boston's attempt to organize her charities may be seen in the somewhat surprising little book called 'A Directory of the Charitable and Beneficent Organizations of Boston, together with Legal Suggestions, etc., prepared for the Associated Charities' (Cupples, Upham & Co.). Index and all make less than 200 pages, but recall Sir Walter Scott's story of the man who found in the dictionary "braw stories but unco' short." The Preface, which is really an excellent key to the contents, says that the book contains a good deal besides descriptions of charitable societies. For instance, Vacation Schools, the Hemenway Industrial Schools, and others, Training Schools for Nurses, and Mrs. Shaw's Kindergartens now appear for the first time in the new light which has gleamed upon that much abused word, "charity." The book, too, proves to be a record of the development of ideas and the advancement of the uneducated. Hints toward reform in public institutions are discernible: such as the removal of pauper girls from a criminal institution, and improvement in the boarding-out system, and separation of young offenders from hardened wrong-doers. Manual training in schools is recorded, and the clues given for its increase. Nor is the Public Library omitted, with its branches spreading out into the poorer and outlying districts. We have space only to refer to two other points of special interest, one of which is the little library connected with the central office of the Associated Charities, where any one may consult books bearing upon almost every branch of the large subject of political economy; the other is that portion of the book devoted to "Legal Suggestions." Here we find, in a perfectly accessible form, the statutes relating to the many forms of abuse which persons interested in the unfortunate of the earth are chiefly brought in contact with. Looking at these closely printed pages, and remembering that Boston is a city of only about 400,000 inhabitants, a stranger to the subject might ask, Is it a city entirely of the poor that so much help is needed? The reply must be: "No,

it is a rich city which has been ignorant and unmindful of the true needs of the poor until a nation of paupers has grown up about it." But Boston is not exceptional in this respect, though this book shows it capable of setting a useful example in rectification of past errors.

—The census of Wisconsin for the year 1885, published by State authority, has just appeared. An unexpected blunder is prominent in this work, namely, respecting the area of Wisconsin, which the Secretary of State, the responsible editor, states to be 34,359,246 acres—that is, 53,686 square miles. The true area, according to the United States Census returns (vol. i, p. 668), is 54,450 miles, which is 764 miles more than Wisconsin claims. This mistake may well be called "unexpected," because it is a statistical blunder unfavorable to those who make it. It gives up a tract three-fourths as large as Rhode Island, and shows the acreage of Wisconsin as less than that of Florida, which is really a smaller State. Such errors usually lean to the advantage of those who commit them. Thus Governor Ireland, in a spread-eagle paper on Texas (a disguised immigration pamphlet), in the December number of the *North American Review*, says that State "has an area of 274,000 square miles, which is larger than the half of Europe, omitting Russia." Here is a two-fold misstatement, and that throughout in favor of Texas. Governor Ireland's domain, according to our supreme authority, falls short of 274,000 miles by almost 12,000 miles (11,710)—an extent greater than that of Maryland. Again, instead of being larger than half of non-Russian Europe, Texas, even according to Governor Ireland's overestimate, is not one-third so spacious as that moiety, which is well-nigh 1,700,000 square miles. But to return to Wisconsin. The population, according to the State Census of 1885, amounts to 1,563,423, showing a gain of almost 19 per cent. upon the United States returns for 1880. This vast gain in the last five years may be viewed with suspicion by those who note that in the previous five years, from 1875 to 1880, the increase was only one-third as much, or about 6 1-3 per cent. At all events, as the growth in the last decade was largely in the first half of it, we may fairly infer that history will here repeat itself in slow growth for five years to come. But, taken for all in all, the Wisconsin statistics seem to have been scrupulously gathered and dexterously bound up in sheaves for the garner. As to the increment of 326,696 souls within the last quinquennium, it is noticeable that most of it has taken place in the north. Well-nigh half the growth has been in twelve of the sixty-seven counties, only one of which twelve is in the south; and the growth in that one is due to gravitation to urban life in Milwaukee. In three southern counties the numbers have actually fallen off. There are nine towns in the State of over 10,000 inhabitants; six of these are in the north. More than one-fourth of the entire populational advance is credited to immigration from foreign lands, chiefly Germany and Scandinavia. Hence the percentage of foreigners is now larger than in 1880, though it does not to-day amount to a third of all the inhabitants. In exact figures it stands 493,996 to 1,069,533 natives. But foreign immigrants from beyond the sea are largely men, and those in their best years. Hence one census result otherwise incredible is nothing strange, namely, that in 1880 the foreign-born voters in Wisconsin outnumbered the native-born by 40,000 (40,006). This disproportion is now still more enormous. But the foreign element is nowhere concentrated in large masses. It leaves no corner of the State untouched, and yet forms the majority in no single county. It everywhere prefers the English language. German churches abound, but German preachers find it necessary to abandon their vernacular in at least half their services. If they do not, they are straightway themselves abandoned by their young people. Those who are heretical on monometallism are orthodox on monolingual speech.

—The acreage of Wisconsin, even according to its own underestimate, exceeds that of England by more than two millions. Their actual proportions are—England, 32,590,897 acres, to 34,848,000 in Wisconsin. The farm lands in the State foot up sixteen and one-third millions, and of these not quite one-half are improved; three and two-thirds millions are farm woodland, while the lumber region—pine and hard wood—covers full half the State. Most of this land, when cleared, will be suitable for agricultural purposes. In regard to agricultural and manufacturing products, there is no statement for what year the returns are made. But the year 1884 must be meant. A few leading staples are: corn, thirty-eight millions of bushels; wheat, twenty-one; oats, forty-three; barley, eleven and a half. The tobacco crop (three-fourths of it in two counties) was valued at three millions, and manufactures of it at as much more; cheese also three millions, and butter twice as much. The horses were more than 400,000, or about one to every four inhabitants; hogs three to every horse, and nearly as many slaughtered within the year; cattle and sheep, each about one to each inhabitant. Farms and their products were estimated worth considerably less than six hundred millions, while factories and their output are almost one-third of that sum. The assessed value of town lots being over a hundred millions, the whole visible wealth is set down as eight hundred and seventy millions. The lumber crop was reckoned at twenty-seven millions of dollars, and that of beer at a third as much. With establishments turning out nine millions of beer annually, and with forty thousand and more majority of foreign voters, the prospect for prohibitory temperance legislation seems faint. A peculiar feature in the Wisconsin census is an enumeration of all the ex-soldiers and sailors who served during the late civil war and are now resident in the State. The number of these returned is almost thirty thousand (29,686). Some of them were discovered in each of all the sixty-seven counties. An appendix of 387 pages contains the names of all these veterans, with the postal address of each, also his rank, company, and regiment, and the name of the State or force in which each man was mustered. This is a roll of honor well worth preserving by the art preservative of all arts, and, owing to the polyglot character of Wisconsin citizens, the list furnishes such a mine for studies in patronomatology as cannot be easily paralleled.

—The second number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Paris: Bussod, Valadon et Cie.; Boston: C. Schoenhof) has appeared. Like its predecessor for January, this number shows the delicacy of the directing spirit of its editor, M. Anatole France. In lingering over its luxurious pages we feel that its writers have submitted to the influence of the *milieu* or of the editor or of both. There is in most of the articles a charming grace and lightness of touch to which their authors have not always accustomed us elsewhere, and, as it were, a subordination of the aggressive personality of each to the artistic harmony of the whole. Among these authors are the names of three Academicians, MM. Alexandre Dumas, François Coppée, and Maxime Du Camp, but the most attractive articles are by less famous men. M. Maurice Barrès, in his "Notes sur Paul Bourget," shows a power of appreciation and of critical insight, and a moderation and sobriety in the expression of his ardent admiration, that give a literary as well as a critical value to this essay, the most serious one in the number. It is accompanied and illustrated by a striking portrait of M. Paul Bourget, a face which will probably be a surprise to most of his readers, but, in the end, a most satisfying representation both to the eye and to the mind. A graceful and lively paper by a writer who is generally neither gay nor brilliant, M. Louis Ganderax, the serious theatrical critic of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, is entitled "À propos d'une aquarelle de Madame Madeleine Lemaire." The aquarelle is reproduced in a beautiful full-page illustration, and represents the comédienne, Mlle. Réjane, *en pierrot noir*. There is much delightful talk about the actress, given in a very charming way, and without a touch of that flippancy which in such writing so often takes the place of wit. M. Fernand Calmettes writes about what, when the present number was issued, was the approaching "Exposition des Aquarellistes." The paper is profusely illustrated with reproductions of the water colors exhibited, in the delicate tints and with the indescribable touches which convey so well the impression of the originals. The accompanying article is most attractively written, and is always as far as possible from recalling the diluted catalogue which such things usually are. Among the many beautiful aquarelles of the Exposition here reproduced, none is more charming than M. Guillaume Dubufe's "Illustration d'andante," which surrounds and blends into the music of Gounod's "Andante d'un quatuor," making in every way the two most exquisite pages of the book. The number opens with a very strange article by Alexandre Dumas, entitled "Une Volée de Paradoxes," and closes with the usual literary and theatrical notices, all in keeping with the general excellence of the *revue*. As an added luxury for the reader, a delicately ornamented movable cover of levant morocco is furnished to yearly subscribers, serving to enclose and protect the current number while in use.

—In the *Bibliothèque Universelle* of Geneva for January, Alphonse de Candolle gives an interesting abstract of Alexander Graham Bell's memoir, published by the National Academy of Sciences at Washington, on the production by selection in the United States of a race of deaf mutes—a publication which has naturally excited the particular attention of those who affect scientific studies in their relation to social well-being. De Candolle objects to the term *congenital* deafness, because the sense of hearing, as he thinks, is never manifested until some time after birth, and he is confident that most cases of infantile deafness are brought on by imprudent exposure of the new-born to cold. Under this view, he refers to the early baptism by immersion in the Russian Church as a most dangerous custom. He might also have instanced the very early baptisms in chilly churches of the Latin communion. As to correctives, he insists, with Bell, upon the exclusive adoption of the method of articulation. But he adds that the English language is one of the least favorable to this mode of teaching, being the one in which the vowels are the most indistinct and inarticulated, and in which the movements of the lips, so marked in French and still more in Italian, are largely replaced by accentuation or intonation, of which there is no outward visible sign. A distinguished deaf-mute acquaintance of his, who could read French and German discourse from the lips with almost complete facility, remarked that he probably might do the same with English if he could look into the throat, but not otherwise. We know in this country a fairly similar instance. Mr. Bell's suggestion for suppressing the nascent race of deaf mutes by prohibiting their intermarriage, De Candolle would extend to the marriage of all

cousins-german; for he is convinced that consanguineous unions tend to propagate and develop other maladies and defects as well as the one in question. Moreover, he is of the opinion that the United States, of all countries, is the one in which such marriages may be most readily restrained by legal enactment, because its citizens are less dominated than in Europe by ideas of personal independence! To continue in his own words: "Nous voyons en effet les Américains fermer les yeux sur la liberté personelle quand il s'agit des Chinois, des buveurs d'eau-de-vie ou des Mormons, tandis que les Anglais et les Hollandais ne s'inquiètent dans leurs colonies ni des Célestes, ni des ivrognes, ni des millions de sujets polygames."

—German authors are perpetually airing their grievances, and insisting that respect be paid them, not as individuals, but in their professional capacity. They have two organs for their complaints, one of which, the *Deutsche Schriftsteller-Zeitung*, edited by Joseph Kürschner, who is laughed at by many of his contemporaries as a jack-at-all-trades, but who, even they have to admit, is successful, if not good, at all, appears to care for no readers except the authors themselves. The other is the *Magazin für die Litteratur*, which appeals to a wider public. We have previously quoted from this journal respecting the injury to the profession caused by circulating-libraries and the like—complaints which seemed to us absurd, not to say childish; hence we are the more pleased with an article in a late number by Carlos von Gagern, a writer who died the other day, after having seen a remarkably great deal of the world. He writes with a degree of common sense which, under the circumstances, is as surprising as it is refreshing. The profession of authorship, he remarks, is not, as is often asserted, a new or young profession; it is not a profession at all; it has never existed as such An author is something one must become, not by study or conscious intention, but, so to say, by accident. Moreover, authors are nearly always something else, and define themselves accordingly. Hence Von Gagern objects to the name "Authors' Union" for the society of German authors, and, more strongly, to the proposed fund for the relief of indigent members of that body, arguing that authors should provide for the results of illness or other misfortunes, like common folk, by means of the ordinary life-insurance companies. Another point in favor of his view, which he does not mention, but which seems to us important, is the extraordinary number of writers for the literary press in Germany, which, taken in connection with the extremely low scale of payment of all except popular novelists, indicates that authorship is there pursued for subjective rather than objective results. Writing appears to be as common as, say, piano playing, and its chief object to please the ear of the performer.

RECENT FICTION.

Valentino. By William Waldorf Astor. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Domesticus. By William Allen Butler. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A Conventional Bohemian. By Edmund Pendleton. D. Appleton & Co.

The Knave of Hearts. By Robert Grant. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

John Maidment. By Julian Sturgis. D. Appleton & Co.

Bonnyborough. By Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

High-lights. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

'VALENTINO' is described on the title-page as a romance. The author has misapprehended the meaning of the word. Romance, when written, implies the presence of imagination, and, though not in the same degree as a novel, of design developed coherently and with smooth consecutiveness. 'Valentino' is an assemblage of facts, creating no illusion by their arrangement and treatment, forming no picture to the mind, conveying no definite impression either of the meaning and effect of the incidents or of the character of the people engaged in the action. The failure of the author to produce a romance may be ascribed, perhaps, to a fundamental misconception of the kind of historical material from which a romance can possibly be produced. Rienzi may have been a charlatan, a demagogue, a *poseur*. He may have stirred the people by artful appeals to their vanity only, to the shadowy memory of Rome's past grandeur, cleverly ignoring their long and shameful supineness, sloth, and corruption. But he was essentially human, that is, his conspicuous characteristics were not of one nation, nor of one period, but of all time. Therefore his enthusiasms, his passions, and his failures afforded splendid food for the imagination of a man of another nationality and a later civilization. Cæsar Borgia, *il duca Valentinos*, Valentino, was the most profligate, depraved, and inhuman of a race and a period to which these attributes were peculiarly common. By the philosophical historian his character may be used as a typification of the political tendencies and methods of his age in England, France, and Spain, as well as in Italy. The manufacturer of the "penny-dreadful" may work him up with great success and profit. But the author of 'Valentino,' making no pretension to either of these functions, has simply gathered into a book his most striking adventures in war, with a slight recognition of his and his father's adventures in love. He has not only failed to invest the Borgias with an atmosphere of romance, but he has hurled a lance at those who have previously attempted it, an attempt splendidly successful because altogether of the "penny-dreadful" kind. His vindication of Lucretia does not, however, excite the hostility of a surprise. Most of us have already become reconciled to the loss of our old-time horror of her atrocities, letting it go along with our faith in William Tell's archery and "the sword that scarce an archangel could wield."

If Mr. Butler's 'Domesticus' is not literature, it has at least the air. It is an allegorical tale of New York, having for its direct motive the discussion and solution of the household-service difficulty. The composition is admirably correct, and the allegorical idea and style are sustained throughout to the most trifling forms of speech and descriptive phrase and word. Addison's style was marvellously correct and consistent, and the *Spectator* is literature. An analysis of almost any one of Lamb's essays will reveal erratic thought and pleasant little irregularities of grammar and construction. Yet these essays are better examples of pure literature than the *Spectator*. The lovable essayist was gloriously free from the moral nightmares which haunted Addison, infecting even his lightest work. Therefore it appears that though correctness and consistency of style may be important elements in the production of literature, they are not essential, while a too obvious moral intention is a hindrance to its perfection. Mr. Butler's desire to set people right about problems political and social as well as domestic, crops up everywhere, seriously impairing the beauty and interest of his work, and, in consequence, the enjoyment of the reader. The final picture of a whole family radiating the most advanced and ever progressing virtue is more apt to excite harmless mirth than recognition of our own wicked ways and resolution to mend them. Still, 'Domesticus' has claims upon our regard and admiration beyond those qualities of style to which we have referred. There are passages of quite poetical beauty, touches of lively satire, and vigorous opinions, notably on the theme "Domesticus Africanus," couched in language passionate without vehemence, genial without hypocrisy. Moreover, the author's manifest pleasure in narrating the ups and downs of his just and discreetly merciful "Little Lady" is infectious, if not to the point of compelling us to finish them at a sitting, at least enough to induce us to return to them again and again.

'A Conventional Bohemian' is also a first venture in fiction, and, no more than 'Valentino' or 'Domesticus,' bears the Grub Street stamp. It is a society novel, but the average society novel is many things which it is not. It is not a handbook of etiquette, nor a genealogical history of first families, nor would it find its real sphere of usefulness in the apartment of a lady who designs "robes et manteaux." It is a society novel because it has to do with those whose chief business is to "chase the glowing hours with flying feet," and whose consciousness is their Waterloo. Something of Mr. Butler's pleasure in his work is here discoverable, and the author's desire to say his say about the passions, emotions, follies, and foibles of a circumscribed portion of humanity not infrequently obscures his perception of the relation between character and opinion. But there is nothing quaint or allegorical in the method or style. It is all very direct and modern. It is as modern as the telephone and the mugwump and the dude. The only suggestion of the antique is in the leading lady. She, we are bluntly told, is introduced at the advanced age of thirty. On reflection, however, the selection of so mature a person for an important rôle appears to us as the most modern feature. It may be hailed as a blessed audacity, a sign that the European mind is about to be relieved from its distress about the prominence of the young girl in American life and fiction. Besides, the old girl has long suffered the neglect or contempt of novelists She is between the *jeune fille* and the old maid. She never had the ingenuousness of the one; she never can have the inflexibility of the other. The moral severity common to both is impossible to her. If she had married young, she would still be "young Mrs. So-and-so." If she ever does marry, she is virtually the old girl still. So the old girl whom the conventional Bohemian, Villars, takes to illumine the domestic hearth, remains the reckless, whimsical, unscrupulous Angèle Wentworth. He realized, too late, that perhaps the only situation in life where the old girl cannot rally her forces and shine is by the domestic hearth. There is no good in trying to depict the old girl as a lovable person in life, or a person who, in fiction, can attract the sympathies of right-minded people. The author has not tried so to depict Angèle Wentworth. He has treated her without sentiment, and, indeed, throughout the book there is no vestige of sentimental consideration for popular notions about what is proper and beautiful in the characters of a novel. Except in the glibness of their talk, none of the people are literary figures. They are real. Angèle suffers most from an excessive flow of language, but all are infected with the malady. The quantity of frequently irrelevant talk weakens a really strong emotional drama and wearies the reader, not with its dulness, but its persistent, abnormal sparkle. It is in a way unnatural, too, if we insist that a novelist shall reproduce life, and not eliminate from among summer loungers the numbers of the dull and the commonplace. The movement is still further impeded by the author's lengthy analyses, explanations, and criticisms.

The bold, reckless nature of Angèle, with its substratum of passion and superstructure of

cruel selfishness, the irresolution of Villars, always marring his best and more deeply degrading his worst; the calm perfection of Constance—all are made sufficiently evident by the behavior of the several individuals in both ordinary and exceptional circumstances. Even if they are not completely understood, it is more satisfactory to the reader to make his own interpretation, and better art in the author not to be prodigal of labels. But, on the whole, the novel is clever and entertaining. It is so singularly free from cant that it may be considered immoral by the multitude who still confound freedom from cant and hypocrisy with immorality. The faults are mostly technical. The author's range of thought, and perhaps of sympathy, has been limited by his horizon of observation; but, as far as the thought and the sympathy go, they are clear and warm. In the balance of judgment, the courage of opinion, the passion and conviction of some chapters, lies the promise of work of wider scope and more catholic application.

There is a frivolity that exhilarates and a frivolity that depresses more profoundly than meditations among the tombs. Of the first description the frivolity of 'The Knave of Hearts' is not. Undoubtedly the author meant to write an airy, pungent satire about the goings-on of the harmless Don Juan who roams the rocks at Mount Desert and leads every notable german the Continent over. Playful satire is a treacherous weapon, and the author is not the first whom it has discredited in the attempt to wield it. The situations in this production are a series of drawings from *Life*, without their occasional quick humor of idea and their clever execution. If anything can be more incomprehensible than the writing and publishing of such inanity, it is the author's reason for giving it an old-time flavor by the use and abuse of Latinisms; by such phrases as "in sooth," "of yore"; and by wording a letter, presumably written in 1823, in an approximation to the English of 1382. The style suggests that the author has looked over 'Rasselas' for his words; and, lest he should have overlooked Imlac's description of a mental state which seems to us to be that of the man who can perpetrate such a book as 'The Knave of Hearts,' we will quote it. It is that condition of "mere privation by which nothing can be produced; it is a vacuity in which the soul sits motionless and torpid for want of attraction."

Julian Sturgis's 'John Maidment,' judged by an absolute standard, is good; by comparison with most of modern fiction, it is great. It is an admirable piece of work, strong, dignified, calm—such work as becomes a man. It shows the author's power to pierce the heart, and his mastery of a fine method for exposing the core of things to a more obtuse world. Maidment of Balliol, the finest speaker that Oxford had heard during generations, is introduced in the flush of his youth and the glory of his last and greatest speech in the debating room of Oxford Union. Very soon we perceive that the splendid young theoretical avenger of injustice is going to damn himself out of his own mouth, by his own deeds, and yet remain unconscious as a baby of his innate baseness. We all have met his like and suspected him; yet so impressive is his exalted estimate of himself that a modest man will doubt his own intuition, question the correctness of his observation, often stifle his conviction through very shame of having criticised such glowing unselfishness and uprightness. He is a much more complicated and dangerous individual than the conscious hypocrite trading on credulity. When invested with Maidment's intellectual brilliancy and personal charm, he is more harmful than a pestilence. Mr. Sturgis has not permitted Maidment to save himself by any moral grace. His work is artistically complete. He has approached it scientifically, and its completeness helps to prove that a good artistic creation implies the mastery of a scientific method. The finish of the minor characters is an essential part of the completeness. Though the author leaves Maidment still on the threshold of life, his task is quite finished. We know him thoroughly, and the record of a thousand defeats or triumphs could not add a grain to the fulness of our knowledge.

It is late in the day to comment upon the high spiritual flights and excursions into New England kitchens which are the principal elements of Mrs. Whitney's stories. The argument of 'Bonnyborough' is, that destiny hinges on one's baptismal name. And why should not a name be a power? the author questions. "It is given us solemnly, in the very moment that we are baptized into the name of the Lord. And the name of the Lord is his own revelation." To those who have taken a course of Mrs. Whitney, the statement of the argument carries conviction; others need only read 'Bonnyborough' to feel that if elaborate demonstration is proof, the hypothesis is proved irrefutably. If Peace-Polly and Doctor Comfort had been named respectively Jane and Thomas, they would certainly not have had the chance to quote Isaiah profusely in the moment of acknowledgment of their mutual passion, and it is just possible that an almost literal transcription of the Episcopal marriage service might never have adorned the last pages of a novel.

'High-lights,' which is said to be the work of Mrs. Whitney's daughter, is quite as pious as 'Bonnyborough' and much more intelligible. It is rather a pretty idyl, narrating how a neat-handed Phyllis, of rare domestic and intellectual accomplishments, ensnared the heart of a wandering knight of the pen and brush. It is very nice to know that intellectual giants on a holiday become as babes. The melancholy *Jaques* doing *Silvius* unbeknown would not offer a more refreshing spectacle. The sophisticated intelligence has some difficulty in accepting the probability of such transformation, but to the author of 'High-lights' it is evidently as natural, easy, and positive a process as breathing.

Ecclesiastical Institutions: being Part VI. of the Principles of Sociology. By Herbert Spencer. D. Appleton & Co. 1886.

Mr. Spencer's philosophy of religion starts from the premise—which most theologians will of course deny—that man has no innate religious ideas. Religious belief is a purely natural growth, the course of which can be traced from its germ in the mind of the savage to its latest stages as exhibited in the creed or scepticism of civilized man. He is even able to take a step beyond this, and indicate the probable future of religion.

All religion, then, Mr. Spencer traces back to the belief in ghosts. It is the fancy of a double existence which suggests the notion of agencies transcending experience. The other self supposed by primitive mankind to wander in dreams, the double which is imagined to survive at death, "is simply the original man, with some added powers of going about secretly and doing good and evil." These earliest supernatural agents are conceived as having but temporary existences, and they are supposed in the end to die like the natural persons whose representatives they are. Thus, the Unkulunkulu, or Old-Old One of the Zulus, is regarded as absolutely dead, and consequently past praying to. But where circumstances lead to repetition of sacrifices, kept up from generation to generation, there is eventually generated the belief in a permanently existing spirit. These increase in number, and "there is a strengthening tendency to think of them as everywhere around and as causing all unusual occurrences." Ordinary ghosts are propitiated by their descendants, but other spirits are introduced into the pantheon for prudential reasons—*e. g.*, those of dreaded individuals whom it may be desirable to propitiate. There come to be also local gods, good and evil spirits, gods reigning over this or that order of phenomena.

The attributes of these gods are derived entirely from human experiences: they eat, drink, sleep, fight, are wounded, suffer pain, are angry, jealous, or envious, just as men are. With advancing civilization, however, there is a gradual dematerialization and improvement of the idea of deity. The god ceases to be tangible; later he ceases to be visible or audible, his intelligence grows stronger, he is not conceived as making mistakes and repenting; his gross passions, originally among his most admired attributes, gradually fade away, leaving only those which the better part of mankind are inclined to regard with approval. Finally we reach the conception of a single God, of unlimited power and wisdom and benevolence, who does not, however, directly reveal himself to man by manifestations of his power, except under special circumstances and at very rare intervals.

Such having been the history of religion, what is to be its future? As cruelty is one of the human attributes always attributed to God in primitive times, so, through the process of "deanthropomorphization," this must be taken completely away, and consequently all belief in hell and damnation will disappear. So, too, will the notion that the Deity has a "craving for praise," and will be angry if prayers are not offered. But we must go beyond this. "A consciousness constituted of ideas and feelings caused by objects and occurrences cannot be simultaneously occupied with all objects and all occurrences throughout the universe"; consequently, we cannot conceive of God as having emotions, and there are difficulties just as great in conceiving him as having intelligence or will. Thus we shall be compelled to drop "the higher anthropomorphic characters given to the First Cause," as we have long since dropped the lower, and, having attained the conception of a God without any human qualities, we find that "it becomes a consciousness which transcends the forms of distinct thought, though it for ever remains as consciousness."

But now we are brought face to face with a difficulty of a very serious character;

> "How can such a final consciousness of the Unknowable, thus tacitly alleged to be true, be reached by successive modifications of a conception which was utterly untrue? The ghost theory of the savage is baseless. The material double of a dead man in which he believes, never had any existence. And if by gradual dematerialization of this double was produced the conception of the supernatural agent in general; if the conception of a deity formed by the dropping of some human attributes and transfiguration of others resulted from continuance of this process, is not the developed and purified conception, reached by pushing the process to its limit, a fiction also? Surely, if the primitive belief was absolutely false, all derived beliefs must be absolutely false."

Mr. Spencer's answer to this question, he warns his readers, will prove to most of them unexpected. It is that at the outset a germ of truth was contained in the primitive conception—the truth that the power which manifests itself in consciousness is but a differently conditioned form of the power which manifests itself beyond consciousness. To most readers this would seem to point to a refined Pantheism as the future religion of thinking men, but Mr. Spencer is not a Pantheist. He seems to conceive of religious belief as it exists transformed into a kind of en-

lightened wonder at the incomprehensibility of the whole subject; "and this feeling is not likely to be decreased but to be increased by that analysis of knowledge which, while forcing him to Agnosticism, yet continually prompts him to imagine some solution of the great enigma which he knows cannot be solved."

If such is the future of belief, what is to be that of religious observance? Mr. Spencer has an answer for this question also in another chapter. In the first place, "all observance implying the thought of propitiation (*i. e.*, all prayer) may be expected to lapse." On the other hand, the teaching of correct rules as to the conduct of life will become a more and more important branch of the service, while "musical expression" will be given to the feeling which is to supplant the old dogmatic beliefs. An objector might say that there is no evidence of any tendency of this kind at present. In all the churches of our day there is as strong a tendency towards the strengthening of ritual as there is a weakening of dogmatic belief, and the sermon as an instrument of ethical teaching is surely not in its prime, but in its decadence. Music is undoubtedly growing in favor; but it is music connected with the adoration of a not wholly deanthropomorphized God. Mr. Spencer's speculations up to the point of his declared agnosticism we can understand; but granted agnosticism as an accepted creed, we can see no future for religion. Christianity, certainly, was built up by men who believed in its dogmas; the Religion of the Future will have to be built up by means of belief of some kind, or it will be something very different from what men have hitherto called religion. The answer to the difficulty which Mr. Spencer very fairly states is still to be given. If the religions of the past were founded in delusion, and God is the product of delusion, or at any rate of thinking we know something of which we know nothing, why is not religion itself a delusion? What is the "germ of truth" which makes the product of all this delusion the highest truth of all? In fact, what is Truth? But the answer to this question is contained in other portions of Mr. Spencer's philosophy.

Handbuch des Oeffentlichen Rechts der Gegenwart, in Monographien. Herausgegeben von Dr. Heinrich Marquardsen, Professor in Erlangen. *Amerika*, bearbeitet von Dr. H. von Holst. Freiburg i. B.: J. E. B. Mohr. 1885.

MARQUARDSEN'S 'Handbook of Public Law' is a work of encyclopædic character, such as Germany produces in great number and excellence. It is in form a large octavo, and is planned to cover the entire field of contemporary constitutional law. It is divided into half-volumes, the first two of which are of general nature, the next four—vols. ii. and iii.—being devoted to Germany, each of the independent States of Germany, large and small, being the subject of a separate treatise. Of these three volumes vol. ii. is now complete, also the first half of vol. i. and the second half of vol. iii. Vol iv., completing the work, is devoted to the constitutions of other countries. Of this, however, only a very small portion is as yet completed—Austria by Albrich, the United States by Von Holst, and Great Britain (with dependencies) by Marquardsen. The division before us is the third *Abtheilung* of the first *Halbband* of vol. iv., and contains 189 pages.

The laborious and systematic Germans appear to be taking out of the hands of us more superficial Anglo-Saxons the philosophical study of our own Constitutions, and Dr. von Holst promises to do for the United States what Gneist has done for England, and to provide us with a more thorough and complete account of our Constitution and its history than any American has yet found time and courage to undertake. His point of view and method of treatment are more distinctly historical than those of the Berlin professor; the work before us—his systematic treatise—is, as it were, but a trifling diversion from the solid historical work upon which he has been engaged for so many years, and makes a very small show by the side of Gneist's ponderous and exhaustive volumes. Nevertheless it is enough for its purpose. However great, for the purpose of detailed study, may be the value of elaborate treatises on constitutional law, there are few classes of work more dreary and profitless for general readers. The brilliant and accurate generalizations of Bagehot, contained in a small duodecimo, give a more intelligible notion of the English Constitution as a living and working organization than any amount of minute analysis. So with Von Holst's book. It is not at all like Bagehot's in its treatment; but it reminds one of it in this, that it treats our Constitution and Government as active forces rather than as a formal set of rules.

This characteristic of the work is well illustrated by the section upon "the three departments" (p. 38). It has been the fashion of late to undervalue this characteristic feature of the American Constitution. It is easy to see that no such independence of departments as the early disciples of Montesquieu contended for is possible; and—largely under the influence of Bagehot and the theory of the English Constitution—there has been a tendency to consider this independence as one of the weak points, and, in fact, a fatal defect of our system. We turned to this section of Von Holst's treatise with special interest, and were not disappointed in finding a view which appears to us to preserve what is essential in the earlier theory, and to add to it that vitality and practical character in which it had been found deficient. He quotes Pomeroy to the effect that the departments are in no sense independent of one another; and the 'Federalist,' as saying that each has a constitutional control over the others; and then adds:

"Since, by the organization of the Government, each department has received a constitutional control over the two others, it stands to reason that in the exercise of this control there can be no superiority or inferiority [*Ueber- und Unterordnung*]. On the other hand, it is a fundamental principle of constitutional law that the three factors of Government are placed on a complete equality with one another [*vollkommen gleichgeordnet*]. Placed on an equality, but not perhaps possessed of equal powers [*gleichmächtig*]. In this respect the Constitution has set them on an entirely different footing, and the distinction thus made has even been materially enhanced by the actual development of relations."

This leads him to discuss the claims made repeatedly by Congress, and once by the President (Jackson), for a superiority of their respective departments over the others, ending with the profound remark that the department "upon which regularly devolves the final interpretation, has in the first place received the greatest possible stability, and in the next place has been completely withdrawn from any immediate influence upon its composition on the part of the people."

Equally satisfactory is the discussion of the subject of State sovereignty. We have thought, from some expressions in his History, that Professor von Holst leaned over-much in the direction of centralization, and underrated the share of the States as integral parts of the national organism. If we have been right in this suspicion—and we have not been able to find the passages which suggested it—we find no trace of this view in the discussion before us, which recognizes the constitutional rights of the States in the heartiest and completest manner. The discussion in question, which begins on page 23, is a masterly one, and in it the relation of nation and States receives the clearest possible and, as we think, the most correct statement.

The principal part of the work is, as is natural, concerned with the National Constitution and Government. Part iii. (Part i. being introductory) treats of the constitutional law of the States in thirty pages, and of the institutions of self-government in about ten more. These chapters will be found very valuable. The Constitutions of our several States are not easy to study and to compare, though it is from a study and comparison of them that the tendencies of American constitutional law are most easily discovered; for the extreme difficulty—amounting to a practical impossibility—of effecting amendments in our national Constitution has given a great development to what may be called the unwritten Constitution, while in the States, on the other hand, the organic law is so readily and frequently amended that every passing phase of popular opinion finds expression in some Constitutional provision. The sections upon the institutions of self-government touch upon a more familiar subject—thanks to the Johns Hopkins Studies—and here the most valuable part is perhaps that which treats of the cities, the most vulnerable part of our political system. The relation of the towns and counties to one another, and to popular self-government—a subject not well understood even in America—is rather inadequately treated.

There is a good index, but—strange omission—no copy of the Constitution itself.

Suicide dans l'Antiquité et dans les Temps Modernes. Par Gaston Garrisson, docteur en droit, etc., etc. [Librairie nouvelle de droit et de jurisprudence.] Paris: Arthur Rousseau. 1885. 8vo, pp. 280.

THIS serious and to some extent scholarly study of the historical conditions of suicide, of the development of "that malady of humanity," has for its object "the exact definition of the nature and causes of suicide, and the designation of the remedy, if there be one, which should be applied to it." The profound interest which is touched by all such investigations may perhaps give pertinence also to a résumé of the contents of this volume, and to a few comments upon it.

The opening pages are a hasty sketch of the attitude of early times with regard to this form of homicide, in the course of which M. Garrisson speaks of its condemnation by the laws of Moses. But the injunction in the Decalogue, "Thou shalt not kill," is the sole expression in "the laws of Moses" of what has been metamorphosed by the Church into a condemnation of suicide, regardless of the far stronger emphasis to be laid on it in relation to war and capital punishment. There is not in the whole Bible (whatever Shakspere thought was to be found there) any "canon" against "self-slaughter," or any one condemnatory phrase in the many narrations contained in it of suicidal deaths. M. Garrisson again mistakes, in the opposite direction, when, in a later page, he says that the Bible calls the suicide of Razis (II Maccabees) "a noble action," and in thinking, apparently, that it was a voluntary escape from wrong-doing.

After speaking of the condemnation of suicide by "the laws of Moses" and by the Vedas, and later by Mahomet, its permission and more than permission to old persons by the laws of Manu, and as a form of sacrifice by (the followers of) Vishnu, and as release from dishonor in China and Japan, M. Garrisson as hastily touches on the famous suicides of Asia, Africa, Egypt, Carthage, and Greece. He dwells a little on the repressive laws of Athens, Thebes, and Sparta, while mentioning that at Athens suicide was permitted by authority if the Areopagus approved the motives of it; and he refers (without giving

his authority) to the statement of Valerius Maximus that at Marseilles, when a Greek colony, hemlock was prepared at the public expense for those whose desire to hasten their end was approved by the Senate.

He then notes, still hastily, the opposition to suicide of Socrates and Aristotle, and Plato's contrary favorable view of it—in certain determinate cases—a view maintained later by the Stoics, who formulated their principles in the proposition that suicide was permissible in these five cases: 1. Propter magnam necessitatem: great compulsion. 2. Propter pudorem: sense of honor. 3. Propter delirium animi: insanity. 4. Propter insanabilis corporis morbos: incurable bodily disease. 5. Propter paupertatem: poverty. After a few sentences regarding the sects of the Cyrenaics, the Cynics, and the Pyrrhonians, not touching, strangely, on the Epicureans, M. Garrisson enters more at length into the subject as connected with the Romans and Roman law before the Empire and under the emperors, and more especially in the time of Justinian.

The causes which in the Pandects of Justinian were held to render suicide legitimate were eight: 1. Disgust at life (tædium vitæ); 2. Incurable physical suffering; 3. The death of one beloved; 4. The shame of an unpayable debt; 5. Desire for distinction; 6. Insanity; 7. Idiocy; 8. Outraged honor (of women). All other suicides were punishable by the deprivation of funeral rights and the forfeiture of the property of the individual. But it is difficult to see what others were likely to occur; remorse, almost the only suicidal emotion not classifiable under these heads, ranking even now, and still less then, not as a frequent motive. The Roman legislation concerning suicide thus practically declared every free man at liberty to die—every man except soldiers and slaves and those under accusation of crimes, whose self-inflicted deaths were held to infringe public and private rights; to them, consequently, suicide was entirely forbidden.

This assumption—of a man's life being due to others—which only in part pervaded Roman law, became the principal point of view, and all-powerful in Canon law, and from both these sources the modern legislation of all nations has been deeply tinged and influenced, and the public opinion of all peoples. The murder of one's self came long ago to be regarded as akin to the murder of another. It is an illustration how completely similar conceptions are now born in our blood that we find a declaimer of popular beliefs, Edmond About, in his volume entitled 'Le Progrès,' asserting that "gratitude [to the social organization to which we belong] should itself alone forbid it" (suicide), and adding that till the age of twenty-seven (!) a man does not belong to himself in consequence of his indebtedness to society for the benefits bestowed on him.

M. Garrisson passes on from Roman law through Canon law to the Droit Coutumier, exhibiting thus more especially the legal customs of his own land; and so, reaching present times, he turns from the records of legislation to the records of statistics of suicide throughout Europe in late years. It is only too well known that these statistics show a steady increase of this "malady"—M. Garrisson believes the homicide of one's self always to be that. He therefore naturally completes his work of investigation by considering it in its aspects of contagion and inheritance. And after all this research what are his conclusions? In passing judgment on those who kill themselves *en pleine connaissance de cause*, he sets aside all question of the so-to-speak legitimate right of men to suicide, and also of their duty toward God in this matter, and asks merely if we have a moral right to break the ties that connect us with society. He accepts the answer of M. About, that *gratitude* should hold our hand; at least, apparently, that a man should never kill himself till after he is twenty-seven.

But many wise men, with a true passion for moral perfection, and a noble fear of moral deterioration, have felt not only that piteous circumstances of helpless and hopeless suffering, sorrow, insanity, and poverty justified suicide, but have held that "a man of equanimity and magnanimity, good, modest, true, and rational," if he found himself losing his grasp of the virtues dear to him, should "go courageously into some nook where he can maintain them, or even depart at once from life, not in passion, but with simplicity, and freedom, and modesty, after doing this one [laudable] thing in life, to have gone out of it thus." And Marcus Aurelius, who thus believed, had as high a conception as ever man had of our relations to society; since he was convinced that felicity was to be found only "in passing from one social act to another social act, thinking of God."

If we look at this subject from still another point of view, it will be seen that the death of each of us is simply a matter of sooner or later, of before or after the deaths of others; it is inevitable; it may, in the course of nature, occur at any moment; it is an event that has no likeness to those wrong-doings of men which might *not be*, and which shatter and torture and mutilate the existences around them. Is it, then, certain that we can rightly assume that we are not bound to exercise our judgment with regard to the length of our lives, as well as about the course of our lives? Is it certain that we are judicious when we believe with M. Garrisson that the desire to shorten our lives is always insanity? Can such a desire never arise from tenderness toward others, to spare them the most mournful and exhausting of burdens, and to diminish the sum of sorrow in the world and of unavailing effort?

These are questions every man should answer for himself, not accepting any decrees which do not appeal to his own reason. Meantime every man would join with the author before us in the wish to diminish the causes of suicide; but we doubt whether many would agree with him that "the sole efficacious means . . . is to render the condition of men easier." The facts do not appear to confirm this view. The condition of the masses becomes "easier" with every generation; the ratio of suicides is steadily increasing; and M. Garrisson himself quotes with agreement the assertion of a writer (Esquirol), who says, "The more civilization develops, the more do needs increase, . . . and the more suicides must there be." It is evident, therefore, that we must define first what "easy conditions" are, before we can proceed to produce them for our fellow-creatures.

M. Garrisson's last words are a quotation from Beccaria concerning crime, here applied to suicide: "Pour combattre le suicide, que la liberté marche éclairée du flambeau de la science." Let us turn rather to the eloquent passage of Rousseau, one of the so-called "apologists" of suicide: "Every time that thou art tempted to depart from life, say within thyself, 'Let me do one more good deed before I die.' Then seek some one in poverty to succor, some one in misfortune to console, some one in oppression to defend. . . . If this consideration keep thee living to-day, it will do so to-morrow, and the next day, and all thy life." Let us also remember, not so much for ourselves as for others, in thinking of the choice of life or death, the words of Seneca (another apologist) quoted by Montaigne (another yet): "I have forced myself to live, and merely to live is sometimes magnanimity."

Upland and Meadow: a Poaetquissings Chronicle. By Charles C. Abbott, M.D. Pp. x, 397, 8vo. Harpers. 1886.

POAETQUISSINGS is an ancient name for a little creek near by which Dr. Abbott resides, and his chronicle relates to the birds, fishes, insects, and other animals whose habits and manners he has minutely observed and entertainingly recorded. The flowers, birds, and animals of midwinter afford him an interesting chapter. The ways of redbirds, wrens, and grakles, of the spade-footed toad, the opossum, mink, and 'coon, are lovingly dwelt upon and enthusiastically described. The multitudinous contents of a fisherman's seine afford a basis for a dissertation on the water insects and those little fishes which often become their prey. The chapters on a summer at home, September sunshine, and an October diary, carry the reader well through the incidents of a country year devoted to the study of wood and field life. Dr. Abbott is a keen and appreciative observer; that in watching the flying and creeping things of upland and meadow he is in his most congenial element, is obvious on every page. He sometimes reminds us of that notable person whose "foible was omniscience." It is sometimes quite evident that he is too prone to generalize, and that his enthusiasm saturates its object, in some cases, with thoughts, ideas, and emotions foreign to its intrinsic nature. But this, while a fault, considered from the standpoint of an exact biographer of animated nature, is, from another point of view, not to be too harshly condemned. There is no doubt that, in general, both the naturalist and the layman are more apt to underrate the intelligence of birds, wild animals, and insects than to overrate it. This has its apparent exceptions in those forms which are useful to man, and are therefore brought most closely under his observation, such as bees, poultry, and domestic animals. But if in some of these the tendency is in the opposite direction, and such a relatively stupid and small-brained animal as the horse has thus been exalted far above his natural position in the scale of intelligence, it may help to equalize matters when observers like Abbott take up the cudgels on behalf of the spiders, the bats, and the garter-snakes. Every bright, active boy will find new use for his eyes and ears on summer vacations; the closet student will be stimulated to verify his faith or intrench his disbelief by wider field experience—even by the very errors, if such there be, of this book and others like it. Taken in chapters, the general reader will, we think, find Dr. Abbott's chronicle refreshing—perhaps not the less so from the absence of any noticeable literary quality such as, in John Burroughs's essays, delights and yet divert us from the natural world it would unveil.

Studia Biblica: Essays in Biblical Archæology and Criticism and Kindred Subjects by Members of the University of Oxford. Oxford: the Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1885.

THE few words which preface this work explain that the essays which it contains were mostly read before a University Society which regularly met for the purpose of discussing papers on Biblical Archæology and Criticism. While not intending to publish a journal, the announcement is made that should this volume be favorably received, the series will be continued as the material is gathered. The essays, of course, vary in interest, in importance, and in value. Some of them are based on original work, while others are professedly reports upon the work of other (generally German) scholars.

The first is by Dr. S. R. Driver, on "Recent Theories on the Origin and Nature of the Tetragrammaton." He gives Friedrich Delitzsch's

theory that Yah and Yahu, instead of being shortened forms of Yahveh, as is generally assumed, were really the current and popular names of God, and that Yahveh was constructed upon them according to the expression found in Exodus iii, 14. Yahu (not Yaveh) Professor Delitzsch takes back to Assyrian *Ya-u*, who was, in the pantheon of the non-Semitic aborigines of Babylon (the Akkadians) *I*, the supreme God. The next important theory is found in an article by F. A. Philippi in the *Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie*. This writer contended that Delitzsch had failed to make out his case, that Yahveh was the more original form (instancing its occurrence in the famous inscription of King Mesha); that, admitting an Assyrian *Yau*, it would be difficult to derive Yahweh from it, and impossible to get Assyrian *Yau* from Akkadian *I*. Professor Sayce, naturally at the present moment, thinks it to be of Hittite origin. Dr. Driver emphasizes the fact that none of these theories are objectionable on theological grounds, because they all recognize that Yahweh is of Jewish origin, and, even if built upon *Yah* or *Yahu*, received an entirely new signification. The essay concludes with the statement that "no ground appears at present to exist for questioning either the purely Israelitish origin of the Tetragrammaton, or the explanation of its meaning which is given in Exodus iii, 14."

The third essay, by Ad. Neubauer, is on a subject always full of interest, the "Dialects spoken in Palestine in the time of Christ." The older scholars thought that Alexander and his successors had caused the Greek language and literature to spread so completely throughout Asia that the Hebrew had not escaped the fate of the other Asiatic language. The moderns, like Renan and Franz Delitzsch, take the position that the language spoken was still a kind of Hebrew. Neubauer holds in the main with these, and, after a mass of interesting and acute discussion, he concludes that if the New Testament were to be restored to its original form, the Hebrew dialect to which it should be most nearly approximated would be that of the Jerusalem Talmud.

Essay Number VI, by W. Sanday, is an account of the Text of the so-called Codex Rossanensis, a newly-discovered sixth-century text of the New Testament found in Rossano in 1881. Only an incomplete examination of it has been made, the chapter at Rossano refusing all permission to scholars to study it as soon as they discovered its value. It in a great measure supports the traditional text.

Number IX, a very careful paper by Mr. T. Randell, is on the date of St. Polycarp's martyrdom. This date has ranged all the way from 147 to 175, but Mr. Randell attempts to fix it in the spring of 155.

The Story of the Heavens. By Robert Stawell Ball, LL.D. With colored plates and numerous illustrations. Cassell & Co. 1885.

THIS is a capital book, but not without its faults. A marked diffuseness is in several instances particularly unfortunate, needlessly taking the reader on rambling excursions before he is allowed to reach the objective point. However adapted it may be to British needs, the volume is too bulky for the general American reader, and fully a quarter of it might with advantage be expunged, and that, too, without damage to the rhetoric. Printer's errors are not numerous, yet the book bears evidence of having been hurried through the press.

Dr. Ball writes with the hand of a master, and his book is an exceedingly attractive exposition of the astronomy of to-day—the best popular English treatise, in fact, if one can spare the time to read it all. The story of Neptune's discovery has never been better told, nor more fairly; while the chapters on shooting-stars and comets, stellar distances, the tides, and the astronomical significance of heat, are in every way excellent. Dr. Ball is ready to acknowledge in detail his indebtedness for numerous illustrations, but he has nothing to say about a work of like character with his own, well known in Great Britain and better known in America, Professor Newcomb's 'Popular Astronomy,' published by the Harpers in 1878, which has afforded him an occasional suggestion. We parallel two passages:

BALL (p. 9).

". . . Tycho Brahe, who was born in 1546, three years after the death of Copernicus. His attention seems first to have been directed to astronomy by the eclipse of the sun which occurred on the 21st August, 1560. It amazed his reflective spirit to find that so surprising a phenomenon admitted of actual prediction, and he determined to devote his life to the study of a science possessed of such wonderful precision. In the year 1576 the King of Denmark had established Tycho Brahe on the island of Huen, and had furnished him with the splendid observatory of Uraniberg. It was here that Tycho assiduously observed the places of the heavenly bodies for some twenty years," etc.

NEWCOMB (p. 66).

". . . Tycho Brahe, who was born in 1546, three years after the death of Copernicus. His attention was first directed to the study of astronomy by an eclipse of the sun on August 21st, 1560, which was total in some parts of Europe. Astonished that such a phenomenon could be predicted, he devoted himself to a study of the methods of observation and calculation by which the prediction was made. In 1576 the King of Denmark founded the celebrated Observatory of Uraniberg, at which Tycho spent twenty years, assiduously engaged in observations of the positions of the heavenly bodies," etc.

BALL (p. 393).

"In February, 1862, Messrs. Alvan Clark & Sons, the celebrated telescope makers, were completing a superb 18-inch object-glass for the Chicago Observatory. Turning the instrument on Sirius, for the purpose of trying it, the practised eye of the younger Clark soon detected something unusual, and he exclaimed, 'Why, father, the star has a companion!' The father looked, and there was a faint companion due east from the bright star, and distant about ten seconds. This was exactly the predicted direction of the companion of Sirius, and yet the observers knew nothing of the prediction. As the news of this discovery spread, many great telescopes were pointed on Sirius; and it was found that when observers knew exactly where to look for the object, many instruments would show it. The new companion star to Sirius lay in the true direction, and it was now watched with the keenest interest, to see whether it also was moving in the way it should move, if it were really the body whose existence had been foretold. Four years of observation showed that this was the case, so that hardly any doubt could remain that the telescopic discovery had been made of the star which had caused the inequality in the motion of Sirius. The correspondence between the observed motions and the predicted motions has not since proved quite exact; for the observed companion appears to have moved about half a degree per annum more rapidly than the calculated companion. This difference, though larger than was expected, may be partly due to the inevitable errors of the difficult observations from which the movements of the theoretical companion were computed."

NEWCOMB (p. 439).

". . . February, 1862, when Messrs. Alvan Clark & Sons, of Cambridgeport, were completing their eighteen-inch glass for the Chicago Observatory. Turning the glass one evening on Sirius, for the purpose of trying it, the practised eye of the younger Clark soon detected something unusual. 'Why, father,' he exclaimed, 'the star has a companion!' The father looked, and there was a faint companion due east from the bright star, and distant about 10". This was exactly the predicted direction for that time, though the discoverers knew nothing of it. As the news went round the world, all the great telescopes were pointed on Sirius, and it was now found that when observers knew where the companion was, many telescopes would show it. It lay in the exact direction which theory had predicted for that time, and it was now observed with the greatest interest, in order to see whether it was moving in the direction of the theoretical satellite. Four years' observation showed that this was really the case, so that hardly any doubt could remain that this almost invisible object was really the body which, by its attraction and revolution around Sirius, had caused the inequality in its motion. At the same time, the correspondence has not since proved exact, the observed companion having moved about half a degree per annum more rapidly than the theoretical one. This difference, though larger than was expected, is probably due to the inevitable errors of the very delicate and difficult observations from which the movements of the theoretical companion were computed."

We forbear further criticism: the downright sinfulness of this sort of thing is perhaps small; but if all such passages had been closed with marks of quotation, nobody could have thought the less of 'The Story of the Heavens,' and everybody, surely, would have thought more of Dr. Ball.

Royalty Restored: or, London Under Charles II. By J. Fitzgerald Molloy, with an etching of Charles II. by J. Grego, and eleven other portraits. In 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.

THE fascination that traditionally pertains to evil things has certainly kept bright the memory of the Merry Monarch. The virtuous William is a pale figure beside the amiable youth whose return to Whitehall was attended by so much revelry in town and court, and whose services to his country consisted largely in providing it with an aristocracy presumably sprung from his own loins. Indeed, the age of Charles II. was one of those in which the fascination of evil is brought to so brilliant a focus that it almost adorns history. Such, at least, would seem to be the opinion of the compiler of these two handsome volumes, from whose portraits all that was most beautiful and most dangerous in that fallen Eden looks out upon the reader, and in whose pages are gathered all the gay adventures of the quarter century of the reign which was the first to be prolific in that illegitimate literature, as it must be thought, of private diaries. Politics have been practically ignored by the writer, but a connected story is made up very deftly by accounts of parades, suppers, and receptions, characterizations and short sketches of the principal figures of the court, each of whom was the hero of many an intrigue, and extracts from the common sources of the history of the Caroline scandals. Larger features, though not more dwelt on and extended, are the plague, the fire, and the Popish plot, which were altogether too useful as material to be neglected, and have a certain relevancy as convenient centres about which to display the life of the town. The whole forms a very complete history of the life of London from the standpoint of royalty in the Restoration, and the work has been, in a literary sense, well done.

It is needless to say that the effect is that of a pretty comedy, for in this handling of the subject vice certainly has lost its grossness. Much of it is well known from Grammont and others, but here, as Byron says, the reader has the felicity of obtaining the age's naughtiness "at one fell swoop." The court, however, was not altogether depraved; there was innocence even there, and the figure of the much tried Queen, who had such "need of patience," is as bright as Shakspere's famous candle that sends its rays so far into the night. The romp of the maids of honor as orange girls in their visit to the astrologer, himself no other than the mountebank Rochester, and the notorious Colonel Blood's capture of Arundel, and that heartless duel of Shrewsbury's, and that most pathetic one of Tom Porter's; Sedley's town frolic, Pepys's prying eyes and the sights that rewarded them—everything of note is here, even to the story of Lady Chesterfield's green stockings, which in the humor of hosiery is almost a match for that of *Malvolio's* unfortunate dandyism. It is all high-life, it is true, such as Thackeray alone could make moral, or Scott healthy; the seeds of death were in it, and England got rid of it, though only to know a grosser age with the Georges. Of the people, which, growing up in labor and Puritan dissent, was at last to remand it to secrecy if not to slough it out of the social system, these volumes say little. The author is not concerned with the character of the times or the tendencies of his own celebration of them. He has portrayed them only. But it does not need this new example to show us how often nowadays the necessary toleration of history is made the cover of a scandalous chronicle.

Physical Arithmetic. By A. Macfarlane, M. A., D. Sc., F. R. S. E. Macmillan. Pp. 357.

PROFESSOR MACFARLANE has had the excellent idea of collecting in one book of convenient size the arithmetical processes involved in the physical sciences. It is not to be considered as a text-book of arithmetic to be studied without knowing anything about physics—nothing could be more fatal

to the difficult task of forming clear and correct physical concepts than to use it in that way. But as a companion to laboratory work and good instruction, and as a compendium of the mathematics involved in a non-mathematical course of physics, it will be found to be of great value.

Professor Macfarlane's familiarity with symbolic logic has enabled him to give a particularly happy setting to the general arithmetical problem. His equations may be considered as a cross between the equations of pure mathematics and the equations of logic. The question, in a great part of the work in arithmetic, is whether a given number is to enter the work as a multiplier or as a divisor, and the question has a connection with the logical problem of the elimination of a middle term. If the A's are M, the M's are N, the N's are P, and the P's are X, it follows that the A's are X. Professor Macfarlane's one rule which covers the ground of his whole book (but which is to be mixed, it is true, with a good proportion of brains) is in effect this: Arrange the units which occur twice so that they appear once as subject and once as predicate; then cancel, and an equation results between the two units which have appeared once only. For instance, if

120 cents = 4 dozen eggs,
3 dozen eggs = 2 lbs. butter,
5 lbs. butter = 75 pts. milk,

then

$$1 \text{ cent} = \frac{4.\ 2.\ 75}{120.\ 3.\ 5} = \frac{1}{3} \text{ pt. milk};$$

and similarly with volts, and ohms, and amperes, and chemical equivalents. The plan has the advantages and the disadvantages of a "method"—the student is in danger of working by rule of thumb instead of by pure head; but if he is destined to do enough work to become expert at it, he is saved a good deal of head for other and more difficult purposes. The same remarks apply to a memorized multiplication table and to symbolic logic. There is a large collection of examples, partly selected from recent examination papers and partly prepared by the author.

Professor Macfarlane has left the University of Edinburgh to become professor of physics in the University of Texas. The latter University bids fair to become a centre of learning. It contributes a paper to the current number of the *American Journal of Mathematics*.

Frank's Ranche; or, My Holiday in the Rockies. Being a contribution to the inquiry into what we are to do with our boys. By the author of 'An Amateur Angler's Days in Dovedale.' Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1886.

THE attraction of this little work is due to its great simplicity and directness. It appears that its author (a well-known English publisher) had a boy who preferred to try his fortunes in American agriculture to being pinned to a city desk, and hence came over. He learned enough of a Minnesota farmer in a few months to think he understood the art, and bought a farm, with the aid of his father's purse; and, not succeeding in this venture, he turned the capital into a creamery, in which it disappeared. The boy (whose partner, we are told, made a paying business of "the milk idea" after he got the sole ownership of the plant) went West, and "roughed it" near Bozeman, Montana. The father by this time had concluded to let "Frank" make his fortune by himself, and "Frank" took hold of his task with cheerfulness and pluck. The letters from "Frank," which are given in the first part of the book, are by far the most interesting portion. He had a hard time of it, and his endurance, resolution, and the buoyancy of his hopes in the most dismal circumstances, stand out in his free and straightforward narrative with delightful unconsciousness. So fresh a nature is not often met with in books, and in this is the charm of the whole; those who think no boy can "rough it" in the West without being "spoilt," can read to advantage.

The second portion consists of the account of the father's journey to see his son and judge for himself of his prospects. "Frank" had got a piece of ground and a cabin and "a few things together" by the hardest of real toil, and perhaps the purse-strings might be loosened once more. The journey tells of the voyage, the Catskills, Saratoga, Niagara, the Yellowstone, and the "Ranche," with a few notes of the return by Helena, Salt Lake, Cheyenne, and Boston. These sketches are interesting light reading, and breathe a spirit of appreciation for things American which is at once spontaneous and unbroken, and, in an Englishman of sixty years, is marvellous. It is pleasant to know that "Frank" did increase his real, and possibly his personal, estate by this visit of "the Governor." From the title-page one infers that the author advises other parents to do as he has done; but it would be well for the "boy" who is to go out, also to read the account of what "Frank" had to do, and to reflect well whether he has got the fibre and the spirit for such a severe apprenticeship to fortune.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Law Review. Vol. XIX. St. Louis: Review Publishing Co.
Anderson, E. L. Vice in the Horse, and Other Papers on Horses and Riding. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Brooks, Louise. A Year's Sonnets. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Buck, J. D. The Nature and Aim of Theosophy. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 25 cents.
Channing, W. E. John Brown and the Heroes of Harper's Ferry: A Poem. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
De Vere, S. The Wonders of Water. From the French of Gaston Tissandier. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Gragg, Agnes. Our Odyssey Club. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Green, Anna Katharine. The Mill Mystery. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Hamilton, Prof. E. J. Mental Science: A Text-Book for Schools and Colleges. Robert Carter & Brothers.
Harrison, F. Choice of Books, and Other Literary Pieces. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Hitchcock, J. R. W. Etching in America. White, Stokes & Allen. $1.25.
Howe, Maud. Atalanta in the South: A Romance. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.25.
Janvier, T. A. The Mexican Guide. With maps. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Keenan, H. F. The Ancients: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Lang, A. Letters to Dead Authors. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Lefèvre, M. Wonders of Architecture. With a Chapter on English Architecture, by R. Donald. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Longfellow, S. Life of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. 2 vols. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Lyall, Edna. We Two: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Meunier, V. Adventures of the Great Hunting-Grounds of the World. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Monteith, J. Barnes's Complete Geography. Barnes's Elementary Geography. A. S. Barnes & Co.
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Ragozin, Z. The Story of Chaldea: From the Earliest Times to the Rise of Assyria. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Richards, Ellen H. Food Materials and their Adulterations. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Rockstro, W. S. A General History of Music, from the Infancy of the Greek Drama to the Present Period. Scribner & Welford.
Roosevelt, T. Hunting Trips of a Ranchman: Sketches of Sport on the Northern Cattle Plains. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50.
Reed, A. Z. Evolution versus Involution: A Refutation of the Theories of Herbert Spencer, and a Vindication of Theism. James Pott & Co. $2.50.
Salmon, Lucy M. History of the Appointing Power of the President. Papers of the American Historical Association. Vol. I., No. 5. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Sanitary Engineer. Vol. XII. June-November, 1885.
Schmidt, O. The Mammalia in their Relation to Primeval Times. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Shand, A. I. Fortune's Wheel: A Tale. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Snead, T. L. The Fight for Missouri. From the Election of Lincoln to the Death of Lyon. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Spender, Emily. Until the Day Breaks. Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Spofford, A. R. American Almanac and Treasury of Facts, Statistical, Financial, and Political, for 1886. American News Co.
Stickler, Dr. J. W. The Adirondacks as a Health Resort. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.

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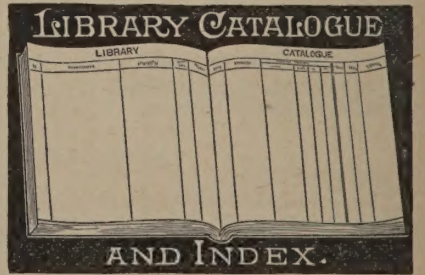

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 25, 1886.

The Week.

THE attempted mediation of the Governors in the Missouri-Pacific strike seems to have as yet led to no result. At all events the strikers have not, up to this date, taken their advice to accept Vice-President Hoxie's offer to let bygones be bygones, and take back into the service of the company all strikers who have not been guilty of doing damage to property. At this moment things in Texas are in a worse condition than ever, since the strikers, as the strain on their resources increases, are evidently more and more disposed to resort to violence. A masked mob has overpowered the guards and "killed" the engines at Denison, and at Omaha a freight train which escaped from the station was pursued and brought back by force. To this complexion it was pretty sure to come at last. The position taken by the Knights is, in fact, one which cannot be maintained in any community without violence. No man not a Knight can be won over to it by argument simply. The right of another man to stay in your employment on his own terms, or, in other words, the right of trades unions to billet laborers on any one they select for as long as they please, which is now the central doctrine of the labor gospel, is one which civilized communities will no more accept peaceably than they will accept the Koran and the Mormon Bible. It is aggravated, too, by the right, which the Knights also claim, of obstructing highways and damaging property in one part of the country in order to aid them in having their way in the settlement of disputes in another.

If the railroad corporations—whose defects, as owners of property, we see as clearly as any one—think they can escape this trouble by surrender now, they are greatly mistaken. We have seen enough to know that the Knights are in the hands of men who do not know what moderation is, and who are utterly indifferent to the general welfare, and probably hardly understand it, and who will be emboldened by every success to make new and more intolerable demands. The railroads might just as well push this question to a settlement this year as any other. What is needed most of all just now is a thorough comprehension by the American people of the nature and extent of the danger with which the labor question, in the form in which the Knights are presenting it, is threatening their civilization. They did not revolt against George III. for quartering soldiers on them in time of peace, in order to allow Mr. Powderly to quarter vast bodies of Knights on them, on terms fixed by him and for indefinite periods. An employer who gets a Knight on his hands, literally does not know from day to day how long he will have to keep him, or what he will have to pay him, or whether he will not eat him out of house and home, and break his furniture before he leaves.

The reply of Mr. H. M. Hoxie to Mr. T. V. Powderly's request for a conference to arrange terms of adjustment with the Knights of Labor on the Missouri-Pacific Railroad clarifies the situation in the Southwest in a remarkable manner. The central fact that a strike was ordered on the Missouri-Pacific because something had happened on another road not controlled by the Missouri-Pacific, and that all the misdemeanors and brigandage that have followed have had no cause in any difference or disagreement between the employing company and its employees, but have their origin in something as foreign to the parties as the changes of the moon, is stated so methodically and convincingly that Mr. Powderly in his rejoinder has no answer to make to it. He retreats under cover of some general observations regarding the goodness of his intentions, but does not deny Mr. Hoxie's statement that the strike is really a boycott, and that it is only a repetition, on a more extensive scale, of the attempted boycott of the Wabash Road at the time when that property was taken charge of by the United States Court.

The whole trouble in the Southwest may be traced to the boycott of the Mallory Steamship Company in the city of Galveston. The Mallory Company had a difficulty with its employees. The Knights of Labor, in order to force the company to reëmploy some discharged workmen—the rate of wages was not the subject of the dispute—issued orders intended to prevent the bringing of any goods to Galveston to be shipped by the steamships of this particular line. It was found to be impossible to discriminate between goods coming to Galveston for one purpose and for another. So the boycott was enlarged to the proportions of a blockade of the city. The sympathy of the public, as is usual in such cases, was extended to "the workingmen," this phrase being ingeniously applied to the minority of workingmen who were organized as boycotters; all other workingmen and women being, for the time, cast out of the reckoning. The Mallory Company made some concessions to the force of circumstances, upon which the Knights were enabled to claim a victory. This was to them a demonstration of supreme power. It turned their heads completely. They fancied that they had only to swing the club of the boycott in order to dominate industry, society, the courts of law, and the Government of the United States. Their range of intelligence was as narrow as their demands were boundless, and both found a notable opportunity for exercise when the man Hall was discharged by the Receivers of the Texas-Pacific Road, for being absent without leave—that is, for staying away three days on a leave of absence for half a day. A demand was made for Hall's reinstatement and it was refused. A strike was ordered, together with a boycott of certain connecting roads to make the strike more effective.

The lengthy reply of the Knights to Governors Marmaduke and Martin and to Mr. Hoxie betrays a dawning sense of the weakness and indefensibleness of their position. They say, in the first place, that the two Governors came in as negotiators voluntarily—they were not asked by the Knights to take a hand in the fight. That is quite true. The chief executives of the two States whose business and industry have been deranged, and who may shortly be compelled to put all the machinery of law in motion to restore the broken communications, did take some pains to avoid this disagreeable duty, and they are now virtually accused of meddling with what did not concern them. This is a refreshing glimpse of the ideas that are uppermost in Assembly No. 101. Then we are told that the Governors are all wrong in saying Mr. Hoxie has lived up to the "agreement" of March, 1885, because there was no such agreement. What is called an agreement was simply a lot of pledges and promises made by Mr. Hoxie and posted up in public places. It signifies nothing that Mr. Hoxie kept his pledges, if there was no agreement on their part to do anything in consequence. Here is another glimpse at the future prosperity and well-being of a country dominated by a class whose whimsies are to be substituted in the place of acts of the Legislature and the decrees of courts. Finally, we are told that even if Mr. Hoxie's pledges and promises had amounted to an agreement, there was a dark design underneath it to destroy the Knights of Labor organization, and that Mr. Hoxie has been laboring insidiously to bring about the present strike, so that he might stop the operation of his own road and embarrass the business of three States, and thus excite public opinion against the Knights. This is such a manifest falsehood that no person endowed with common sense will waste breath in discussing it. The simple truth perceived through the whole mass of dark-lantern sophistry is that Assembly No. 101 of the Knights of Labor have, without cause or provocation, but in the exercise of an unbridled ambition, and with the intent to show their power, boycotted three States, and that now, being alarmed by evidences that they have aroused against themselves a public opinion hitherto favorable to them, they are inventing excuses for their conduct. It remains to be seen whether the people of those States are as much attached to their form of government as American citizens are commonly supposed to be, or whether they are disposed to try a new experiment, the attractive outlines of which are sketched in the reply of the Knights to Governors Marmaduke and Martin.

The United States Senate indulges Mr. Blair's love of notoriety too much. Last month it passed a bill providing for Federal aid to Southern education because his feelings would be hurt if the measure should be defeated in the upper branch, and the lower branch could be trusted to smother it. On Thursday it passed a bill, introduced by the same Senator, establishing a commission to report on the evils of the liquor traffic and appropriating $10,000 for the Commission's expenses;

the measure, according to an intelligent correspondent, being "allowed to pass the Senate with the knowledge that it never will be heard of in the House." Yet, with such encouragement to what may be called the profession, there are people who wonder that the number of "cranks" in this country appears to be on the increase.

Mr. Morrison introduced in the House on Tuesday a resolution which it is to be hoped that the Committee on Rules will speedily report back and the body adopt. It is in these words:

"Resolved, That it shall be in order, when any general bill or proposition to increase the rates or amounts of pensions, or to grant pensions to persons not previously entitled thereto by law, is under consideration, to amend the same so as to provide by taxation or otherwise for the payment thereof; but no such amendment shall be in order unless the net revenue provided for shall be thereby set apart for the sole purpose of paying such increased pensions."

With such a rule the demagogical member who proposed an amendment extending the limit of the arrears act, which involves the payment of two or three hundred millions of dollars, would have to accept the amendment of a level-headed member providing new methods of taxation to raise the money required. A worse blow could not be struck at the pension demagogues. It would be well, however, to broaden the scope of the resolution so that it will apply to all sorts of raids upon the public Treasury. Whenever anybody proposes to spend $50,000,000 on a ship-railway scheme, $77,000,000 on education in the States, or a hundred or two millions on some other job, let the rules provide that it shall be in order to amend by inserting in the bill a clause imposing the taxes required to provide the money. Blair bills, Eads ship-railway schemes, and the whole brood of gigantic raids upon the Treasury would speedily wilt away under the flood of light which would thus be turned upon their real meaning to the taxpayers.

Mr. Hemphill, of South Carolina, made a very strong speech on the silver question on Saturday. His statement of the effect of a fluctuating currency upon the interests of the cotton States and the cotton planters was extremely perspicuous and profoundly true. He showed how entirely at the mercy of the broker and the speculator the planter must be when he has no means of protecting himself against variations in the value of the two kinds of money in which the value of his product must be computed if silver becomes the monetary standard in this country. Four-fifths of the cotton crop is sold to foreign countries at gold prices. If it is bought at silver prices in this country, the buyer must protect himself against fluctuations in the value of silver, and all the errors in his computations will be in his own favor. The growers of cotton, tobacco, wheat, or any exportable article will be absolutely powerless to protect themselves against these exactions, which are, in fact, inherent in any traffic carried on with two measures of value. Mr. Hemphill also gave his opinion of the kind of service rendered to the laboring man by those who seek to pay his wages in "cheap dollars." The mystery of mysteries is that any laboring man should be such a fool as to admit that an eighty-cent dollar is good enough for him. Roast turkey and cranberry sauce for the capitalist, bran and potatoes for the laboring man, would be just as wise and quite as worthy of acceptance and adoption by the wage-workers of the country as the current saying, "Gold for the rich and silver for the poor."

In connection with the recent changes in the Civil-Service Commission at Washington, mention should be made of the appointment of Mr. W. L. Trenholm to the important position of Comptroller of the Currency. Mr. Trenholm was called to the Civil-Service Commission because the public service required a man of high principles and superior culture, representing the best type of Southern society, to fill one of the three places on the Board. He would undoubtedly have remained there, had not the resignation of Comptroller Cannon made a vacancy requiring, in addition to the foregoing qualities, a special acquaintance with financial studies, and a reputation as a sound thinker co-extensive with the section to which Mr. Trenholm belongs. A better selection could not have been made. Mr. Trenholm enters upon the discharge of his new duties at a time when the national banking system is approaching a crisis. The bond security of its circulating notes is being slowly but surely cut away, and the questions relating to its future existence, if it is to continue at all, are among the most perplexing that the Government will have to deal with. It is fortunate that the position of Comptroller of the Currency at such a time is filled by a man like Mr. Trenholm, who has the ear of that portion of the country most hostile to the national banks, and which would, perhaps, be glad to see the old State-bank system of the *ante-bellum* period revived.

The Hartford *Courant* is a Republican organ which is never disposed to take an unduly sanguine view of any Democratic action. When, therefore, it commends an appointment by the President to a responsible position, its words should command attention. The *Courant* says, regarding the disposition of sundry Republican organs to condemn the selection of Mr. Oberly, of Illinois, as a member of the Civil-Service Commission, on the ground that he has been in the past an active Democratic politician, that the same criticism was made when he was appointed Superintendent of Indian Education nine months ago, but that "in simple justice it must be said that he has demonstrated that his critics of last year were not well informed." The *Courant* goes even further, and volunteers this warm tribute to Mr. Oberly:

"His general management of the important work intrusted to him has been satisfactory. He has made an intelligent and efficient Superintendent, according to the testimony of those best informed on the subject. He has endeavored to correct evils which unquestionably existed, and, unless favorably misrepresented, he has made no effort to use the office for partisan or personal advantages. It is said to be because the President is pleased with the manner in which he has performed the duties of an important subordinate position that he has made him a Civil-Service Commissioner. Now that he has received the appointment it will be fair and just to defer condemnation until it is merited. He has ability enough to make a first-rate Commissioner, and possibly may be disposed to make a good record. Certainly there can be no gain in treating him unjustly simply because he is a Democrat and has been an active politician."

The example set by the law-abiding citizens of Portland, Oregon, on Wednesday week, ought to make a salutary impression upon the country. Fifteen hundred men, moved by a sense of their responsibility for republican government, met in pursuance of public notice, and resolved that they would dedicate their fortunes, and if necessary their lives, to the defence of law and order and the principles of common humanity. They then appointed a committee of fifteen to take immediate steps, in conjunction with the proper authorities, to put the community in a posture of effectual defence against the threatened attack of outlaws upon the Chinese. The hoodlums had assembled in mass meeting in an adjoining room for the purpose of overawing the friends of law and order, but the strength of the latter was so overwhelming and its spirit so determined that they contented themselves with boycotting the Portland *Oregonian* newspaper, whose resolute and persistent defence of the principles of American institutions, of liberty regulated by law, and of a common humanity, has been largely instrumental in keeping the sacred fires of public spirit alive in Portland. The example of the *Oregonian* is in fine contrast to that of certain newspapers which, a few days ago, were encouraging a mob to seize and overturn coal carts and grocery wagons to make barricades against the running of street cars in New York.

The Californians are beginning dimly to perceive that there are two sides to the Chinese question in its commercial, if not in what they stigmatize as its "sentimental," bearings. In Stockton the mob have been trying to get everybody to sign a petition for the abrogation of the treaty with China, and an attempt was made at one of their recent meetings to pass a vote of censure upon Mayor Welsh for having refused the use of his name. The *Independent*, a strongly anti-Chinese paper, is forced to denounce this movement as being "impudent as well as absurd." It appears that three-fourths of Stockton's flour is shipped to China, and would be without a market if the treaty with that nation were to be abrogated. "One of the counts in the indictment against the Chinese," says the *Independent*, "is that they do not spend money enough with white producers and manufacturers, yet here was a proposition to bring discredit upon one of white labor's best employers, because he would not sign a demand to stop the one important source of American money in return from China. Neither of Mr. Welsh's mills employs Chinese, but both are large employers of white labor, which is treated considerately and well paid." We must warn the Stockton *Independent* that it has an account to settle with the San Francisco *Post*. The latter newspaper, a fortnight ago, was insisting upon a break-off of all commercial relations with the Chinese, on the ground that "we are apparently doing a losing business with these people." Far be it from a "doctrinaire" jour-

nal published in New York to decide when two such eminent anti-Chinese doctors differ so radically in their diagnosis and prescription.

The bill passed with such commendable promptness by both branches of the Legislature on Thursday, authorizing the sale of all street-railway franchises at auction hereafter, is an immense gain for reform. The Governor has signed it, and it goes into effect as a law immediately. All bargains between railway companies and the Aldermen which are unfulfilled, are thus declared "off." Not one of the franchises granted as a result of such bargains is worth a penny to anybody. The Aldermen henceforth will be able to command very small prices for their votes, since, even after their consent to a railway is given, the franchise must be sold at public auction. Governor Hill, in approving the Cantor bill, points out certain defects in it which must be remedied by supplemental legislation, as no time could be lost in the passage of the present bill if the game of the Aldermen with regard to other franchises was to be blocked. He draws attention to a curious piece of optimism on the part of Governor Cleveland, who thought it unnecessary to make the sale of franchises by auction compulsory instead of optional, on the ground that if the local authorities were determined "to cheat and defraud their constituents by refusing to put up a valuable franchise at auction, they must under this bill [the General Surface Street Railway Act] do it in the broad light of day, and with a brazenness and boldness that would find a way to evade the most carefully framed law." This is, however, exactly what the Aldermen did. They sold the franchise at 9 o'clock A. M. in the summer season, and with a publicity and éclat which showed they did not care what any one thought of the transaction.

Senator Daly's bill reducing the number of Aldermen to fifteen and requiring their election on a general ticket, the candidate receiving the highest vote to be President of the Board, is a good measure, and ought to be promptly passed by the Legislature. The arguments in its favor are obvious. The strongest one is that the proposed change would break up the constantly growing practice of nominating liquor-dealers for Aldermen. No party would venture to put a liquor-dealer on a ticket which was to be submitted to the whole city for election. There has been a great outburst of indignation over the Jaehne case, but there is no reason for surprise. With few exceptions there is not a member of the present Board who is at all fitted by character or experience for his position. It is entirely within the bounds of moderation to go further, and say that fully two-thirds of the present members are by character and experience totally unfitted for any position of trust. No reputable business man would have one of them in the smallest place of trust or responsibility in his establishment. Seven of them are liquor-dealers, and nearly all of them are companions of liquor-dealers and regular frequenters of gambling saloons. When Jaehne was wanted the other night, he was sought and found in a liquor store, as were three ex-Aldermen interviewed in the morning papers.

Mexico seems about to consider the question of Federal aid to education. The initiative has been given by the action of the Legislature of the State of Chiapas, asking the National Congress to pass a bill establishing in the various States schools for the education of the Indians. The idea has been caught up enthusiastically by a section of the press (especially the provincial press), is reported to be "favorably entertained" by the Government, and promises to be discussed among the important questions in the next session of Congress. The advocates of the plan are not slow to point to the precedent now set by the United States, and, indeed, are able to press the familiar arguments with a force altogether greater than that of our Senatorial debaters; for, with an equal poverty on the part of the States, the burden of illiteracy is far heavier, the part of the population for which help is invoked being at least three-fifths of the whole. The obvious objection of unconstitutionality will probably prove but a slight obstacle to the scheme, though a more serious difficulty would seem to threaten it in the bankrupt condition of the Federal Treasury. In these days of paternalism in government, however, it does not seem to require the existence of a tempting surplus to suggest an appeal to national aid.

The project of an international exposition in Mexico in 1892, submitted to the Government by the Associated Press of the City of Mexico, is the latest theme for newspaper comment. It is received with that jaunty self-confidence so characteristic of a Mexican discussing a grand idea, while the almost insuperable difficulties of detail, being still so remote, are overlooked. One would think that the conspicuous failure of the National Exposition at Orizaba, in 1882, would serve to retard somewhat a more ambitious attempt. It is possible that the underlying motive with the Mexicans is a desire to revenge or recoup themselves for their experience at New Orleans. Some very bitter things have been said by the Mexican press of the misrepresentations which induced their Government to incur so great an outlay to give their country a creditable appearance at an exposition which turned out to be little better than a provincial affair.

The news from England goes to show that the importance of Chamberlain's reported desertion of Gladstone has probably been greatly exaggerated. Chamberlain has not been gaining ground in public estimation during the last two years. On the contrary, he has been losing it. His economical plans during his last term of office led the business men to distrust his judgment and suspect him of demagogy. His attitude toward Mr. Gladstone more recently has led the Radicals to question his sincerity and disinterestedness. The chances are, therefore, that if he should abandon Gladstone at this crisis, he would simply take one more step toward his own political ruin. Moreover, however much the Whigs or timid Radicals may outwardly wriggle over Gladstone's Irish plans, the economic agencies, which are very powerful just now, are working in their favor. The owners of rented land both in Ireland and England—particularly the latter—and their creditors, are a very influential body, and this proposal to expropriate them is probably the last chance they will ever have of getting rid of worthless estates. They will therefore, however much they talk against Gladstone's schemes in public, probably secretly support them, and push them through the House of Lords, where the landed interest is all-powerful. They will be made all the more eager by the growing recognition of the fact, to which we have frequently called attention in these columns during the past six or seven years, and which English economists at last begin to see, that a large proportion of Irish land, like the land in New England and most of the Eastern States, will no longer yield rent. That is to say, it will support the man who tills it, but nobody else, neither a wage-paying farmer nor a gentleman landlord. The probabilities are, indeed, that, owing to American competition, a very large part of the island is now in this condition.

The protracted debates to which the various measures instituted by the Prussian Government for the further Germanization of Posen, West Prussia, and Upper Silesia have given rise in the German Reichstag and the Prussian Diet, render it clear that the task of the Government will be an exceedingly arduous one. Bismarck's historical dissertations on the subject—and he has indulged in these with his wonted unbridled frankness and rude unconcern—and the additional testimony of the Ministers Puttkamer and Gossler, not only show that the Poles in those provinces have hitherto triumphantly withstood the denationalizing pressure exercised against them by the governmental machine and the surrounding German populations, but that their methods and means of resistance are of a nature to baffle the most strenuous efforts. The intrinsic justice of their cause, the profound influence of religion the untiring propaganda of their clergy, the prestige of nobility, the charm of their language, the patriotic fervor of the Polish women, the cringing subserviency of Germans speculating on Polish patronage and custom—all these and similar subtle agencies combine to create a moral strength of more than merely defensive character. Bismarck and his associates pretend that the violent measures proposed, which the rest of the civilized world deems acts of international barbarism, worthy of Muravieffs and Potapoffs, are only processes of self-defence in the interest of German nationality and Prussian integrity. Russia has effectually applied such measures in Lithuania, Volhynia, and other portions of ancient Poland, but she had the advantage of acting upon mixed populations, of which the Lithuanian and Malo-Russian elements counterbalanced the properly Polish; and then she had also the gallows and Siberia to emphasize her decrees. Bismarck and his successors will have to deal with the purest portion of the Polish nation, and will be hampered by constitutional limitations and widespread sympathies which even German chauvinism will not be able to stifle or ignore.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 17, to TUESDAY, March 23, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Senate on Wednesday passed the new Electoral Count Blll.

In the Senate on Thursday Mr. Van Wyck offered an amendment to the Edmunds resolutions, that all appointments in place of suspended men shall be considered in open session. This was defeated.

In the Senate on Monday afternoon Mr. Logan submitted the following resolution: "That the sessions of the Senate commonly known as executive sessions, so far as they apply to nominations, confirmations, or rejections, shall hereafter be held with open doors, and that a public record of the same shall be kept, the same as of legislative sessions." It was ordered printed.

Three Republican Senators and one Democratic Senator, members of the District Committee, voted on Monday in favor of reporting the nomination of Mr. James C. Matthews (colored), of Albany, to be Recorder of Deeds of the District, and three Democrats and one Republican voted against reporting it. Upon this tie vote an adverse report was ordered. The affirmative votes were those of Ingalls, Pike, and Palmer (Reps.), and Brown (Dem.). The negative votes were those of Blackburn, Vance, and Harris (Dems.), and Riddleberger (Rep.).

Mr. George Hearst has been appointed United States Senator in place of the late Senator Miller by Governor Stoneman, of California. He is a man of wealth, connected with a leading mining firm, and a mining prospector of recognized authority. He was a candidate for Governor before the Convention which nominated Governor Stoneman, and received considerable support for Senator when Mr. Stanford was elected.

Pension Commissioner Black on Thursday submitted to the House Committee the names and numbers in twenty cases which he said had been allowed or rejected under Commissioner Dudley on account of the politics of the claimants. He said he would furnish in addition 300 or 400 affidavits, when the Committee should have examined the list, in support of his allegation that the Pension Office had been conducted as a political machine.

The House Judiciary Committee has finally agreed upon a bill which is designed to correct one of the greatest evils of the present system of legislation. It proposes to relieve Congress of the great burden of private legislation by giving the United States district and circuit courts equal jurisdiction with the Court of Claims, to amounts of $10,000, in all suits against the Government.

The House Committee on Elections on Friday decided the Hurd-Romeis (Ohio) contested election case in favor of the sitting member, Mr. Romeis. Mr. Hurd thinks the House will give him the seat.

The House Committee on Shipping on Monday, by a vote of 7 to 6, instructed Representative Dunn to report favorably his Free Ship Bill, with an added section authorizing the entry free of duty of materials used in the construction of ships. All the Republican members voted against the bill, and all the Democrats except one in favor of it.

Something of a sensation was produced in the House of Representatives on Monday, when the Chaplain devoted his opening prayer to an invocation to God to rid the land of gamesters, whether in cards, dice, chips, stocks, wheat, bucket-shops, or boards of trade, and to lead the people to know that money-making other than by the sweat of the face was contrary to His laws. On motion of Mr. Butterworth (Rep., O.), the prayer was ordered to be inserted in the *Record*.

The prospects of the Tariff Bill in the House are not encouraging. It is now proposed by Mr. Morrison and his associates to put wool on the free list, strike off the specific parts of the duties on woollen goods which the manufacturers could spare if there were no duty on wool, and strike out the sections putting all ores on the free list, and reducing the duties on metal goods, glass, and pottery. This proposition contemplates an abandonment of Ohio, and an effort to conciliate Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and secure the votes of Democratic members from those States.

Both houses of Congress have passed a bill giving the widow of General Hancock a pension of $2,000. It met with considerable opposition in the House, on the ground that General Hancock had long had a liberal salary, and that such pensions were an inducement to extravagant living.

The President has talked freely with Congressmen as to the Blair Educational Bill, and has impressed some of them with the belief that he does not think the measure constitutional.

The Secretary of the Treasury on Monday issued a call for $10,000,000 3 per cent. bonds of the issue of 1882.

There is a rumor that Mr. Trenholm, as Comptroller of the Currency, will interfere with the operations of the Louisiana Lottery Company, so far as they have been conducted through the national banks.

General Schofield will be General Hancock's successor in command of the Division of the Atlantic.

The petition or bill of complaint in the suit brought by the United States Government to annul and vacate the Bell telephone patents was filed in the United States Circuit Court at Columbus, O., on Tuesday, by the District Attorney. It is a large pamphlet, showing that the ground-work of the action is the fraud alleged to have been practised by Alexander Graham Bell in obtaining his patents by the connivance of persons holding official position in the United States Patent Office, and by misrepresentations made in his behalf.

Governor Murray, of Utah, has resigned. The Gentile press are indignant that this action should have been requested.

The Receiver of the Texas and Pacific Railroad agreed on Thursday with the Knights of Labor to submit their dispute to arbitration.

On Friday Vice-President Hoxie, of the Missouri-Pacific Railroad, replied to Mr. Powderly, of the Knights of Labor, that he would not meet him and a committee to arrange the questions about the strike, because of the frequent annoyances the company had experienced at the hands of the trade organizations in the last eight months. This lessened the chances of a settlement, but Governor Marmaduke of Missouri and Governor Martin of Kansas decided that public interest rendered it necessary for them to endeavor to act as mediators in the strike. They prepared a proposition which was accepted by the strikers, and left on Friday night for St. Louis to lay it before the railroad officials. The men agreed to return to work on the terms of agreement in force at the time they struck, simply making a request that the question of increasing wages of bridge and trackmen be taken into account. The matter of Hall's reinstatement on the Texas and Pacific was not mentioned. Vice-President Hoxie said that the agreement entered into with the men on March 15, 1885, would be accepted by him, with the following provisions: That all parties who have entered the service of the Missouri-Pacific Railway Company since March 5, 1886, would be retained, and that men of families and who had homes would be given the preference; that no one who had participated in the destruction of the company's property, or who directed such destruction, would be reinstated; and that on account of the strike he should not require as many men to perform the work as were employed before the strike occurred. These terms the men promptly rejected.

Early on Sunday morning, ten watchmen at the round-house at Denison, Texas, were seized by 150 masked men, who disabled all the engines and did serious damage to other property in the shops. A Missouri-Pacific freight train which was started out of Omaha on Sunday afternoon was pursued by Knights of Labor on an engine and compelled to return. An attempt to start a similar train from St. Louis on Tuesday was defeated, the coupling pins being drawn every time a start was made. A train started from Sedalia, Mo., on Tuesday, was thrown from the track and four men were badly hurt. New developments of the trouble were the strike of all the switchmen at Kansas City, Mo., on Monday, and a general strike of all the coal miners in the fourth district of Pennsylvania.

One of the results of the transcontinental railroad war is the shipment of apples, potatoes, and onions from Chicago to California. Apples are not grown successfully in that State.

At a meeting of presidents of the coal roads in this city on Monday, a harmonious arrangement was made by which prices are increased 25 cents a ton, and the total allotment for the coming year fixed at 33,500,000 tons.

The San Francisco Chinese are taking advantage of the low railroad rates, and are coming East in large numbers.

Anti-Chinese mass-meetings were held throughout California on Saturday night.

Ten negroes were killed and three fatally injured by an armed band of fifty white men at the Court-house in Carrollton, Miss., on Wednesday. Several weeks ago a young lawyer of Carroll County had been slightly wounded by three negroes. The case was on trial when the white men rode up and killed the negroes.

The Massachusetts House on Wednesday defeated the biennial-election resolution by a vote of 112 to 86, not the necessary two-thirds.

The "no-tobacco" rule went into effect at the Concord, Mass., Reformatory on Monday. The 600 prisoners accept the situation philosophically.

The Connecticut Legislative Committee on Woman Suffrage voted on Wednesday 7 to 1 in favor of a bill allowing women to vote in school-district meetings without any property qualification.

Governor Hill, of New York, has appointed five ladies notaries public.

Alderman Henry W. Jaehne, of this city, was arrested on Thursday charged with bribery in connection with the Broadway Railroad franchise. He has confessed, it is alleged, that he received $20,000 for voting in favor of the Broadway franchise.

Hamilton Cole, Referee in the action brought by George C. Holt, the assignee for the benefit of the creditors of Ferdinand Ward, against William S. Warner, filed his report with the Clerk of the Supreme Court on Wednesday morning. It finds that the payment of all money made by Ward upon the so-called contract business was fraudulent and void as against the defendant, Julien T. Davies, as receiver, and that Warner must pay over to Davies, as receiver, all moneys received by him from Ward over and above the amount paid by him to Ward. This sum the Referee finds to be $1,255,361 34, which, with interest thereon from May 6, 1884, $140,391 20, makes the total amount to be recovered $1,395,752 54.

The Rev. Thomas Parry, of the Jefferson Park (Chicago) Presbyterian Church, delivered a sermon Sunday night in the line of thought of the "two Sams." He applauded the vigorous style of the evangelists Jones and Small, and said he felt the beneficial effects of their work in his own church.

Severe thunder storms have prevailed during the week in different parts of the country, accompanied by loss of life. On Sunday the severest snow storm of five years occurred in Iowa, and there was also a heavy fall of snow in Maine.

General John H. Devereaux, one of the most prominent railroad men in the West, died in Cleveland on Wednesday at the age of fifty-four. He was born in Boston, became a civil engineer, and early achieved a reputation in railroading.

Miss Abigail Bates died at Scituate, Mass., on Wednesday, aged eighty-nine years. She was one of the two women who, during the war of 1812, drove the British forces from this harbor by concealing themselves in the bushes and playing vigorously upon the fife and drum, thereby leading the enemy to believe that a large force was ready to receive them. This, at least, has been the cherished local tradition.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Robert Bannatyne Finlay (Liberal) moved in the House of Commons on Wednesday the second reading of his Church of Scotland Bill. This opposes disestablishment, and favors such reform of the Church as would practically amount to reconstruction. It aims at removing all those obstacles which now exist to a reunion of the Free Church and the United Presbyterian with the Established Church. The Scotch Radicals and Parnellites vigorously opposed it, and it was rejected by 207 to 177.

Mr. Gladstone, in the House of Commons on Thursday afternoon, declined to recommend to the Queen the appointment of a day for national humiliation and prayer because of the distress prevalent among the poor and unemployed of the kingdom. The Premier said that bad as the distress was, it did not justify the action proposed.

In the House of Commons on Friday Mr. Gladstone said that during the coming week he hoped to be able to name a day for presenting his statement of Irish proposals. The statement would probably be followed by a bill to carry his plans into effect. He asked that the members exercise caution in regard to rumors about dissensions in the Cabinet and alleged features of his Irish plans.

Sir William Vernon-Harcourt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, replying to Mr. Goschen in the Commons on Monday, said the Government was not disposed to appoint a special committee to examine into and report upon the silver question, because the special commission which was now inquiring into the causes of the depression of trade would in all probability cover the silver question.

The House of Commons on Tuesday night, by a vote of 216 to 176, adopted a motion in favor of local taxation falling partly upon the owners of landed property instead of upon the occupiers only, as the law now stands. Mr. Chamberlain urged that the motion be withdrawn, as the Government was preparing a bill to equalize taxation.

John Bright had an interview on Saturday with Mr. Gladstone. It is believed that Mr. Bright strongly protested against the Premier's Irish expropriation scheme.

The latest report from London about Mr. Gladstone's home-rule scheme is that he does not intend to ask authority to issue a loan in order to secure funds to buy out the real-estate owners of Ireland, but that he proposes the appointment of a commission of experts to fix the value of the various land properties in Ireland, which at these valuations are to be handed over to the possession of the Government in exchange for consols. In this way Ireland is to be made a debtor to the empire for the entire amount paid to the landlords, together with interest, the whole sum to be repaid into the Imperial Treasury by Ireland in instalments within the term of fifty years, at the end of which term the lessees are to become the owners. This necessarily involves home rule.

Mr. E. Dwyer Gray, M. P., presiding at a St. Patrick's Day banquet in London on Wednesday night, said that Irishmen wished to legislate for themselves in their own country, and would loyally accept any measure giving them that privilege, thus benefiting both countries instead of endangering the empire.

Sir James Caird, as great an authority on agricultural questions as Mr. Giffen is on finance, writes to the London *Times* opposing land purchases, on the ground that the good land is not worth buying because the landlords are quite able to take care of themselves, and the bad land is not worth buying because nobody can get rent out of it. The letter contains the following highly significant sentence: "If the present prices of agricultural produce continue, I should fear that from the land held by the large body of poor farmers in Ireland any economical rent has for the present disappeared. The purchase of it at any price would therefore be a certain loss." The *Times's* editorial on the letter says: "It is not too much to say that the rental of 528,000 holdings is practically irrecoverable by anybody, whether landlord, English Government, or Irish Government."

The Duke of Argyll has written a remarkable letter to the London press. Writing as one of the chief landlords, he points out in detail how every important measure in Parliament thus far, whether for or against the Government, has been solely carried by the Parnell vote. His conclusion evidently is that the Irish-Americans rule Great Britain.

The Paris *Journal des Débats* says that Russia refuses to join the other Powers in coercing Greece to comply with Turkey's policy in the Balkan States. The press of Bulgaria denounce the Russian policy of opposition to Prince Alexander, and declare that it will be impossible to separate the Prince from the Bulgarian nation. The Russian Consul at Philippopolis, the capital of Eastern Rumelia, has expressed a wish that the politicians of the country refrain from using the Czar's name or that of his Government for any political purpose whatever during the coming Rumelian elections.

The Bulgarian Government has suspended all the Russophile newspapers within its territory, and caused the arrest of thirteen Conservative leaders who are partisans of M. Zankoff, formerly Prime Minister of Bulgaria. A warrant was issued for M. Zankoff, but he escaped arrest by placing himself under the protection of the Russian Consul at Sophia. The Bulgarian Government will continue to use every means in its power to put an end to the Russophile agitation.

A London despatch says: "The situation in Greece is not a whit more, but rather less, pacific; all available troops have been summoned, generals are en route for the frontier, the fleet has sailed with sealed orders, and the cavalry is ordered to Thessaly. The statement has been made, denied, and reaffirmed that Russia has refused to be a party to the coercion of Greece. Servia has concluded a fresh contract for 10,000,000 cartridges in Austria, with the consent of the latter. The condition of the interior of Turkey is said to be deplorable. The country is denuded both of men and money. Every Cabinet in Europe may be described as waiting for something to turn up. It is impossible to see what this something can be except blows."

The French Chamber of Deputies has adopted the bill authorizing the city of Paris to issue a loan for the construction of public works to furnish labor to the needy unemployed, on the condition that nothing but French material be used in the works.

One of the wolf-bitten Russians, who was treated by M. Pasteur in Paris to prevent rabies, has died in great agony, with all the symptoms of hydrophobia.

The parade of unemployed Socialists in Liége, the iron-manufacturing centre of Belgium, on Thursday evening resulted in disorderly demonstrations. A mob composed of Socialists and the lowest classes of the people took possession of many of the streets, shouting, "Down with the capitalists!" They wrecked all the cafés and sacked all the shops in the Rue Leopold. The gendarmes finally attacked the mob, and after a severe fight, in which many of the rioters were wounded, succeeded in clearing the streets and restoring order. Several hundred Socialists were placed under arrest. The riots broke out afresh on Saturday night in Liége and also in other Belgian towns. A severe fight occurred near Liége with anarchists, who were marching against the town to loot it, and they were defeated. 6,000 troops are on duty in the disturbed district.

General Appert, the French Ambassador to Russia, has received letters of recall, and will leave St. Petersburg in two weeks. When General Appert has left Russia Baron Mohrenheim, the Russian Ambassador to France, will transfer his residence from Paris to Cannes, or perhaps just beyond the French frontier, in order to mark Russia's disapproval of the reasons of General Appert's recall.

The exodus of Jews from Russian Poland has attained extraordinary figures. During last year 20,150 left the country for America alone.

The Emperor William's health is pronounced restored. He received warm congratulations on Monday, the eighty-ninth anniversary of his birthday

The Right Rev. Dr. Kopp, the Roman Catholic Bishop of Fulda, has been instructed by Cardinal Jacobini, Papal Secretary of State, to obtain the largest concessions possible from the German crown in the new Ecclesiastical Bill, but to do nothing which will endanger the success of the measure, the passage of which, the Cardinal says, even unaltered, will be a distinct gain for the Vatican.

Leopold Zunz, the distinguished Jewish scholar of Berlin, is dead at the age of ninety-two.

A coalition has been formed in Spain, for the defence of the Republican cause, of all the sections of the Republican party—the Castelar group excepted. The coalition accepts the Constitution of 1869 as the basis of its programme until the Cortes has decreed a better constitution.

Marie Heilbron, the opera singer, died at Nice on Sunday.

Christine Nilsson is to make a "final tour" of America.

The British expedition to relieve Yemethen, in Burmah, has been successful.

Sir John A. MacDonald, the Canadian Premier, is seriously ill.

Mail advices from the Sandwich Islands received on Tuesday state that the volcanic phenomena which extended over March 5, 6, and 7, and which were accompanied by a large number of earthquake shocks, resulted in the total disappearance of the new lake at Halemaumau and in the extinction of the fire in the crater of the volcano of Kilauea. These phenomena are believed to be the precursors of a grand outbreak in the near future, either in Kilauea or Mauna Loa. Some persons, basing their views on the observations of Professor Agassiz, believe that the disappearance of fire is a prelude to the total extinction of Kilauea volcano.

"THE PAPERS."

It is not too much to say that the bottom was completely knocked out of the discussion in the Senate on the "papers" question, on Friday week, by the powerful speech of Mr. Kenna, of West Virginia. His citation of counter precedents and authorities in support of the President's position was particularly effective. When the House of Representatives asked President Washington for "the correspondence and other documents" relating to the treaty then just concluded with Great Britain, he declined to furnish them, on the ground that the papers "were not relative to any purpose under the cognizance of the House" except that of impeachment, to which no allusion had been made in the resolution. When the Senate asked President Jackson for "a paper purporting to have been read by him to the heads of departments" relating to the transfer of the deposits, Jackson declined compliance, under "a proper sense of his own self-respect and of the rights secured by the Constitution to the executive branch of the Government." Under President Tyler, the Secretary of War sent to the Senate at its request the letter dismissing one Sylvester, but declined to send any other papers, on the ground that they were of "a confidential character." In 1849, under the Presidency of Taylor, the Senate called for

> "all charges which have been preferred or filed in any of the departments against individuals who have been removed from office since the 4th day of March last, with a specification of the cases, if any, in which the officers charged have had an opportunity to be heard, and a statement of the number of removals made under each department."

The resolution was opposed by Daniel Webster as follows:

> "Since the practice [of removal] has become a settled practice, since every administration has indulged in it, and since it must now be considered as the legal construction of the Constitution, that it is one of the powers of the President to remove incumbents from offices which they hold, it follows, as a necessary and as an inevitable consequence, that this power, thus legally vested in the President, must be exercised by him as independently of our control as any other power that is to be exercised by him under the Constitution. If he holds the power, he holds it to be exercised at his own control and discretion. And I see no ground upon which we can call upon him to give us reasons for the manner in which he exercises that power, any more than we can call upon him to give reasons for the manner in which he exercises any other power under the Constitution. . . ."

Mr. Kenna produced one other very curious bit of documentary evidence as to the practice and opinion of Webster's day on this subject—namely, forms prepared in the Department of State, when Webster was Secretary, to be used in answering just such inquiries as have been addressed to President Cleveland. There is no proof that these forms were ever used, but here they are:

> "SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the ——, desiring me to send you the papers on file relating to the nomination of ——to be——.
>
> "The letters accompanying this will be, I presume, very satisfactory testimonials of Mr. ——'s fitness for the office; but I take occasion to say, that, in this Department, letters of this description, though usually communicated on request to the Senate or its committees, unless in peculiar cases there be reason for withholding them, are not considered as public letters, and, therefore, are not placed on the official files. When sent to the Senate, or its committees, they are understood to be sent in confidence, and it is expected that they will be returned when the occasion has passed.
>
> "I am, sir, etc.
>
> "To Hon. ——,
> Chairman of the Committee on——of the Senate."

Another read as follows:

> "Hon. —— ——,
> Chairman of the Committee on —— of the Senate.
>
> "Letters recommending individuals to office are not considered as official communications any more than verbal recommendations. They are not kept on the public files, and it has not always been the case heretofore, as I learn, that they have been preserved. So far as may be proper, however, it will give the Department great pleasure to afford the Committee any information in its possession. I send you several communications respecting the persons mentioned in your letter, which, when examined by the Committee, I will thank you to cause to be returned."

In 1874, too, when the Democrats got possession of the House of Representatives once more, after many years of exclusion, they began to ask General Grant in what place he performed the duties of his office. He answered, with the applause of the whole country, that he was not bound to give them "an account of his discharge of appropriate and purely executive offices, acts, and duties, either as to when, where, or how performed."

Mr. Kenna reserved to the last the most instructive and, we might add, the most entertaining of his examples. The person who even more than Mr. Edmunds started this longing in the Senate for "papers" relating to removals and appointments was the Honorable John Sherman, of Ohio. He made a great speech on the subject at the opening of the debate, in which he said:

> "That we have a right to call for information of any kind whatever in any department of the Government, whether it be by written order or by parol, I do not think there is the slightest doubt. Indeed, but for that we could not legislate; but for that we could not act wisely in executive session."

And, warming to his work, he added:

> "The idea of a distinction between papers public and private in the public records never occurred until during the present Administration and to meet an exigency."

But when Mr. Sherman was Secretary of the Treasury in 1877, and Mr. Conkling asked for the papers in the case of the removal of Mr. Arthur, the Collector at this Port, Mr. Sherman wrote the following remarkable answer:

> "TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
> November 17, 1877.
>
> "SIR: Your letter dated the 15th instant was received only this morning, and I take the earliest moment to reply to it.
>
> "To answer in an official way the questions put to me, would not only compel me to violate that trust and confidence reposed in me by the President, necessary for the transaction of the business of this Department, but to disclose papers of a confidential character filed in the Department, and require me to enter into the discussion of questions totally immaterial to the nominations submitted to the Senate. I do not think it within the just limits of the intercourse of the Senate with executive officers to answer in writing, or even verbally, all the questions submitted by you, nor have I ever known such an instance.
>
> "The President has the power to nominate to the Senate a proper person for Collector of the Port of New York, whether that office be already vacant or not, and it is within the power of the Senate to either confirm or reject.
>
> "These are independent powers. No law requires the President to give the reasons for his nominations, and it does not appear that in this case the Senate even has directed this inquiry. The Tenure-of-Office Act required of the President the reasons of a suspension made during the recess of the Senate, but this provision, after a very brief period, was repealed. To answer your questions would compel me to state to a committee of the Senate the reasons of an appointment by the President, to disclose confidential communications between the President and the Secretary, and to enter into an arraignment and accusation of the officers superseded. In the free exercise of independent powers it is the common practice, as we both know, for members of the Senate to have full conference with the heads of executive departments on all matters in which the concurrent action of the President and the Senate is required, and therefore it will give me pleasure to confer with the Committee, or any member of it, on the subject of the fitness of the appointment of Mr. Roosevelt to the office of Collector of the Port of New York.
>
> "It will also give me pleasure to furnish to you, or to the Committee on Commerce, or to any member of the Committee, in the usual way, the several reports of the Commission on the New York Custom-house, upon which mainly the action of the President was taken. As the investigation progressed, these reports made it of the highest public importance that a change should be made in the leading officers of that service. It was because abuses were thus developed that the President was convinced that it was incompatible with the public service to retain in their present positions the Collector and Naval Officer.
>
> "The other cases mentioned by you under the same envelope will be governed by what is here stated, and with these limits I will be happy to confer with you or the Committee at your convenience. Very respectfully,
>
> "JOHN SHERMAN, Secretary.
>
> "Hon. ROSCOE CONKLING, Chairman Committee on Commerce, United States Senate."

The above, under the circumstances rather diverting, letter was disinterred by the Administration some weeks ago, and has been reserved until now as a final bucket of water for the extinction of this "burning question." Time was when its production would send its author to Europe for a few months; but the skin of public men is tougher now, and when their tergiversation is exposed, they simply smile and change the subject, as Mr. Sherman undoubtedly does. Nothing could better illustrate the insincerity and puerility of this debate.

The truth appears to be that whenever the Senate has been in harmony with the Executive, it has either not asked for papers, or has obtained them without difficulty, or has taken the refusal of them in good part. When, on the other hand, the Senate has for any reason got out of harmony with the Executive, it has almost invariably become clamorous for papers about offices, has demanded them with more or less vehemence, and sometimes has got them and sometimes not. The President, however, whether he gave them or did not give them, has always remained, and must always remain, master of the situation, for the simple reason that, in case of non-compliance, there is no remedy against him but impeachment. But it is also to be observed that there is no trace, in all the long history of this question, of any systematic desire on the part of the Senate to know the President's motives, in making either appointments or removals, for the purpose of improving the service. It has always been due either to a desire to "get even with him" for some failure to carry out his bargains, or to compel him to come to terms in some contemplated division of the spoils, or to some party purpose.

THE ANNULMENT OF CHARTERS.

MR. CARTER, in his argument before the Legislative Committee last week, protested strongly against the annulment of the charter of the Broadway Railroad on two grounds. One was that the interests created by the charter were property like any other property, and therefore

sacred. The other was that, the practice of annulling charters once begun, it would be taken for a precedent, would be frequently resorted to or threatened, and thus not only put all rights created by a charter in constant peril, but would transfer the corruption of which we now complain in the Board of Aldermen, to the Legislature itself. In other words, we presume, money would be paid to induce the Legislature not to annul charters as it is now paid to the Aldermen to grant them.

All this, however, suggests but does not answer the question, why the power of regulating charters is reserved to the Legislature. What is the object or use of this power? What good purpose did those who reserved it expect to be served by it? The State, as represented by the Legislature, was surely not armed with it simply as an ornament or for the purpose of levying blackmail. It cannot have been intended simply to compel the holders of charters to work the railroads for which the charters are granted, because this is provided for otherwise. Charters of which no use is made can be forfeited by proceedings in the courts instituted by the Attorney-General. Why, then, does this power of repeal exist?

It exists, we take it, for the same purpose as all the other powers with which the Constitution arms the Legislature—for the same purpose as the Legislature itself exists—for the purpose for which charters are granted—the promotion of the public interest. Franchises are not bestowed in this or any other civilized country in order that a particular set of men may make money out of them, or that securities furnishing a convenient form of investment may be based on them, or, in other words, in order that they may become valuable property in the hands of a small number of persons. The prospect of making money out of them, or of basing securities on them, is undoubtedly what induces individuals to ask for them; but that, the franchise once granted, the State is bound not to interfere with the money-making, and is bound to see that it goes on undisturbed under all circumstances, is a doctrine which we believe no civilized State has yet adopted.

What the Legislature has to consider first and foremost in exercising any of its powers, the power of annulling charters among others, is the effect on the public welfare. In deciding whether it will take Sharp's franchise away from him or not, it ought, of course, to weigh the benefits of the proceeding against the advantages. This has to be done in nearly all legislative action. Hardly anything it does or can do is unmixed good. The interests of Sharp's bondholders, or of that comparatively small number of them—say $1,500,000 worth—who can be called "innocent holders," should undoubtedly not be overlooked, but no injury to them which the law allows should stand in the way of great benefit to the community at large. As a matter of fact, in this case, no injury need be worked to them at all. Their bonds can be readily paid out of the proceeds of a sale of the franchise at auction.

Now, what is the first duty of the Legislature in this matter of the Broadway Railway? It is to put a stop to what was called by one of the witnesses before the Committee, the "Aldermanic business"—that is, the business of selling franchises. The commoner and the longer established this business has been, the more solemn and imperative is the obligation resting on the Legislature to break it up. If it be true, as Jaehne is reported to have said, that the Aldermen have been paid for every railroad franchise granted in this city within twenty years; or even if it be true, as some of Sharp's apologists have said, that all franchises granted by any legislative body in this country now are paid for regularly by the grantees, the more needful is it that such action should be taken as will warn all persons applying for franchises and all persons investing money under them, that, as far as this State and city are concerned, they are not a good purchase, and that all money put into them runs the risk of being lost. It will never do in this community and this age to surrender to the notion that because an evil is great it is incurable, or that because it is of long standing there is no use in attacking it.

It is not the business of the Legislature to punish the individual bribers or bribed. That duty belongs to the courts or the police. But it is the duty of the Legislature, and its highest duty, to take such steps as may seem likely to be effective to stop or impede the practice of bribery, by making it unsafe and unprofitable. It was for just such purposes and emergencies as this that, in our opinion, the power of revoking charters was granted. It is not once in a hundred years, too, that so good a case for the exercise of this power offers itself as Sharp's case. It is a power which, as being liable, we grant, to great abuse, should never be exercised unless its justification be clear to the public eye. But a plainer case than Sharp's could not be asked for. The evidence, even if it be not sufficient to procure his conviction and that of his confederates before a court of justice, is abundantly sufficient for legislative action. His own confessions, and those of Kerr, Richmond, Foshay, and Hayes, coupled with the revelations made as to the sudden accessions of wealth at a certain period, of some of the Aldermen, are ample proofs of the use of money to procure the charter. No civilized government, we venture to affirm, having the power to strip Sharp of his spoils, would, in view of what is now known of his operations, fail to exercise it. Moreover, the very enormity of his corruption and its audacity furnish the best possible defence against the danger to which Mr. Carter points, that an attack on it may be converted into a precedent dangerous to honestly acquired franchises. Sharp's offence is so flagrant that we shall probably not for a hundred years see anything which could be made to look like it as an excuse for legislative interference with vested rights.

Finally, we would ask legislators to consider for one moment what the effect will be of allowing Sharp to get clean off with his 9,520 shares of stock, and his $788,000 of bonds, upon the generation which has been growing up since the civil war in this city, and which has learned to consider money the chief earthly good, its possession the one final proof of talent and success, and the purchasability of every public man and public body one of the fundamental facts of our social and political system. We heard a political observer of high standing maintain very recently that our Government was now so permeated with corruption that, in trying to effect any public improvement, one had to calculate on the venality of legislators as one of the essential conditions of the enterprise, like the hardness of rock or the weight of clay. Does any sane man suppose that this state of things, or rather this state of feeling on the part of good citizens, can continue indefinitely without danger to everything that is valuable in public or private life? Would it not, in view of it, be madness to allow men like Sharp and his confederates, not only to escape punishment for their misdeeds and to grow rich on them, but actually to erect a monument in our streets, both of their own successful villany and of the feebleness and corruption of the Government they thrive under?

THE WASTE OF TIME AT COURT.

The administration of justice in this city suffers under a multitude of abuses, most of which are perpetuated because it is for the pecuniary interest of some one to perpetuate them. But there is one most vexatious abuse which is apparently an exception to this rule. It is the compulsory attendance at court of a large number of people upon the bare possibility that their attendance may be necessary. This particular evil seems to involve no advantage to any one, and to be the object of the united execrations of both lawyers and clients. It is highly injurious to the business of lawyers, not only because it wastes a great deal of their time, but also because it deters their clients from invoking legal aid in procuring their rights. It is injurious to the general business of the community because it operates as a denial of justice. It destroys the satisfaction of victory by the enormous loss of time that it involves, and for the same reason it makes defeat more crushing. The bench and the bar, clients, witnesses, and jurymen, all groan under this affliction, and all are apparently equally helpless.

The abuse in question is an instance under the familiar law that institutions in their origin well adapted to their purposes may become grossly oppressive when changed circumstances have destroyed this adaptation. In former days, when communities were of moderate size and business was of moderate volume, a single court might without great inconvenience dispose of the cases at issue in any term by placing them all upon its calendar for a given day. Even now this probably remains true throughout the greater part of the land. The number of cases is not very large, so that in any event no one will suffer from prolonged delay. The attorneys are acquainted with one another's cases, and can calculate the probable course of things; and all parties, including judges, are generally in such intimate personal relations as to be compelled, even if not disposed, to be accommodating. But with the enormous calendars of the courts of this city such calculation and accommodation has become impracticable. Instead of a single

court, with a calendar of a dozen or twenty cases for the term, there are, besides the City Court, three courts of nearly equal jurisdiction, each of which is divided into a number of parts. Each of these parts has upon its day calendar from twenty to forty cases, and each case involves the attendance of two attorneys or their clerks, and possibly three or four witnesses. It is no exaggeration to say that upon almost any morning of the term a thousand men are obliged to leave their business and make a journey to the court-house simply as a matter of precaution. It is very certain that not more than one hundred of the thousand will find that there is anything to be done but to wait for half an hour and then return; but, as it is impossible to determine whose presence will be required, it is not safe for any one to stay away.

If this vexatious experience were not too many times repeated, it might be tolerable; but it is not uncommon for a case to appear on the day calendar for weeks at a time, and it may be necessary to stand ready to go to trial upon any day during that period. When there are many witnesses, and especially when there are witnesses from out of town, the expense and inconvenience caused by this delay are almost inconceivable. Business men are usually reluctant to leave their own affairs and go to court to testify about matters in which they have no interest; and though it may be possible to overcome this reluctance upon one or two occasions, their patience is exhausted by demands too often repeated. Lawyers frequently do not summon their witnesses when they really ought to do so, because they are afraid of exasperating them even when willing, and, if unwilling, of losing them altogether. Hence they are often caught finally unprepared, although they may have been for weeks in a state of complete preparation, and must choose between two evils: they must either go to trial when they are not ready for it, or lose their chance for weeks or even months, only to have the same experience repeated. "Cases must be ready when reached" is the rule of the court, and though when a case is first called this rule is not rigidly applied, any further accommodation is a matter of chance or favor. Many judges seem to think it a fine thing to be severe in the application of this rule, regardless of the fact that their arbitrariness often condemns innocent parties to the loss of the labor of weeks, and not infrequently drives them to abandon their causes altogether.

The trial terms of our courts do not average more than five hours a day of actual session, and of this time nearly one-fifth is frequently taken up with the disposition of the calendar and procuring a jury. Arrangements ought to be made by which a part at least of this time should be saved, so that the actual trial of causes might begin before midday. A reform of this nature would do much to remedy the present delay of justice, but it would not go to the root of the evil. So long as the number of cases exceeds the capacity of courts to dispose of them, suitors must wait, and the rule "First come, first served" must apply. But it is certainly possible so to arrange matters that after a man has necessarily waited a year for his cause to be reached, he shall not unnecessarily be kept with his witnesses dancing attendance for weeks at the Court-house.

It would be absurd to deny that it is extremely difficult to devise a remedy for these abuses. The trouble is of a two-fold nature. It is impossible at present either to determine the time that cases will occupy in trial, or to know whether they will be ready when called. A case that will occupy weeks may come on at any time, and on the other hand twenty cases may melt away in as many moments. The remedy, therefore, must meet both these difficulties. There should be a classification of cases as they are put upon the calendar, according to the probable length of time that their trial will consume. Of course, only a rough estimate of this kind could be made; but that such an estimate is practicable appears from the existence of the "short cause" calendar, an institution that might well be constituted upon somewhat more enlightened principles than at present. Wherever possible the calendar clerk should be informed when a note of issue is filed whether the case will be ready for trial upon short notice or not, in order that there may be a supply of cases that can be drawn upon in an emergency. There should always be one judge unassigned, ready to hold a term for the trial of cases that were ready at their appointed time, but were crowded out of their regular place by unforeseen delays.

With these arrangements, it would become possible when a case was put upon the calendar to set it down for trial upon a particular date, no matter how far in the future. If at that date another case having priority was still on trial, the extra term could be resorted to. If on the other hand the calendar was cleared sooner than was calculated, the reserve of cases ready upon short notice could be called upon, or the judge could hold the extra term for the trial of cases that were ready and waiting. Immediate notice of the settlement of cases should be required and advertised, in order that the time thus set free might be claimed by those who wished to advance their suits, or by those whose places had been lost by accident or mistake.

Doubtless many improvements upon this remedy could be suggested by members of the bar, and it would obviously require calendar clerks of a high order of ability as well as of a certain degree of impartiality, and nowadays calendar clerks are changed according as Tammany or the County Democracy gets the upper hand. No doubt, also, many imperfections in the scheme would reveal themselves in practice. But no one can deny that something of this kind ought to be attempted, and that it ought to be attempted very soon. As we have suggested, there is no reason to expect opposition on the ground of pecuniary interest in the existing abuses, and on the other hand lawyers are losing a great deal of money by their continuance. If things remain as they are, it will soon become the general conviction of business men that it is better to let small claims go, no matter how just they may be, or how solvent the debtors, rather than to lose the time required to collect them by litigation.

CURATIVE PROPERTIES OF THE WATERS OF LA BOURBOULE.

THE traveller who takes his way southward for two hundred and sixty miles from Paris, by Nevers, will find himself, after a nine hours' ride, at Clermont-Ferrand, at the foot of the mountains of Auvergne, and on the eastern periphery of the railroad circle, or rather quadrilateral, that encompasses them. This mountain region, more than a hundred miles across in its least diameter, was untouched by railways until 1881; but in that year a road was opened from Clermont to Brives, carrying the traveller through some of the finest hill and mountain scenery in France, and some of the most interesting in Europe, for the ancient volcanoes of Auvergne rise upon the left hand of the new route. An hour from Clermont brings the traveller to Laqueuille station, and here he finds the diligence waiting to carry him still further and higher among the hills to the thermal mineral springs of La Bourboule and of Mont-Dore.

After two hours of ascent and descent among the hills, one is set down at his hotel door, upon the right bank of the Dordogne River, and in the mountain village of La Bourboule—a village of six hundred inhabitants according to the census; but more than six thousand people spend a part of the year at the springs. The bottom of the valley lies at 3,782 feet above sea level. At this elevation the climate is, of course, variable, yet it is not trying; the range of the thermometer during the season is from 53° to 86° Fahr., and some patients prolong their stay beyond the close of the regular season (September 30th) for the sake of the pleasant autumn weather. A rude granite cliff walls in the valley on the north. From the "tormented ground" at its foot spring the precious thermal waters whose curative values I will describe.

No mineral waters that I know have more legitimately acquired their title of "precious" than these. While many of their constituents, as the chlorides and the alkaline carbonates, remind us that they belong to the great family of the waters of Auvergne, the large quantity of arsenic (nearly half a grain to the gallon, or two grains of the arseniate of soda, according to Lefort's analysis in 1878) gives to these waters an individuality which is rivalled by no other. It must be added, however, that since the deepening of the Choussy well in 1878 the amount of arsenic has been somewhat diminished. Four of the springs are thermal, ranging from 85° to 140° Fahr.; the two Fenestre springs are at 66° Fahr. These are less rich in arsenic than the others, but have iron in them, and are well charged with carbonic-acid gas. They are used for drinking only, or to temper the excessive heat of the stronger springs as used for bathing.

(1.) What, first, are the strictly physiologic effects of these waters? One might almost call them pathologic at the outset. Taken as a drink in the morning, they produce a sensation of warmth and fulness, somewhat like that of veal broth, which indeed they resemble in taste; but they disturb the digestion, diminishing the appetite, and sometimes bringing on looseness, though the patient generally gains flesh under their continued use. But if they cause indolence of the digestive tract, on the other hand they excite the circulatory system to an almost febrile activity. Under the influence of their stimulus, which extends to the capillary circulation, the skin becomes dry and hot; the subjacent tissues are tense; cutaneous affections become more irritating, and the invalid's sufferings may be at first increased. But it is in this very development of circulation and cutaneous energy that the physician finds his resources for the cure, whether of a grave constitutional dyscrasia like

scrofula, or of local ailments like certain diseases of the skin or of the throat which are its manifestations. Not only the circulation, but the respiratory tract feels the stimulus of these waters; there is dryness of the throat and more or less constriction of the laryngeal muscles. The nervous system, too, is excited: many patients cannot sleep well at first, and feel unusual need of exercise. In a word, the waters of La Bourboule are at the outset eminently exciting to the circulation, to the skin, and to the nervous system. But this excitation, which needs the physician's care as long as it lasts, supplies the physiological capital for the cure of chronic disease.

(2.) For what classes of disease, will have been divined already. Scrofula and the lymphatic temperament, and most of the complaints that depend upon *lymphatism*, as certain affections of the respiratory tract and certain obstinate skin diseases—these form the great specialties of cure at La Bourboule. The therapeutic qualities of the waters, by virtue of their arsenic and chloride of sodium, are tonic and "reconstituant." The salt excites the lymphatic system, stimulates the mucous tract, and modifies its secretions, and, with the alkaline carbonates, acts powerfully upon strumous engorgements and tumors, often dispelling them entirely. Arsenic has long been recognized as one of the most powerful tonics known, and the researches of Fowler and Pearson in England, and of Biett in France, have long made known its special efficacy in the treatment of scrofulous and skin diseases.

What is the nature of scrofula, the parent of "a pestilence-stricken multitude" of varied ailments? It is, in a somewhat less restricted sense than usual, a disease itself: but it is rather a condition, a diathesis, which produces a lowered vitality in most of the tissues, solid or fluid, of the human body, and a consequent predisposition to maladies of many different forms, as cutaneous, ganglionic, and pulmonary—both the mucous and the serous tracts, and even the joints and the bones themselves, being often attacked. In consequence of this variety of manifestations, we find at La Bourboule a multitude of patients whose symptoms would seem quite unamenable to any common treatment, did we not know that they came from one maleficent cause. To begin with one of the most stubborn and evident manifestations of scrofula, that of adenitis or glandular enlargements: these I have known to be diminished during the first season of treatment, and mostly, though not quite, dispersed by a second season. But a speedy cure is not to be hoped for in these cases. Scrofulous conjunctivitis and blepharitis, or stubborn inflammation of the eyelids, are successfully treated here, and also at the neighboring station of Saint-Nectaire, by spraying with the mineral waters. Chronic bronchitis, when of scrofulous origin and catarrhal in its nature, is especially well adapted to treatment at La Bourboule, and so also are asthma and chronic laryngitis, when they are of the same category.

Articular affections, such as white swellings and torpid effusions after sprains or dislocation, are relieved or cured by the baths and douches, conjoined with the moderate internal use of the water. Even scrofulous caries and necrosis have been arrested in the same way; though here, again, we have to deal with structural changes so serious that it should always be with guarded hopes. Lastly, a considerable number of skin diseases find in La Bourboule their appointed healing waters—such, namely, as depend upon the herpetic diathesis. For such as eczema and herpes, which indicate the arthritic diathesis, the neighboring waters of Royat are the better place. This distinction, a very valuable one for the consulting physician and for his patient, is pointed out by my accomplished friend Dr. Boucomont, inspector of the waters of Royat. Psoriasis, ptyriasis, and symmetric eczema are among the dermatoses which find almost certain relief or cure at La Bourboule.

I have named the leading ailments for which a definitely specialized remedial agency exists in these potent waters. It will be useful also to point out certain classes of patients who should not go to La Bourboule. Plethoric persons in general, those who have any tendency toward congestion or hemorrhage, cases in which there are any organic changes in the heart or in the larger blood-vessels, and those who suffer from hepatic enlargements and inflammations, as Dr. Vérité has especially pointed out—cases of these sorts are those chiefly contra-indicated as for these stimulating waters. Vichy and Carlsbad are the types of the reducing waters that they should employ according to their special need.

A word of caution in closing as to the determination of this special need will not be amiss. The very frequent secret of failure to make a cure at a watering place is the fact that the spring, however good, has not been rightly chosen. Do not insist, like Ahab of old, upon choosing your own Abana and Pharpar. Carlsbad, for instance, is one of the most effective of all springs for cases that are suited to Carlsbad. But I know one of the most prominent men in the country who went last summer to Carlsbad, took its lowering treatment, which was quite unsuited to his particular need, and came back worse than he went. At the right spring he could have been cured. It is only the competent consulting physician who can rightly direct the invalid in a case like this. It is not enough for him to know that a certain mineral water, a certain climate and regimen, have been good for others. He must be assured that they are good for him.

But if his choice of La Bourboule has been rightly made, he will never regret it. These potent waters, acting in concert with the favorable climate and surroundings of the place, and taken under the direction of a competent local physician, such as Dr. Vérité or Dr. Danjoy, will certainly work either a cure or as much alleviation of suffering as is possible. Though now frequented by the English, scarcely any waters of corresponding merit are as yet so little known to our public; none are more deserving of being better known. Their fame, however, is recent; in due time their American vogue will follow.

TITUS MUNSON COAN.

ENGLAND.—A DISUNITED PARTY.

LONDON, March 9.

THE biography of this Parliament will certainly form an interesting chapter in the history of party government. Hitherto we have clung to the theory of Burke: we have regarded a party as a body of men who unite in promoting the common interest on principles which they are agreed in supporting. We are now compelled to acknowledge that a party is a composite body, which carries on public business by means of temporary compromises between various sections of opinion. There is no working majority for any set of opinions in the present House of Commons, and it is by no means certain that the next general election will give a working majority either to Liberals or to Conservatives. "The Queen's Government must be carried on," and is carried on; but the old rules of political discipline are relaxed or superseded to a considerable extent.

When Mr. Gladstone took office under Sir Robert Peel it was understood that every member of a government was bound to vote and act with due regard to the theory that the Cabinet is a united body, representing a united party. If Peel or Palmerston had been called on to repel Mr. Labouchere's attack on the House of Lords, there would have been no indulgence for any gentleman who found it inconvenient to be present on the Treasury Bench. It is now the regular custom for advanced members of the Government to signalize themselves by their absence on such occasions; some newspapers even express surprise that good Radicals like Mr. Mundella should have been found in the same lobby with Mr. Gladstone and the Tories. The spread of liberty among his colleagues tends to increase the difficulties of a leader. We know that Mr. Gladstone is not himself opposed to the existence of the Upper House; he told us the other day at Edinburgh that he is in favor of a "reasonable admixture of the hereditary element" in the Constitution. But his reply to Mr. Labouchere was halting and ineffective. He was speaking against the feeling of some indispensable colleagues, against what may turn out to be the preponderating sentiment of his party; his critics are they of his own household. His power is impaired and his personal responsibility is increased; for under present conditions none can say what a party stands committed to until its leader has spoken. The other night, when Mr. Crilly proposed to extend the principle of the Irish Land Act to house property, he was answered by Mr. John Morley in a speech full of dry common sense and economic principle. Mr. Crilly and his friends were not extinguished: they waited to hear what the Prime Minister would say; and the Prime Minister—balancing economic principles and political facts—admitted that a case had been made out for inquiry.

The reign of compromise is borne with more or less impatience by persons of definite opinions who like to know where they are going. Radicals are heard to complain that Mr. Gladstone has made a mistake in taking office. It is plain, they say, that this Parliament cannot deal with the Irish difficulty; the attempt to deal with it can only discredit us, and produce a Conservative reaction. Nor can we expect "big legislation" from a House of Commons which is divided to such an extent that the House of Lords will have a good pretext for rejecting any large measure of change sent up to it in the name of this Government. It would have been better to mark time for a few months until an opportunity offered to rouse the country on some intelligible and popular issue.

The Moderate Liberals, on the other hand, are in a very dissatisfied state of mind. They are strong in ability and character, and yet they seem to have no influence on the conduct of affairs. They are told that they hold the balance of parties; but instead of being conciliated by both sides, they are roundly abused by the Radicals for impeding political progress, and by the Conservatives for refusing Lord Randolph Churchill's repeated invitation to "come over and help" the constitutional party. If the Whigs thought only of increasing their own consequence, they would certainly go further than they have yet gone in declared opposition to the Government. But, "after all," as Mr. Goschen would say, they are Liberals; their leaders are personally attached to Mr. Gladstone; and they have no confidence in the other side. If the Conservatives had a perfectly clear record on Irish and economical questions, moderate men might be more strongly tempted to join them; but it is vain to pretend that they have anything of the kind. Lord Hartington cannot go over and help Lord Randolph to tax foreign produce, to increase the national expenditure, and to conciliate the Irish by abusing Lord Spencer. As usual in such cases, thoughtful politicians are asking why we cannot have a Coalition Government from

* B. 298.

which the impracticable men on both sides might be excluded. It would be rash to say that a coalition is out of the question; it certainly is not possible under existing circumstances. Lord Salisbury will not come in without his "noble friend," Lord Randolph Churchill; the "mariage de convenance" of two years ago has ripened into a union of mutual respect, if not of mutual affection. But even from the moderate Liberal's point of view Lord Randolph must be pronounced impracticable. In his speech at the Eighty Club last week, Lord Hartington returned a cool and formal answer to the impassioned appeals addressed to him. He is going to wait for Mr. Gladstone. It has been stated that Lord Hartington's refusal to take office was due, not to Mr. Gladstone's Irish policy, but to his want of a policy, and that when the Government produces its plan, his Lordship may possibly be able to support it. But all such statements are, of course, mere rumors. Lord Hartington is not a man of the communicative and aggressive temperament of Mr. Chamberlain; and the materials for ascertaining his personal opinions are somewhat scanty.

Among the Conservatives there are, for the moment, fewer sections and divisions than among their opponents. Opposition, when conducted in a hopeful spirit, is a great reconciler of differences, and Lord Salisbury's followers are full of hope. They believe that the current of reaction against what they call Gladstonianism is spreading to the counties, and running stronger than ever in the boroughs. Mr. Chamberlain's programme has never been heartily accepted by some of our best workingmen; on the other hand, it has caused alarm among the shopkeepers, and generally among people having small properties. Again, the State Socialism which Mr. Chamberlain has insisted on identifying with Radicalism may find a formidable rival in Fair Trade. The Conservative leaders are cautious in their dealings with the new form of protection, but the smaller men of the party declare boldly for excluding foreign competition, and gain votes by doing so. It is not surprising that East London, for instance, should be stirred by the cry of Fair Trade, when workingmen orators are sent down to proclaim that "here, as in the United States, protection means constant employment at high wages for every man among our own people who is willing to work." Your readers will be able to say whether this is a correct statement of the significance of protection in America. These heresies are of course hateful to the high-and-dry economical Conservative like Lord Wemyss, but the valiant endeavor to reconstitute the Tory party on the lines of commercial orthodoxy has not met with much success.

Another cause of division among Conservatives has been quietly put on one side. Lord Randolph's Irish views were as distasteful to Mr. Charles Lewis, the champion of Ulster Protestantism, as Lord Randolph's economic heresies must be to Lord Wemyss. When Lord Randolph mounted the Orange cockade and delivered his Belfast speech, Mr. Sexton saw his opportunity to have some sport at the expense of the Tories, and gave notice that he would call attention to the previous relations between the noble Lord and the Parnellites. But the notice has come to nothing. It was found on inquiry that Lord Randolph, while willing to accept the Irish vote at Birmingham or elsewhere, had not said anything which would fairly justify Parliamentary censure. Mr. Gladstone would not give a day for a discussion which would have stirred up ill-feeling and produced no result. Mr. Parnell did not press the matter: he does not mean to break with the actual or coming leader of any English party just at present. R.

A NOVEL BY OCTAVE FEUILLET.

PARIS, March 10, 1886.

Two novels are at the present moment occupying almost exclusively the mind of what used to be called "polite society." One is 'La Morte,' by Octave Feuillet; the other, 'Un Crime d'amour,' by M. Paul Bourget. I will now speak only of the first. It appeared serially in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and the first two numbers had a great success. The third and final number, if it satisfied some of the admirers of M. Feuillet, disappointed the great majority of his readers. The exposition was amusing and original. A young man, of good education, of good family, belonging, as the heroes of Octave Feuillet always do, to the "upper ten thousand," has lost his faith in revealed religion, in the supernatural; and has lost it, he thinks, for ever. He has only preserved the high sentiment of honor, the love of truth, which constitutes the "gentleman." The time comes for him to get married, and naturally he comes in contact with a girl imbued with the highest sentiments of faith, permeated, if I may say so, with religion, a pure spiritualist, a perfect Christian. The gentleman is a Parisian *par excellence;* he is worldly; she is a *provinciale*, who knows nothing of "Satan, his pomps and his works." You see at once the situation. He is perfectly honest and straightforward; he confesses his utter want of religion, his absolute rationalism; he does not affect to feel any sentiments which he does not really feel. The girl's family look upon him with fear and distrust; she also is afraid, but she hopes that love may operate the work of grace. She hesitates a moment, and then she accepts the idea of a union which may become the salvation of the man whom she loves for his frankness, his refined feelings, his culture. She cannot help hoping that marriage will transform him; that the continual spectacle of her own life, inspired and ennobled by an ardent faith, will soften his heart and make him feel the beauty and the power of her own ideal. She takes him to the altar as her lover, and she feels sure that some day or other she will bring him again to the altar as a Christian, and complete the communion of their two lives.

This is undoubtedly a very interesting situation; all the more so that it is not an uncommon one in our country, where the women receive a very religious education, and where the men are often completely imbued, not only with the philosophical ideas of the time of Voltaire, but also with the materialistic views of the Positivist school. Octave Feuillet's novel raises the whole question of the education of woman. In a highly civilized community, ought the women to receive an education based on other principles than those which form the education of men? Are they to be treated quite differently by the legislator, the moralist, and the philosopher? Are they, so to speak, two species in one? What is food for one, can it be poison for the other?

This, I will say at once, is the conclusion to which M. Octave Feuillet arrives; and in order to prove his theory he is obliged to introduce incidental characters in his novel—namely, a great surgeon, a thorough materialist, who has retired to the country where our couple live; and the handsome and fascinating daughter of the Positivist doctor. This young person has been educated by her father in total ignorance of any religious creed. She has learned what a man learns—natural history, chemistry; has grown up like a fine plant or a happy animal, accustomed to follow her natural instincts, and to consider them as good and almost holy. And what comes of it? She falls in love with the young husband, and places herself between him and his religious wife. You know now all the characters, and may yourself construct the drama.

Octave Feuillet attributes every virtue to the old doctor, and represents his daughter as a moral monster. He wishes evidently to prove that man is better made for infidelity than woman; that the religion of honor survives in man the belief in an established church; that man can construct rules of morality for himself with the help of mere science. He denies this faculty to woman, a creature of mere impulse, emotional, sentimental, sensational. It is a pity that M. Octave Feuillet has gone so far. A woman can learn chemistry without using her knowledge in poisoning her rival. A man can learn chemistry and be a poisoner. The episode of the old doctor and of his infamous daughter, who gives a dose of aconite to the wife of the man whom she wishes to marry, is forced and is even unnecessary. Feuillet wishes to convert his infidel young husband, and he does finally convert him by the death of his wife and the discovery of the crime of the woman who for a moment has robbed his wife of his love. He believes that his wife died believing him to be an accomplice in this crime, and he wants to prove to her his innocence; how can he do it? She is dead; how can he convince "la morte"? It is only in another life, and it is thus that he forces his soul into a belief in its own immortality. He becomes religious because if he does not, he loses every chance of clearing himself and of proving his innocence. But why should not love do the same work as pride? When I thought of the title 'La Morte' before reaching the end of the story, I thought that perhaps the young husband would be converted and feel "the new man" in him at the death-bed of his young child. There is much truth in the assumption that man is seldom converted by reasoning, by argument; hundreds and hundreds of books have been written by theologians which have probably failed in their object. We all have, or may have, our impressions of the road to Damascus; we may all, like St. Paul, feel the sudden and irresistible work of grace. Such transformations are generally worked by a great passion, by a sentiment. 'La Morte' would have been less melodramatic, but it would have been a more perfect work of art, if the transformation had been operated in the young and unbelieving husband by the mystic agency of love, of suffering, by the spectacle of a great sacrifice inspired by faith, by one of those miracles which are constantly taking place in the world of the soul. We do not want dynamite or poisons in the spiritual world. The last part of this otherwise excellent novel of Feuillet's is disappointing, disenchanting, unnatural, and almost revolting. He who wishes to prove too much proves nothing. Who can seriously think that unbelief necessarily conducts a woman to crime? Mlle. Sabine Tallevant, the poisoner, is too repulsive. After having seduced her country neighbor, after having poisoned his wife, after having been married to him six months, she coolly declares to him that she loves him no more, that she intends to resume her entire freedom, and to take lovers if she chooses. Octave Feuillet would have us believe that if she behaves so, it is because she believes in Darwin and in Comte, because she knows all about "the struggle for existence," and so on.

In his first novels Feuillet does not exhibit such preoccupation; he is content to show us fine ladies and fine gentlemen, very romantic in all their notions, much absorbed by the passion of love, and living in a sort of unreal world, a world of convention, of fine language, fine manners, and preëminently fashionable. By degrees we see a higher aim developing itself in his work; his object seems to be to demonstrate how the highest social state cannot but lead to vice and crime, in the absence of a definite faith. In one of his novels, written in this new manner, 'M. de Ca-

mors,' he clearly tries to prove that the religion of honor is insufficient. The father of M. de Camors traces for his son this programme of life: "To develop in all their extension the physical and intellectual gifts which chance has given to him; to make of himself the accomplished type of a civilized man of his own time; to charm women and to rule over men; to give himself all the pleasures of the mind, of the senses, of power; to subdue all the natural sentiments as the instincts of slavery; to disdain all vulgar beliefs as chimerical or hypocritical; to love nothing, to fear nothing, and respect nothing but honor." M. de Camors enters life with this programme, and whoever has read the novel knows where it leads him.

Octave Feuillet at the time of his first manner was sometimes called the "Musset des familles"—the family Musset. It may be that the slight irony contained in these words was not without influence on him. The novels of the second manner certainly show us very dreadful characters. The atmosphere is always the same—the heroes and heroines are always genteel, but it seems as if next to every angel the novelist felt the necessity of placing a devil. Some of his ladies, though they have not read Darwin and Schopenhauer, are real moral monsters; and it must be confessed that some of the "angels" are very terrestrial. What their faith may be, it is difficult to imagine; if they are to be judged by their works, their religion seems not to be incompatible with laziness, extravagance, and coquetry. It is the religion of a caste: it has gilded prayer-books and goes to the fashionable church. At times Feuillet's ladies and gentlemen make on me the impression of musk or of some other strong perfume; the air in which they move is laden with intellectual and moral incense. There is a certain sort of coarseness in all their gentility, as there is in a number of the *Vie Parisienne*. If this is spiritualism, give me a little materialism. The spiritualism of Octave Feuillet is not of the rarest quality; it is not the spiritualism of a Jansenist, or even of the pious lady of the seventeenth or the eighteenth century: it is superficial; it is the mask of a society which wishes to hide its scepticism, its love of pleasure, its egoism. Still, his novels are valuable documents for the history of our time—just as valuable as the documents of the realistic and naturalist school. They show us something different, but what they show us does exist; and Feuillet has often admirably depicted the weaknesses, the contradictions, the pretentious frivolities of a caste which, having no longer any privileges, has partly lost its sense of responsibility, and which is losing by degrees its influence in every sphere except the sphere of social vanities.

Correspondence.

THE TARIFF ON DIRT AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I see from your last issue that the learned counsel of the Wool-Growers' Association of Ohio insist on the propriety of making carpet wool pay more duty per pound of clean wool, when imported clean or nearly clean, than when imported with the original dirt. To expose the fallacy of their argument would require more space than you are likely to grant me, but I may be permitted to ask Messrs. Sanders and Newlin a few questions with reference to some portions of the argument recently made by them before the Secretary of the Treasury and published by them. The closing sentence of that argument reads as follows:

"If the Secretary of the Treasury will notice the immense increase in carpet-wool importations in 1885 over 1884, and if he will further notice the yearly increase in wool importations from Russia, he will readily see the importance of this question, and how the increase was fostered to such great proportions."

The official figures of our importations of carpet-wools during the last six fiscal years, as given in the last annual wool-circular of Messrs. Geo. W. Bond & Co., of Boston, are as follows:

1880	59,320,411 pounds,	1883	40,130,322 pounds,
1881	42,385,709 "	1884	62,525,692 "
1882	47,208,175 "	1885	50,782,306 "

making an annual average of 50,392,102 pounds, just about equal to the importation of 1885.

Will Messrs. Sanders and Newlin be good enough to explain how these figures are to be reconciled with the above-quoted assertions? If they ever had any figures showing the alleged increase in our importations from Russia, I should like to see them and to know their origin: until they produce and prove them I rely on my own experience, and on that of other importers from Russia, and pronounce this part of their statement as unfounded as the other.

Will Messrs. Sanders and Newlin be good enough to explain that part of their argument before the Secretary in which they assert that "washed wool" means "wool washed on the sheep's back," and support the assertion by half-a-dozen written opinions from dealers in American wools? Arguing that Donskoi wool, being washed after shearing, must be "scoured wool," will they explain how it comes that all these experts and they themselves forget the fact that even among American fine wools there is such a thing as "tub-washed wool," which is not washed on the sheep's back and still never passes for "scoured" wool?

Surely, Messrs. Sanders and Newlin have studied law in Ohio, and are entitled to a degree or a decoration from that most honorable concern, the Wool-Growers' Association.

Gustav Schwab.

New York, March 23, 1886.

EXECUTIVE SESSIONS AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is believed that the vigorous and progressive public sentiment which has succeeded in securing a civil service law as a means of elevating and purifying the administration of public offices, will not be content with what it has already accomplished, but will continue its efforts to improve the public service by endeavoring to correct such abuses as stand in the way of further reform. But, while it is generally conceded that one of the worst obstacles to further progress in the direction indicated is the secret executive sessions of the Senate, it is evident from the manner in which the proposal, recently made by a member of that body, to throw open the doors for the consideration of executive business, was received by those to whom it was addressed, that the popular demand for complete publicity will have to be very strong and loud before the object sought can be attained.

It may be urged in favor of the suggestion made by the writer (in No. 1080 of the *Nation*), that the vote on nominations be public, but the discussion of them, if the Senate so desire, secret, that it is a remedy to which Senators could not object without betraying an unwillingness to bear their just share of responsibility in the matter of appointments. It would simply be requiring them to stand in line with the President, and be judged by their acts, as the President is judged by his. To this they could not validly object.

There is good ground for saying that the great evil of secret sessions for the transaction of executive business has been that they have afforded the most ample opportunity, of which industrious use has been made, for the consummation of bargains for the distribution of patronage, and not that they have prevented the people from knowing what sort of men have been chosen to fill the public offices. In almost every instance where an actually unfit nomination is made, the fact is published before the nomination is confirmed. But the confirmation takes place, and nobody in the Senate is responsible. Public opinion is as strongly pronounced upon the character of the person appointed as if the people had derived their knowledge of it from the Senate, instead of directly from the press. But, perhaps by a coalition which would be impossible if constituencies were looking on, the appointment is completed.

It may, however, be said that if the character of nominees is exposed to public scrutiny already, it is illogical to advocate the secret discussion of nominations in the Senate out of regard for applicants' feelings. We reply that it is proposed to preserve secrecy to this extent not more because the probability of a public and perhaps partisan discussion of character in the Senate would deter sensitive men from applying for office, than because it is conceived that in such a matter secrecy is conducive to the complete information of those who are required to decide, as well as to proper freedom of discussion. A great many communications in reference to appointments to office are confidential in their character; and much valuable information is obtained in this way from men who could not be induced to appear as public accusers. We know how difficult it generally is to persuade people to appear in courts of justice to aid in the prosecution of persons who are the pests of a whole community, and there would be still less inclination to incur inconvenience and enmities on account of a Federal appointment. On the other hand, it is going a great way to say that no man should apply for a public position who (as the *Nation* has said) "shrank from having his fitness discussed before any audience, however large." Unfortunately for the country, many honorable men whose services might be of great public benefit do shrink from such discussion, and refuse to go before the people as candidates for official position rather than subject themselves to the detractions of unscrupulous opponents. The Higginses, Thomases, and Rasins are the sort of persons who probably care least for public criticism. They are used to being discussed; and not infrequently they are found courting "the fullest investigation."

It is erroneous to suppose that the public discussion of nominations would reveal, when the Senate confirms a man, "whether" (to use the *Nation's* phrase) "it confirms him because he is a great rascal or because he is a model of all the virtues." It is not likely that, if a Senator were influenced by the former motive, he would make a public declaration of the fact; and unless he did, his real motive would, after all, be a mere matter of inference or conjecture. An illustration of this may be drawn from the regular passage of the River and Harbor Bill, which is universally recognized as a grand log-rolling scheme; and yet, notwithstanding the public debate on it, no member of Congress is ever betrayed into a confession of the impurity of his motives. The bill goes through because the sentiment in favor of better government has not yet grown strong enough to overcome the seductive and enfeebling influence which an appropriation exerts on a large mass of voters.

With respect to the public offices, the case is different. The office-seeking class is comparatively small; and against those who would scramble into place in the old-fashioned way stands a large body of intelligent, vigorous men, representing a potential force of conviction which few Senators could afford to disregard, if they were made responsible, by an open vote taken by yeas and nays, for their action in reference

to nominations. The secret session might still be resorted to for the purpose of discussing the character of candidates. For daily experience shows that such secrecy does not prevent the people from knowing when an unfit man is nominated and confirmed; while it doubtless often enables the Senate to act intelligently, without needlessly and unjustly exposing applicants to inconsiderate and injurious discussions. J. B. M.

WASHINGTON, March 16, 1886.

FEDERAL COURTS AND STATE RESISTANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your No. 1076, page 121, appears the following statement: "Until the present time the United States has never been victorious in its judiciary department over a State determined to defy it." At least one case has occurred in the history of the United States where a national court has imposed its will upon the legal, civil, and military authorities of a powerful State. On the 25th day of March, 1809, the Marshal of the United States District Court of the District of Pennsylvania appeared to serve a process of arrest in the so-called Olmstead case, upon a Mrs. Sergeant in Philadelphia. He was stopped by two guards with fixed bayonets, under command of General Bright, who was acting under the orders of Governor Snyder, backed up by special acts of the Legislature. The Marshal, being obliged by force to desist from his service, withdrew, with the warning that he should raise the posse. On May 2, 1809, in the case of the United States vs. Bright et al., the jury brought in the following verdict:

"That the defendants are guilty of knowingly and wilfully obstructing, resisting and opposing the Marshal in his attempt to serve [a] judicial writ, but that the defendants acted under the order of the constituted authorities of Pennsylvania in so obstructing and resisting the Marshal. The jury leave it to the Court to say whether, upon the whole matter, thus found, the law is in favor of the United States or the defendants, and if the Court are of opinion that the law is with the United States, then the jury find the defendants guilty; but if the Court are of opinion that the law is with the defendants, then they find them not guilty" (*New England Palladium*, March 31, May 9, 1809).

Whereupon Judge Washington sentenced the accused to fine and imprisonment, which was duly inflicted.

I have quoted this verdict in full, in part because of its entertaining form; but chiefly because the details of this interesting assertion of the powers of the United States Courts are quite difficult to find. The following references may be useful to any one who cares to follow the matter out: Hildreth's 'History of the United States,' vi, 155-165; American State Papers, Misc., ii, 6-12; Congressional Debates, ix. 635; American Register (1809), 150 152, 165, 168-176.

Respectfully yours,

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

CAMBRIDGE, February 26, 1886.

WHAT THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT MIGHT DO FOR EDUCATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* is certainly to be commended for its vigorous opposition to that vicious and demoralizing piece of legislation, the Blair bill. The support of the measure depends largely upon demagogism on the part of politicians, and ignorant sentimentalism on the part of the people generally.

If there be one principle more firmly established than another in regard to public policy in this country, it is the duty of the state to provide liberally for the support of free common schools. People who do not reason about the matter, or who do not appreciate the relation existing between the national Government on the one hand and the State governments on the other, and the respective duties and obligations of each, think it strange and inconsistent in the national Government not to share in this support. It is to this mistaken, though honest, feeling and sentiment that those influenced by less interested motives appeal, and from which they derive their support and strength—at least their reliable strength.

Now, this sentiment ought certainly to be recognized, and it seems to me that there are ways in which the national Government can legitimately and intelligently foster the cause of education; and I have been somewhat surprised that this branch of the subject has not been touched upon in the discussion in your columns.

In the first place, Congress can see that model schools of the highest efficiency are maintained in the District of Columbia, which is under its immediate and sole jurisdiction. It can make the office of the Commissioner of Education effective by providing means for its support, so that it can employ specialists in its legitimate work, distribute educational literature until at least the demand is satisfied, get its report printed sooner than three or four years after its compilation, and do all that work in which such an office can wield so great an influence and accomplish so much good. There are men, like Prof. G. Stanley Hall, who might be employed in this office, where their writings, researches, and work might result in giving a great impetus to educational work throughout the country.

There are burning questions in the science and art of teaching pressing for a solution. For example, How and to what extent can manual and industrial training be introduced into our public schools? Why is this not a legit mate field of investigation and experiment for the Commissioner of Education to undertake with the encouragement and support of Congress? In a word, are there not many legitimate objects to which the national Government has not yet turned its attention to any satisfactory extent, and to which its efforts should be directed before any such dangerous experiments as are contemplated by the Blair bill are undertaken?

JOHN J. JENNINGS.

BRISTOL, CONN., March 20, 1886.

TYPICAL INDIAN TREATMENT IN MICHIGAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In my former letter I pointed out that thirty years ago the United States attempted substantially the very same policy that is being put forward now in Congress as a new movement in Indian affairs. I showed how the experiment, which was tried on the Isabella County reservation here in Michigan, resulted in robbery and utter pauperization and ruin of all save three or four of the Indians who received their lands in fee simple, and who would still have had homes on the reservation had the United States continued to hold their lands in trust, or compelled white scoundrels to respect their rights. In the present article I propose to show how a swindle begun among these Indians in the past is still operative, and how some of the people's money has been going for years to sustain idle teachers in empty schools, and to pay the salary of a minister of the Gospel in violation of the laws of the State and the nation.

From 1857 to 1867 the United States expended, under the direction of the President, for the educational interests of these Chippewas on their new reservation, $30,000. In 1864 the treaty of 1855 was amended, and among other things a provision was made authorizing the Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church to start a Manual Labor School on the reservation. A quarter section of land was set apart for the farm of the said school. The Missionary Society should, within three years, "erect suitable buildings, for school and boarding-house purposes, of a value of not less than $3,000" upon the school farm. The treaty designated a board of visitors, consisting of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, the Lieutenant-Governor of the State, and a person appointed by the Missionary Society, "whose duty it shall be to visit the said school once during each year and examine the same, and investigate the character and qualifications of its teachers and all other persons connected therewith, and report thereon to the Commissioner of Indian Affairs." "Upon the approval and acceptance of the school and boarding-house buildings by the board of visitors, the United States will pay to the authorized agent of said Missionary Society, for the support and maintenance of the school, the sum of $2,000, and the like sum annually thereafter until the whole sum of $20,000 shall have been expended." If, at the end of the said ten years, the Missionary Society can show that it has fulfilled the terms of the treaty "in a manner acceptable to the board of visitors during said ten years, the United States will convey to said Missionary Society the land before mentioned."

Well, at the end of the ten years the matter was allowed to rest until a proper opportunity came, when Republican officials in Washington aided the Missionary Society in obtaining the land, which it sold for $2,500; and as that could not have been done without satisfying the Administration that the terms of the treaty had been faithfully observed by the Missionary Society, and as such satisfaction could not have been afforded if the Missionary Society had not drawn the aforesaid $20,000 for the support of the School, it follows that the United States paid out for the education of these Indians, in addition to the $30,000 first named, also $20,000 in cash, besides awarding a quarter section of land which was sold at once for $2,500. Thus in about twenty years the United States paid $50,000 for the education of these Indians. But that is not all. Ever since the $30,000 fund was expended, the three Government schools on the reservation have been sustained by the United States at the rate of $400 per year each, or $1,200 annually for all. That outlay is still being made year after year, although the average attendance is not over three scholars per school, as I am informed by the most intelligent Indians on the reservation, and they are corroborated by the whites who know the condition of the schools. One of the schools, that at Nipising, gets $400 per year, and it has had but two scholars in the past year, as I am assured by Joseph Bradley, on whose land the schoolhouse stands, and who sends his own children to the district public school. This $400, therefore, is virtually obtained from the Government by misrepresentation, and it goes to pay the salary of the Methodist minister who is settled in that parish, not over the Indians, but the whites.

I am assured by both Indians and whites who know whereof they affirm, that in these Government schools, sustained for thirty years by the United States, not more than two Indians have ever learned to write their names, and not more than five or six ever learned to read, and these only familiar lessons in the first or second reader. They assure me, those very few Indians who have learned to read and write, that they learned nothing until they got into school among whites. To-day those Indians who have any desire to educate their children send them to the district schools, and they keep right along with the white children in the classes there.

"Do the whites treat them well?" I asked of the Indians.

"Yes! yes! Good. All right. No trouble 't all. Want our children come to school 'cause we who got any land have help pay school tax."

"Then you don't want the Government schools, do you?"

"They no good. Only keep few children 'way from district schools and draw money support teachers. We try to 'bolish these schools, but minister who gets $400 year for teachin' one where is only two scholars, he go among old Injins and get them vote keep Government schools open."

Whenever this is denied, or an investigation is wanted, I shall be happy to produce evidence of the truth of my statements. But let there be no whitewashing attempted.

Further, in regard to the Manual Labor School, for the support of which the United States paid the Missionary Society $20,000, and gave it a quarter section of land, the facts are that no such school ever existed on the reservation, none was ever attempted, and no such board of visitors as was designated in the treaty ever came up into the woods to visit the school—for the very good reason that there was none to visit. Now, will the present Administration continue to pay out the people's money to support idle teachers in empty schools against the wishes of the Indians, who want their children educated among the whites, among whom they are heartily welcomed, and where they are actually learning something—where, to use the language of an Indian who was himself a scholar in the Indian schools and who sends his own children to the district schools, "An Injin child learn more in district school in six months than learn in Government school in six years"? Will the present Administration, pledged as it is to reform, allow money to be drawn from the United States for the support of a minister of the Gospel settled over a white parish which includes an Indian school, which school the said minister presumes to teach, but which, in point of fact, is practically empty, and in which the Indian scholars learn nothing?

Here is an opportunity for those who propose to improve the management of Indian affairs to begin near home; and this matter is respectfully submitted to the attention of President Cleveland and his advisers. CHARLES ELLIS.

EAST SAGINAW, MICH.

A HARVARD CONTROVERSY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have received a copy of the *Nation* dated February 18, 1886 (very curiously, my seventy-fifth birthday), and in it an article signed "Anglus." I would rather have seen the name, as in the case of most of the other letters in your journal. I always sign mine—sign or not write. It is a sort of guarantee when the attack is a personal one, as in this case. May I ask the favor that you will grant me space for this in an early number, and kindly send me a copy?

"Anglus" has strained his logic against his countryman. As to Mr. Waters, I rejoice at any reward or recognition that may be conferred upon him. His labor has resulted in a great success, which would not, however, have been less with a little courtesy, in return for mine in my offering all my notes when I had not the least idea of his labors, except that they were toward John Harvard. I am, however, too old to be troubled about accidentals.

Nor am I about to bandy words with "Anglus." I have taken the liberty of posting to you twelve copies of my pamphlet, 'Old Southwark and Its People. John Harvard, born Southwark, 1607; died, Charlestown, 1698,' and to ask you to favor me by giving a copy to any thinking representative person who may desire one. That which I have written must speak for me; further I will, within my knowledge and power, answer any queries which may be sent to me. In my pamphlet will be found full recognition of Mr. Waters's work, the discovery of wills, etc., etc. On my side I produce evidences of the father's work and position in St. Saviour's parish, of the very site of his home for twenty-five or more years, and much else. Nothing of this was, I believe, known to Mr. Waters any more than his great find was known to me. The "hopeful" words of the President of Harvard will no doubt (after the heat is over) turn out to be correct: "That no difficulty will be seen in the different versions, but that they will be found to supplement each other." Those who honor me by reading my pamphlet may like to see also for themselves *Academy*, October 24 and November 7; *Athenæum*, July 11, 1885, and January 16, 1886. There I leave it, hoping to trouble myself no more with the controversial part of the question.

Faithfully, W. RENDLE

TREVERBYN, DARTMOUTH PARK, FOREST HILL, S. E., March, 1886.

A LITERARY COINCIDENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There are some authors who, instead of being inclined to call down imprecations on the heads of those who utter their own sayings before themselves, are only likely to find pleasure in a coincidence of judgment and expression; and such must be the case with Mr. J. R. Lowell and Mr. F. Harrison, if they are at this moment turning the pages of the last publication of each.

In Mr. Lowell's article on Gray, published in the *New Princeton Review* for this month, Mr. Harrison will read (in a passage about the eighteenth century): "Burke thought it impossible to draw an indictment against a whole people, and the remark is equally just if we apply it to a century."

In Mr. Harrison's essay, "A Few Words about the Eighteenth Century," published in a volume this month, Mr. Lowell will read: "Invectives against a century are even more unprofitable than indictments against a nation."

Again, Mr. Harrison will read on another page: "Perhaps even our own age, with its marvels of applied science that have made the world more prosily comfortable, will loom less gigantic than now through the prospective of the future. Perhaps it will even be found that the telephone, of which we are so proud, cannot carry human speech so far as Homer and Plato have contrived to carry it with their simple appliances."

Mr. Lowell will read, in "A Few Words about the Nineteenth Century": "It is worth a few minutes' thought to ask, What is the exact effect upon *civilization*, in the widest and highest sense of that term, of this marvellous multiplication of mechanical appliance to life? . . . Is an age which abounds in countless inventions thereby alone placed head and shoulders above all the ages since historical times began?" And on another page (in the essay on "The Choice of Books") he will find: "Telephones, microphones, pantoscopes, steam presses, and ubiquity-engines in general may, after all, leave the poor human brain, panting and throbbing under the strain of its appliances, no bigger and no stronger than the brains of the men who heard Moses speak, and saw Aristotle and Archimedes pondering over a few worn rolls of crabbed manuscript."

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March 22, 1886.

COBBLING EXTRAORDINARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the numerous and startling expositions of the ignorance and the peculiar methods of translators from foreign languages which have been made during the last year, it is surprising that more discrimination is not used in the matter. Some remarkable examples have appeared lately, but the translation (through the French) of Count L. Tolstoi's 'War and Peace' easily takes the lead. Repeated remonstrances have been made against this double translation. It can never be successful; and it is to be regretted that, now that Turgeneff is dead, Count Tolstoi should have been selected as the victim of an attempt to achieve the impossible. I quite agree with Henry Gréville that, bad as are most French translations of Turgeneff, Tolstoi suffers infinitely more by the process. A very slight examination will convince the most sceptical that the American version of his novel is not true to the French; and the French is almost equally unreliable. This unfortunate result is due, in part, to ignorance of French on the part of both translators, as well as to carelessness, but chiefly to the headlong manner in which the version offered to the American public by two houses has been prepared, in which everything—sense, accuracy, and style—has been sacrificed to speed.

"The style is the man"; yet the liberties which have been taken with Tolstoi's style are innumerable. Would it be fair to Victor Hugo to translate him into pompous Johnsonese, or to Johnson to convert him into crisp Hugo French? By a free use of conjunctions, a number of short sentences are constantly welded into one long phrase; paragraphs are turned upside down; conversation is changed into description, and *vice versa*. Sentences belonging to two separate individuals have been united, thus putting the conversation which follows into the mouths of the wrong persons. Omissions, ranging from a significant adjective to a page in length, and inexcusable interpolations, are equally common. They do not restore the balance, however, by any means. Many of these points cannot be illustrated without longer quotations than space permits. In the specimens which follow, an (F) will denote that the French translation is faulty as well as the Anglo-American. The responsibility for all other phrases rests wholly with the latter. I attribute no blame to the person who is said to have revised and corrected the work, since, so far as I can discover, he has no existence except upon the title-page. It reads smoothly enough to the unobservant, but intelligent readers must have been greatly puzzled by the innumerable mistranslations and anachronisms.

In the first chapter, the American sends the elegant little Princess Lisa to an evening party in a "morning dress," and it is stated (F) that "her bewitching little upper lip could never be persuaded to close on the lower lip." *Rus.* "Her lip was short over the teeth, but all the more prettily for that reason did it at times lengthen and droop upon the lower." Again, (F) "Helen was so surprisingly lovely that she could not have a grain of petty vanity. If she had felt awkwardly conscious of such perfect, triumphant beauty, and had wished to mitigate its effect, she could not have done it." Her attitude is more pleasing in the original: "Helen was so lovely that not a shadow of coquetry could be detected in her; on the contrary, she seemed conscience-stricken at her undisputed, too powerful and triumphant beauty; she seemed to wish to lessen the effect of her loveliness, but was unable to do so." A good specimen of interpolation occurs here: (F) "Nay, he would have given a handsome sum never to see or hear one of them again, his wife included." "Tell that to the marines" is another elegant addition. The phrase is used by Anthony Trollope's vulgar Duchess Glencora, but not by Count Tolstoi. Another is: "It will all melt through our fingers, and then whose fault

is it?" *Fits* is a favorite expression of the Anglo-American translator, to represent a laugh of any kind. Not content with rendering "laughing heartily" by "such a fit of laughter as almost choked him," she interpolates it in this form: "In spite of herself, she, too, was in fits of laughing." These must suffice as instances of the numberless unwarranted additions to the text, which certainly are no improvement.

(F) "The ruthless glass showed her only a sharp, unattractive face." *Rus.* "As is the case with most people, her face assumed a strained, unnatural, stupid expression as soon as she looked in the glass." (F) "It is the morning drum, the sun is risen," is offered as the equivalent of "Not yet had the sun flushed the sky with dawn"; "evergreens" for 'flowers"; "plaster" for "marble"; "Sonia went on crying" for "Sonia stopped crying"; "Cossacks" for "Croats"; "a helpless idiot" for "a lazy man"; "an indifferent shrug" for "a wave of the hand." "Captain," or "company commander," is translated indifferently "major" or "sergeant-major"; which reminds one of the drum-major's wife who begged her friend not to be so dreadfully ceremonious as to address her by that long title, since "Mrs. Major" would suit her just as well. Ignorance of the fact that Michael (diminutive Mishka) is the Russian name for bear, corresponding to Bruin, leads the American to transform that animal into a human being, and "Come, let Mishka alone," changes to "No, no, Michka, let them alone." "I never think" is the startling statement evolved out of "I never think of them"; and "he betrayed some strongly controlled emotion," out of "he had the air of a man who was not much interested in the conversation of the two ladies." Princess Marie is represented as playing a sonata by (F) Dreyschock in 1804. Dreyschock was not born until 1818. It should read Dussek, who was a favorite composer of the period. "Bonaparte was a trumpery little Frenchman whose success was due to the fact that there were no longer any Potemkins and Suvaroffs to pit against him," furnishes a chance for an anachronism of which the American eagerly takes advantage. Bonaparte's success is attributed to "the incapacity of Potemkin and Souwarow." I admit that they were incapacitated: Potemkin died in 1791, Souvaroff in 1800. This is in 1805. On page 28, Kutuzoff and the Austrian general are described as inspecting the soldiers, and paying special attention to their tattered footgear, which is the chief point of the episode. (F) "From our boots to our screwdrivers, he inspected everything," one soldier is represented as saying afterwards. For this read: "He examined our boots and footbands thoroughly." Peasants in Russia and other countries often wind strips of cloth about their feet instead of stockings. The Russian word is *podvertki;* screwdrivers are *otvertki*, both derived from the root *vert* to twist. The Russian female translator probably used Reiff's dictionary, which is only good for elementary work, and, not finding *podvertki*, she accepted *otvertki* because both screwdrivers and footbands are twisted in use! "Reddish-yellow" is translated (F) "pale as wax;" "Marie Dmitrievna, nicknamed the Dragoon," becomes (F) ". . . nicknamed the Dreadful Dragon"; "wringing her hands," (F) "half crazy with terror." Thirty-five versts become 30 in the French, 30 hours in the American; 150 versts dwindle to 50, and "a carriage which stood at the door" is multiplied into (F) "a long line of carriages gave his word the lie." On page 34, we find this ridiculous sentence: "The little man looked as usual—snub-nosed and black-haired." Was he in the habit of transforming himself into a Roman-nosed blonde every now and then? The American would lead one to think so, for a little later she makes him red-haired. At first sight this is suggestive of the frugal woman in 'Handy Andy' who said she had had her old black silk dress dyed crimson. Investigation shows that, like the first sentence, this is due to carelessness, and that the red-haired man was named Dementieff. "Vaska Denissoff's snub-nosed, black-whiskered face, and the whole of his compact little figure, . . . was exactly the same as usual." This is sensible and simple: he did not shrink and turn pale under fire like the men who have just been described.

On the same page an extraordinary military manœuvre is executed. *Rus.* "Denissoff took up his position at the end of the bridge and watched his squadron as it approached. The sound of hoofs was audible on the planks of the bridge, as though many horses were galloping, and the squadron, . . . deploying upon the bridge by fours, began its march to the other side." *American:* "Denissof . . . watched his men pass by four abreast. . . . The whole squadron formed to pass to the other side." According to this, it will be perceived that the regiment passed Denissoff, turned and marched back over the bridge, which was immediately burned behind it, leaving it to the tender mercy of the enemy on the shore which had just been evacuated! Count Tolstoi now advocates the doctrine of non-resistance to evil; but he was a gallant and able soldier in former days, and when he learns what an astounding bit of strategy has been attributed to him—in connection with other imbecilities which are but faintly outlined above—he will probably renounce that doctrine long enough to visit New York armed like the traditional brigand. He may derive a profound and holy joy from cobbling shoes, but such unpardonable cobbling of his brains by incompetent and careless persons will be likely to awaken some other sentiment in his breast, as it does in the breasts of those who can read Russian, and who have been inspired with something like a warm personal affection for the man who can write such books. All the delicate touches which show the artist's hand have been ruthlessly eliminated from this translation. Instead of dainty portraits of people whose every word and movement disclose their several characters in clear, true outlines, we have something more nearly approaching the comic-valentine order of art.

"Owen Meredith" once made metrical versions of some Servian folk-songs. In the preface he claimed that their chief merit lay in the fact that he had gathered these fresh and simple wild-wood blossoms with his own hand, in their native vales. The Harvard Library copy of this volume contains a marginal note, in the handwriting of a distinguished professor belonging to the university, to the effect that they were adapted from the English prose translation of the French translation of the German translation of the Servian! Perhaps *pot-pourri* would be a polite word by which to express the state of those "freshly culled blossoms" after passing through five hands. I have not hit upon a polite word for the Tolstoi translation, and do not expect to. Neither do I expect that even the list of choice atrocities which I have given above—and which might be simplified by saying that there is hardly a page which should not be entirely rewritten—will have any effect in preventing further hackwork by unsympathetic and unskilled hands. I only wish to beg readers of translations from the Russian through the French—the worst possible medium—not to trust to the correctness of any ten consecutive words.

A word in regard to the proper names employed seems also necessary. The mongrel nomenclature leads to confusion. Part of the names are English, part French, part Russian. Count Rostoff is called Élie, and the Russian form, Ilya, is then employed when referring to his daughter, Natasha Ilinovna. Count Tolstoi's name is Lvov Leo, but it halts half way in the French Léon, and Lvovna is changed to Lvovna, which is nonsense. Pavlograd is allowed to stand, Pavlovna is turned into Paulovna. Prince Vassily becomes *Basil*, while André is allowed to remain in French. *Mlle.* and *Monsieur* are put where they never were written, and *Vicomte* is as carefully translated every time. And the French *w* (pronounced *v*) is always used, without explanation, where an English *v* or *f* should have appeared. A similar bit of ignorance and carelessness occurs in a Polish translation of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' which must be a great puzzle to the unfortunate readers. Once, in the first chapter, Mr. Shelby calls little Harry "Jim Crow." That was too much for the Pole; but, nothing daunted, he translated it *Jimka*, explaining that it was the diminutive form of Jeremiah, and used it for several chapters. Then, without a word of elucidation, he introduced Harry, and proceeded to use both names indiscriminately, as though the unfortunate child were Siamese twins! Such minor points serve to sustain a translator's well-earned reputation for carelessness.

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

BOSTON, March 11, 1886.

Notes.

THOMAS Y. CROWELL & Co. have in press, for immediate publication, Count Leo Tolstoi's 'Anna Karénina,' translated from the Russian by Nathan Haskell Dole.

As the American "Men of Letters" series was obviously suggested by the English "Men of Letters" series, so the series of "American Statesmen" seems to have suggested to Macmillan & Co. the limited series of "Twelve English Statesmen," intended "to present, in historic order, the lives and work of those leading actors" in the affairs of Great Britain who have left an abiding mark on the policy and institutions of England. The first biography to appear will be Mr. Freeman's 'William the Conqueror,' and this will be followed by Mrs. J. R. Green's 'Henry II.,' Mr. Frederick Pollock's 'Edward I.,' Mr. Cotter Morison's 'Henry VII.,' Professor Creighton's 'Wolsey,' Dean Church's 'Elizabeth' (who is an English *statesman* just as Margaret Fuller was an American *man* of letters), Mr. Frederic Harrison's 'Cromwell,' Mr. H. D. Traill's 'William III.,' Mr. Leslie Stephen's 'Walpole,' Mr. Froude's 'Chatham,' Mr. Morley's 'Pitt,' and Mr. J. R. Thursfield's 'Peel.'

By arrangement with the English publisher, Mr. George J. Coombes will soon issue a little volume called 'The Pleasures of a Book-Worm,' by Mr. J. Rogers Rees, containing half-a-dozen chapters of easy gossip about books, criticism, dedications, etc.

Mr. Coombes will publish this week Mr. Lang's 'Books and Bookmen,' the first of the series of 'Books for the Bibliophile.' It will be followed shortly by the second volume, Mr. Matthews's 'Ballades of Books.' There will be a special large-paper edition of this series as well as a large-paper edition of Messrs. Matthews and Hutton's 'Actors and Actresses'—the five volumes of which appeal especially to the extra illustrator.

We cheerfully substitute on our shelves Mr. C. A. Durfee's new Index to *Harper's Magazine*, vols. 1—70, for the previous Index, vols. 1—60. A great improvement is to be remarked in the typography, and in the table facilitating reference from volume and page to month and year. The obituaries, again, are now first displayed in alphabetical order. The portraits fill about the same number of pages as before, but the smaller type argues a great increase in their number. No

amount of painstaking could insure absolute accuracy in affixing an asterisk to titles of illustrated articles. We have noticed some lapses in this practice. and also in ascriptions of articles to authors. But the work is a noble monument of well-directed labor, and furnishes a clue to far more than the mere contents of the magazine.

One often wonders how those who appreciate poetry of the higher order can come before the public with illustrations of no artistic fitness or merit. Such a discordant combination is found in Frances Clifford Brown's 'A Stroll with Keats' (Ticknor & Co.). The poem which inspired these thoroughly amateurish pen-drawings begins, "I stood tiptoe upon a little hill."

With all our good feeling toward the dawning spring, we cannot give full faith and credence to the artistic mission of Irene E. Jerome, who makes the designs for 'The Message of the Bluebird Told to Me to Tell to Others' (Boston: Lee & Shepard). The poetry is by Mrs. J. S. Bayne.

Roberts Bros., Boston, have added 'César Birotteau" to their series of translations from Balzac.

We are glad to learn that Prof. A. V. Dicey's 'Law of the English Constitution' is passing through a second edition.

The projectors of the *Cosmopolitan*, a new monthly begun this month at Rochester, think there is a call for a new "family magazine"—the distinctive marks of which, we judge from this example, are a department called "The Household" and another called "The Little Ones." The illustrations are nearly if not quite all taken at second-hand.

Mr. F. H. Wines's monthly *International Record of Charities and Correction* (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is now launched—a quarto paper containing sixteen pages of reading matter. Its aim is to assist in the unification of measures for the relief of suffering and the repression of crime, and to interest the public in them. The first number has naturally a rather miscellaneous and disorderly look, as if the several divisions had not yet been determined. The reviews deal with three books, one French, one English, and one German, and justify the title of "international."

We may mention in connection with the foregoing the new *Archives de l'Anthropologie Criminelle et des Sciences Pénales*, of which Mr. Christern sends us the first number. The headquarters of the direction appear to be at Lyons. Original articles in this publication are followed by critical reviews in various fields, news, bibliography, etc.

The *Popular Science Monthly* for April will contain the first of a series of articles by Mr. David A. Wells on 'An Economic Study of Mexico.' It is safe to say that they will abundantly repay reading.

The most suggestive article, perhaps, in the semi-centennial number of the *Yale Literary Magazine* is that by ex-President White, of Cornell, who recalls the lifeless manner of teaching the classics in his day, and its benumbing effect on literary aspiration. President Gilman contributes a pleasant antiquarian paper on the studies required at Harvard in 1642-43, in which it is curious to remark the absence of Latin, the acquisition of which before entering college was assumed and was of course customary.

The March *Antiquary* opens with "Crown Lands, Part ii.," by S. R. Bird. This paper gives lucid definitions of the three classes of Crown lands—lands in ancient demesne, escheats, etc., and forests, parks, and chases; with the revenues, etc., accruing from each. "Notes on Common Field Names," by Rev. J. C. Atkinson, is a short paper, to be continued. It is of a genuine and valuable antiquarian character, and, after a general introduction, discusses in especial the term "wandale." The next paper is, "Notes on the Family of Frenche," by A. D. Weld French—the name being held to be a corruption of *fraxinus*, ash. Mr. Folkard's second paper on "The Antiquity of Surnames" gives some interesting facts on this matter. Mr. Jewitt's "Quaint Conceits in Pottery: iii, Some Mounted Knights, etc.," has, like its predecessors, several entertaining figures; and Mr. Carew Hazlitt's "Notes on Our Popular Antiquities" is chiefly devoted to "omens." Mr. Henry B. Wheatley's second paper on "Precious Stones" leaves the diamond for separate treatment (pearls having been the subject of the previous paper), and gives a sufficient description of the rest, including amber, coral, and the ancient murrhine vases—held by the writer to have been made of fluor spar. "Celebrated Birthplaces" is a short paper upon Robert Southey at Bristol, with an excellent illustration. Mr. Davey's second paper upon Beatrice Cenci introduces us to the several brothers and sisters of this family, ending with Beatrice herself, born February 12, 1577, and therefore twenty-two years old, instead of sixteen, when she was executed in 1599. At the end there are the usual book-notices and miscellaneous notes; and here we read with deep regret the obituary of Henry Bradshaw, the distinguished antiquarian, the learned and courteous librarian of Cambridge University.

An etching of the ministering children in Raphael's cartoon "The Sacrifice at Lystra" makes an agreeable frontispiece to the *Portfolio* for March (Macmillan). Notable among the pictorial accompaniments of Mr. Hamerton's papers on "Imagination in Landscape Painting" is a mezzotint after Claude's "Embarkation of the Queen of Sheba." Finally, there are two striking mechanical photographic copies of the masterly effigy of Guidarello Guidarelli, by Tullio Lombardi, at Ravenna.

In Nos. 520, 521 of *L'Art* M. Max Rooses completes his interesting revelation of the pecuniary and friendly relations between Balthasar Moretus and Rubens. The fact that the painter took his pay from the great printer mostly in books, enables the custodian of the Plantin Museum to exhibit the culture of Rubens, whom one of his contemporaries declared "le plus sçavant peintre du monde." A like preëminence is assigned by that competent judge, Viscount Henri Delaborde, to Gerard Edelinck, who is pronounced "the most harmoniously organized and the most complete of engravers." Among the samples of his work reproduced is the fine copy of Rigaud's portrait of Bossuet. François Boucher is the subject of a rather literary paper by André Michel, and here again there are numerous characteristic examples of this painter of nymphs and cupids. An etching of a family group by Rembrandt in the Brunswick Museum is the most significant of the larger illustrations in these issues of *L'Art*.

Dr. J. A. H. Murray, editor of the New English Dictionary, writes to the *Academy* concerning that paper's report of his recent account of the situation of the great enterprise: "But I regret to find comprised in an 'etc.' the unique work done for the Dictionary by Mr. Fitzedward Hall, who, almost since we began to print, has devoted four hours daily to reading proofs and revises, making critical annotations upon the explanations, sense-history, and use of the words, and, above all, to supplying from his marvellous store of references (some idea of which may be gathered from the footnotes to his 'Modern English,' 'English Adjectives in -able,' and other well known philological works) earlier, later, better, or, as often happens, unique quotations for the various words and senses. There is not a page of the Dictionary which has not thus been enriched by him; more than half of his day's work is voluntarily devoted to this service to the English language. Such disinterested labor on the part of a gentleman whom I never saw and know only through his loving work," Dr. Murray goes on to say, is a never-failing source of inspiration and encouragement to him.

From Charles Scribner's Sons we receive the initial number of *Les Lettres et les Arts*, the new review of whose literary merit and unparalleled artistic embellishment we have already spoken on two occasions. The Messrs. Scribner are the American agents of this superb periodical, the title-page bearing their imprint along with that of the French publishers.

Mr. George Wilson, whose address is Murrayfield House, Mid-Lothian, Scotland, writes to the Glasgow *Herald* an appeal for the preservation of the more important houses associated with Robert Burns. He wishes to estimate the probable backing such an enterprise would obtain, and requests "any practical assistance in the way of suggestion or otherwise (but, at the present stage, no money)."

The friends of Edward Caird, the distinguished Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Glasgow, are conspiring to present him with his own portrait. The subscriptions are limited to sums of from one to five guineas. Prof. George H. Palmer, of Harvard College, a member of the American Committee, will receive and transmit any cis-Atlantic contributions.

The Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at its thirty-third meeting, held in Philadelphia in September, 1884, have but just been issued by the Secretary at Salem, Mass. They are stitched in two parts of about 350 pages each.

Four new maps just added by the Geological Survey of New Jersey to the great Atlas of that State—viz.: Nos. 1, 9, 13, 17—leave but seven out of the total seventeen to be issued, probably in the course of the next two years. They are, respectively, the sheets containing the extreme northwestern corner of New Jersey (Kittatinny Valley and Mountain, in Sussex and Warren Counties), or, say, from Port Jervis, N. Y., to the line of the Delaware, Lackawanna and Western Railroad, and from Lake Hopatcong to the Delaware; Monmouth Shore, embracing Coney Island, the south shore of Staten Island, Perth Amboy, Sandy Hook, and all the rosary of watering places from Long Branch to Point Pleasant and Lakewood; the vicinity of Barnegat Bay; and finally Cape May—this last a chart of extreme beauty, though the execution of all is of a uniform degree of excellence, and that very high. The ten sheets already issued complete the entire northern and eastern outline of the State; Nos. 5, 8, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15 will take in the southern and western portion. The work will then rank at the head of all State atlases not prepared by the national surveys. The scale is one inch to a mile, with figured contour lines and great minuteness and accuracy of detail.

A month or so ago we notified the discovery at Paris, by Paul and Prosper Henry, of a new nebula by photography, the existence of which could not be verified by the telescope. It now becomes worthy of note that the discovery has been optically verified, but only, so far as is yet announced, with the largest refracting telescope in existence, of thirty inches aperture, at Pulkova. Dr. Struve has succeeded in making out distinctly the particular features of this interesting object. While the Paris astronomers are undoubtedly entitled to the credit belonging to the perception and proof of the phenomenon, it is a matter of record that the faint light photographically perceptible in the vicinity of the star Maia first impressed itself upon a plate exposed at the Harvard College observatory about two weeks before the Paris photograph was taken. Professor Pickering exhibited this picture at the Albany

meeting of the National Academy last November, on which occasion the irregularities, now recognized as due to nebulous light, received some attention. They were supposed to be due merely to defects in the photographic process; but upon reëxamination Professor Pickering finds the appearances identical with those described by the brothers Henry.

As in two previous years, 1826 and 1867, the gold medal of the Royal Astronomical Society is again awarded conjointly, the recipients this year being Professor Charles Pritchard, of Oxford, England, and Professor Edward C. Pickering, Director of the Harvard College Observatory. The Harvard photometry, already alluded to in our columns, and a similar research in stellar magnitudes conducted at Oxford, form the very just basis of the award. Professor Pickering is the fifth American astronomer who has received the Society's medal, his predecessors in this honor being Professor G. P. Bond, in 1865; Professor Newcomb, in 1874; Professor Hall, in 1879; and Dr. Gould, in 1883. The total number of medals bestowed by the Society is now nearly sixty, more than one-half of which have been awarded to Englishmen.

The British *Nautical Almanac and Astronomical Ephemeris* for the year 1889 reaches us somewhat later than usual. It is constructed on the same plan with previous issues, and remains under the direction of Mr. J. R. Hind, F. R. S., who has now been the superintendent for a third of a century. Easter Sunday, 1889, falls on April 21, and the year 5650 of the Jewish era begins on September 26. There are three solar eclipses, of which only that on the first day of the year is visible in the United States, the path of central eclipse crossing California a few miles north of the Lick Observatory. In the latter part of the year the corrections according to Newcomb to be applied to the longitudes of the moon as derived from Hansen's Tables become for the first time as great as 20″—a discrepancy corresponding to an error of about twenty-two miles in its actual orbit.

—'Mobilizable Fortifications,' by Gen. Jos. L. Brent, formerly of the Confederate army (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), maintains the proposition that, by defending lines of railroad with movable batteries, a great change can be made in modern warfare, and immense advantage secured to the party resisting invasion. General Brent would convert railroads into strong defensive fortified lines, to be held by a thoroughly organized system of movable batteries, suitably mounted on railway trucks. The power of concentration on threatened points thus secured would enable a comparatively small number of men to resist effectively the advance of large armies. He compares the results that might thus be attained to the power of iron-clad gunboats on a navigable stream to thwart the crossing of an invading army. General Brent is an accomplished soldier, and there is no doubt large room for the development of the line of defence he suggests. In some cases where the country is level, as in Louisiana, it might be made very effective; but we think it hardly admissible of the wide extension he proposes. In hilly countries, where railroads follow, as a rule, the valleys of the water-courses, a much larger percentage than he concedes would be badly located for the purpose. Again, while capable of motion in the direction of the railroad, such a system of batteries would have no power of movement or of escape in other directions. Nor is it to be imagined that this mode of mobilization would long be left to those on the defensive. Invaders would construct and use railroads as quickly and efficiently as the attacked party, and the net result might be a great increase in the weight of field artillery, and the use of new means for its transportation and concentration. The little book, however, is well worth perusal.

—A Danish schoolmaster, the Rev. Malling Hansen, Principal of the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Copenhagen, seems to have arrived at some interesting facts in regard to the increase in height and in weight of growing boys and girls. For some years past he has put the whole of his pupils to the test of the measure and the balance, by means of an ingeniously contrived apparatus, four times every day. As the result of his observations, he claims to have discovered a law of vital periodicity. Distinct variations in weight and height respectively are observable at three periods of the year of four months each. From August to December he finds that his pupils increase considerably in weight; from December to April the increase is slight, and from April to August that slight increase is wholly lost. The periodicity as regards height is the reverse of this; that is to say, the maximum period of weight is the minimum period of height. The experiments, if not exhaustive, certainly furnish interesting data which it is worth while to put to further test. Comparison is suggested with the difference in fertility of human beings in the summer and the winter months.

—The laws in force in Norway for the protection of literary and of artistic property, passed by the Storthing to take effect respectively January 1, 1877, and January 1, 1878, made no adequate provisions for registration. An additional act was therefore passed June 20, 1882, establishing a registry of copyright. This law, which is the practical outcome of a suggestion made by the university librarian, Mr. A. C. Drolsum, to the academical council in 1878, provides that there shall be kept at the university library a register, in which any person may cause to be entered whatever he deems of importance for the establishment and preservation of his right of copy, accorded by the laws just named, in any literary or artistic production. Such entry is to be made upon a written request, without preliminary examination as to the correctness of the statements desired to be entered; certified copies are to be furnished upon demand, and entry and certified copy charged for at the rate of one *krone* (26.8 cents) for each work, the fees to go to the treasury of the university; and the entry is also to be published in a journal designated by the King for such publication, at the expense of the person concerned. Publication as to authors of anonymous works and as to announcements of new editions, required by the copyright law of 1876, is considered accomplished by entry in this register, which is to be accessible for public inspection during certain stated hours. The law requires, also, that of every work or new edition entered upon this register a bound copy shall be delivered to the library at the time of entry, or, if not then published, at the time of publication; and in addition, one copy of every work printed or published in Norway during the year must be delivered before the close of the month of January next following. These deposits are entitled to free transmission by post, and payment may be claimed for them, except in the case of newspapers, when the publication price exceeds ten *kroner*. The responsibility of delivery rests with the printer unless he resides abroad, in that case with the publisher; and failure to observe this requirement is punishable by a fine for each delinquency of from two to fifty *kroner*, at suit brought by the academical council of the university. The law further orders that a catalogue be prepared by the library of all the books, charts, musical publications, engravings, and periodicals deposited during the year and received up to the 1st of February next following, and be issued not later than the 1st of the following August.

—This law took effect January 1, 1883, and the first annual catalogue, *Norsk Bogfortegnelse for* 1883—a record of all works published in Norway during that year—was issued in December, 1884, the delay in publication being due to the difficulty experienced in carrying out all the law's requirements during the first year of its operation. It contains 1,297 entries, including 87 periodicals and 102 newspapers. The second catalogue, *Norsk Bogfortegnelse for* 1884, published by Albert Cammermeyer, of Christiania, is a pamphlet in fine print of 105 pages, containing an alphabet of authors and titles of anonymous books, followed by lists of newspapers, music, charts, and engravings, and, at the end, by a classified index, prepared by Mr. J. B. Halvorsen. The volume contains 1,446 titles, which number includes 89 periodicals, 104 newspapers, 75 musical compositions, 33 illustrated works and engravings, 16 maps, and 132 annuals, leaving 997 titles of new books and pamphlets. The arrangement of the topical index does not enable us to readily ascertain the exact number of works in any distinct class, but theology, including under this head devotional and temperance books, numbers 250 titles, or one-quarter of the whole number of works published. The next largest division is that of statistical works, 162, and the third, technical and economical works, 137; and the chapter of history and politics is exactly equal to that of educational works and pedagogics, 115 books in each. But in fiction only 18 titles are recorded, and four of these are of new editions. Eighteen books were published in languages other than Scandinavian, nine of these being in German and three in English. The translations number about sixty—fourteen from the German, five from the French, and of English and American books no less than thirty. Among the former a sketch by Anthony Trollope, novels by "Hesba Stretton" (whose name the more trustworthy bibliographies give as Miss Hannah Smith, and not, as here, Sarah Smith) and Emily Holt, and the volume of travels, 'Three in Norway, by Two of Them.' From American authors, Ingraham's 'Throne of David,' Dr. Kellogg's 'Domestic Medicine,' and, according to a note, a "condensed" translation of Cooper's five "Leather-Stocking Tales." Also, 'Our Two Lives; or, Graham and I,' by "A. H. K.," which initials, according to American library catalogues, stand for Miss Eliza Warner; and 'Tim and Tip,' by "James Otis," who is stated upon good authority to be James Otis Kaler, a New York journalist. Under "Edgar Poe" there is a title, 'The Pendulum, a Tale of the Inquisition.' The care taken to make this catalogue something more than a mere list of the country's literary productions for the year deserves commendation. Annual catalogues rarely exhibit so much accurate and conscientious bibliographical labor. The editor has marked the type in which each article was printed, thus enabling us to form some opinion as to the present status of the movement for substituting the Latin for the German type in Norwegian typography. Of 1,200 books we find that 650 were printed in the former and 550 in the latter type, so that considerably more than one-half were printed in the preferable type. Unfortunately, it is not always the most widely circulated works which are so printed, though the works of the popular authors, Ibsen, Björnson, Lie, Kjelland, etc., are in this type. But of the 89 periodicals only 32 are printed with Latin characters, and of the 104 newspapers, all but seven are printed with German letters.

— A committee of the Cambridge (England) Philological Society, appointed to draw up a

scheme of the reformed pronunciation of Latin, has presented a report which is printed in the *Academy* of March 6. They announce that they "have come to the conclusion that the classical pronunciation of Latin has now been sufficiently ascertained for the purpose of drawing up a scheme which may be reasonably regarded as permanent." They then proceed to give well-put directions, which, however, it is not worth while to reprint, as the method is in all its essentials familiar to our readers, being the same which has long been advocated by the *Nation* and in vogue for many years in America. The subject of quantity is treated very gingerly: "The short and long vowels in Latin differed [differ?] in duration as the first and second in 'aha,' 'steady.'" Again: "Every vowel has a quantity of its own, and the English practice of pronouncing all vowels in position before two consonants as if they were naturally short, is erroneous. The Romans said *sĕcta*, but *rēctus, tĕctus; ĭndoctus*, but *īnsula, īnsulsus*." This is all very well as far as it goes. But this matter of quantity enters into the earliest instruction: of a boy who is not made to hear and to feel from the start that the Latin for "light" is *lĕuis*, and the Latin for "smooth" is *lēuis*—of that boy it is safe to say that he will never be able to read Latin well. The average English schoolmaster, who probably has never heard of the present interesting German studies in 'Hidden Quantities,' may well lift up both hands and ask the practical question, "What am I to teach my boys? *ăctus* or *āctus*? *ĕmptus* or *ēmptus*?" On this point the Committee might at least have laid down the familiar law that all vowels are long before *ns* or *nf*, and possibly have given a useful list of such words as have the vowel quantities before two consonants made out with perfect certainty.

— It would have been interesting to American readers if the Committee had said a word or two about the method of pronunciation now practised in England. But this obviously lay outside their province. A droll hint about present usage, however, is given: "*mensa, quinqueuir, amatur, puer*, all have their finals pronounced alike." That the best English scholars have long since thrown over the English mispronunciation is no doubt true. An eminent American was taken some years ago by Professor Munro, the editor of 'Lucretius,' to dine in hall. It fell to Mr. Munro to say the Latin grace, which he did with the Latin pronunciation. Shortly after, when talk was lively, Mr. Munro quoted a passage from Livy with the English pronunciation, at which there was a roar of laughter. "Oh," said Mr. Munro, "I always use that method of pronunciation which I think will be most acceptable and most intelligible."

—Many a time have scholars wished that they had found a Stoic's library rather than an Epicurean's in Herculaneum. Then we should doubtless have been richer by some of those capital quotations with which the Stoics spiced their writings, whereas the Epicureans were too well content with their own gardens to rob the flowerbeds of the poets. Still, philosophers and palæographers find the Herculaneum rolls a fascinating study, and every now and then Gomperz brings out some of his wonderful restorations; every now and then some historian of philosophy works some scrap of the Herculaneum papyri into the Epicurean system. To this fascination we owe a handsome volume issued from the Clarendon Press, Oxford (New York: Macmillan), and entitled 'Fragmenta Herculanensia,' edited with introduction and notes by Walter Scott, Fellow of Merton College, Oxford, and successor of the lamented Charles Badham in the chair of classics at Sydney, Australia. It consists of the Oxford copies of the Herculaneum rolls, together with the texts of several papyri hitherto unpublished, accompanied with facsimiles. As the Oxford copies are sometimes more complete than the originals in their present state or in the published Naples facsimiles, the importance of the book is evident, and England is to be congratulated on having a son of her own to do such work, which is generally relegated to some indefatigable German. One of these rolls Mr. Scott proposes to call "On the Mode of Life of the Gods." It may be dimly gathered from the fragments that the easy-living Epicurean gods must have had a better time than a layman who should attempt to grapple with the contents of this volume. The Greek scholar, however, will find much to reward his study, and the lexicographer a number of undesirable words to add to his Liddell and Scott.

— Leopold Zunz, whose death at Berlin, at the age of nearly ninety-two years, is just announced, was one of the three famous students of rabbinical literature, all of this century, who may be said to have created what Jewish scholars often designate as the science of Judaism—meaning by that the systematic study of Judaism, not as found in the Bible, but as gradually developed by the rabbis, in Sanhedrim, school, and synagogue, from Syrian and Roman times down to our own. The two other scholars were S. J. Rapoport (1790–1867) and Abraham Geiger (1810–1874), both rabbis themselves. Zunz, who was born at Detmold, August 10, 1794, officiated for a few years as synagogue-lecturer at Berlin and Prague, and was also active as teacher and editor of a liberal political journal, but spent most of his long life in purely literary labors. All three were born critics; their knowledge was equally vast and their literary zeal equally ardent. Rapoport, who wrote only in Hebrew, was the most original and ingenious, Geiger the most brilliant, Zunz the most scrupulously painstaking and accurate. Rapoport labored with love for his subject, which he would clarify and preserve; Geiger with the ambitious impetuosity of a radical reformer; Zunz with the coolness of an inquirer bent solely on establishing historical truth. All of Zunz's writings have a permanent value, but his 'Die gottesdienstlichen Vorträge der Juden' (Berlin, 1832), which is also important to Bible scholars, is monumental. His other chief publications are 'Die synagogale Poesie des Mittelalters' (1855,) and 'Literaturgeschichte der synagogalen Poesie' (1865). He also edited a translation of the Bible, in which Arnheim, Fürst, and Sachs were his colaborers. A German coreligionist justly remarks of Zunz: "He leads the student through the mazes and intricacies of a widely scattered literature, with unsurpassed perseverance, with unswerving directness of purpose, with the accuracy of a powerful intuition; and he uses an elegance of diction which may be termed classical, and by which he invests even didactic and abstruse matters with the attractions of poetry."

MAINE'S POPULAR GOVERNMENT.—I.

Popular Government: Four Essays. By Sir Henry Sumner Maine. London: John Murray; New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1885.

Sir John Lubbock, Mr. Ruskin, Mr. Swinburne, and others have given the world lists of good books—that is, books which ought to be read. As yet no one has produced a list of books which in fact have been read—of the works, that is to say, which, whatever their intrinsic merit, have as a matter of fact greatly influenced opinion. A book of influence may be a good book, a bad book, or a work which has gained a permanent place in the ranks of literature, or an ephemeral production of which the very name has long been forgotten. Its special characteristic, its *differentia*, as logicians would say, is its having in fact turned the current or directed the tendency of men's thoughts. Locke's 'Civil Government,' Montesquieu's 'Esprit des Lois,' Godwin's 'Political Justice,' Sieyès's celebrated political pamphlets, Burke's 'Letters on a Regicide Peace,' Paley's 'Evidences of Christianity,' Malthus's 'Treatise on Population,' Goethe's 'Sorrows of Werther,' are writings which certainly have very little in common and are of the most unequal desert. One quality, however, and one only, places them in the same class: they are all books which have told on the feelings or on the intellectual convictions of mankind; they were in their day —as one or two of them are still—works of influence; they are each and all open to much criticism, but they each and all of them hit their mark; they each told upon the generation to whom they were addressed. The writer of a book of influence may have served or sometimes have disserved the world; he may often have done more harm than good; but he can always boast that mankind, whether made better or made worse, were at any rate made somewhat different by his labors. He at least never committed the deadly sin of hiding his talent in a napkin; he has somehow or other made such light as he had it in him to give, visible to all the world.

It is easier in some respects to discern the writers of influence among the authors of a past generation than among the men of our own time. Yet a little consideration will show us that in our own day, as at all times, there have been authors both of great merit and of very slender acquirements who have exerted that mysterious, that almost personal power of influence, while there have been others who, sometimes owing to their defects and sometimes owing to their merits, have never been able to impress their ideas upon the world. The writer, moreover, of influence, now as at all times, may have the power to give a more or less lasting turn to men's ideas or feelings, or may be able to do no more than stimulate for a moment certain kinds of sentiments or convictions. There is something approaching to absurdity in mentioning in the same sentence Darwin's 'Origin of Species,' Strauss's 'Leben Jesu,' and 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' yet the three books have each of them a fair claim to be reckoned works of influence. The essential difference between them is that the first has opened a new world of speculation, and has modified the thoughts of the age; that the second is not much more than the outward sign of the stage reached in a theological controversy which has already gone on for generations, and will probably not be closed till many more generations have lived and died; and that the third, though for a time it thrilled and interested the civilized world, can do so no longer. But this immense difference in the value of the three works does not prevent them from standing together among the class of books of influence, and being separated from books which, like Buckle's 'History of Civilization,' though at one time read and admired, never really altered the course of speculation or of feeling, or which, like Macaulay's splendid historical pictures, interest and always will interest any one who cares to read the story of great deeds told in grand language, but hardly exert an appreciable power over the theories or the conduct of mankind. The point, in short, to make clear to ourselves is, that the quality of influencing others is, with writers as with men of action, a special and peculiar gift, independent of the absolute and intrinsic merit of an author's work. It were the height of injustice or of stupidity to fancy that because a writer swayed the feelings or beliefs of his generation, he was therefore only a rhetorician who knew how to play on the feeling of his time. Montesquieu produced at least one work of influence, and Montesquieu, whatever his defects, can even

now be read with instruction no less than with pleasure. But it would be, on the other hand, simple folly to confound the talent for influencing the world with the quite different gift for discovering or enunciating the truth. Rousseau's works contain some things that are true, but it would hardly be now disputed that the small amount of useful truths which he may have impressed upon his contemporaries is far more than overbalanced by the mass of noxious and plausible fallacies to which his genius gave authority. These are, moreover, if Sir Henry Maine is to be believed, still current, and enjoy the repute which ought to belong only to sterling coin.

However this may be, all readers of Maine's 'Popular Government' will, especially if, like ourselves, they have studied our author's other works, be willing to admit that the latest and certainly by no means the least effective of Rousseau's critics belongs to that body of whom Montesquieu and Rousseau are equally members —the class, namely, of authors who can produce books of influence. His 'Ancient Law' marked an era in the legal studies of Englishmen. When it appeared just a quarter of a century ago, not one barrister in a thousand knew even the rudiments of the law of Rome; not one Englishman in ten thousand had even the dimmest conception of the deep mark made by Roman jurists on European speculation in law, in politics, and in theology. The idea, indeed, that law itself was a matter of more than technical or professional interest seemed a paradox to the great majority not only of intelligent readers, but of masterly writers on social and historical subjects. Macaulay was a lawyer, and displayed in one department the genius of a jurist. But no one would gather from Macaulay's history that the development of English law was nearly as important a factor in the progress of England as was the growth of English theology or of English literature. Macaulay belonged to the generation who had not learned from Maine the speculative importance of legal ideas. Since Maine's 'Ancient Law' appeared, every thinker or historian of average intelligence has become conscious of the fact that a nation's law is the record of a nation's genius. This notion, no doubt, was no novelty to Continental theorists, but it was, when Maine first began writing, a revelation to educated Englishmen. To have opened up a new line of thought to his countrymen is no small achievement for any author, and this feat is one which Sir Henry Maine has already performed at least once in his career. Nor is it at all unlikely that his 'Popular Government' will exert as great, if not as lasting, an effect on opinion as his 'Ancient Law.'

The book has been attacked, and is certainly on some points by no means beyond criticism. But the assaults of opponents who disagree with Maine's conclusions are in themselves a tribute to the power with which he expounds his opinions; and it does not need the proof derived from the controversy which 'Popular Government' has evoked, to show that the book has already produced an immense effect on that public opinion of educated men which, in every civilized country, and especially in England, sooner or later moulds the opinion of the whole nation. The aim of the work is, we take it, to prove or suggest that democracy, or, to use Sir Henry Maine's own expression, "popular government," is merely one form, and it may be a very transitory form, of human progress. That experience gives no guarantee for the stability or the success of democratic constitutions; that the very law of progress of which they are supposed to be the result is itself a very exceptional phenomenon, peculiar to certain ages and to certain peoples; that no careful thinker can feel any certainty how long the age of progress may endure, and that the pæans which have hailed the advent of democracy are, to say the least, premature—that this, or something like this, is the general effect of Sir Henry Maine's book, will not be disputed by any intelligent reader. That 'Popular Government,' combined, no doubt, with the circumstances of the day, has already done a great deal to impress English readers with a belief that views such as those we have attempted to summarize have in them a large amount of truth, will not be denied by any one who observes the course of English opinion. The treatise is already a book of influence.

When this fact is admitted, two inquiries at once suggest themselves to intelligent curiosity: What are the sources of the influence which Sir Henry Maine has once and again exerted over his contemporaries? What, in the next place, is likely to be the permanence of his influence? Will he take rank with authors, such as Locke and Montesquieu, whose ideas have become a lasting contribution to the thoughts of the civilized world? or will his writings ultimately sink to the level of works, such, for example (to take a very extreme instance), as Godwin's 'Political Justice,' which, after exciting great attention, has long become, not only ancient, but, what is a very different thing, out of date?

Milton and Vondel: A Curiosity of Literature. By George Edmundson, M.A. London: Trübner & Co. 1885.

THERE is no department of literary study more attractive to a learned mind, and none more beset with pitfalls, than this of authors' plagiarisms. The answer of genius has long been familiar in its unabashed claim to "take its own wherever it finds it"; but the list of those who have profited by high-handed appropriation of others' work, is so studded with famous names that one might well advise a young author not to seek originality, but, like the greatest of his craft, to look about for somebody "good to steal from," and rear his *monumentum ære perennius* on foundations already laid. Milton has been many a time violently attacked on this score, but with little effect, since the laws of the literary republic allow the imitation and incorporation of any ancient work, whether Hebrew or classic, and do not regard a similar obligation to the Italian or even the Spanish as an offence. It has been generally held, however, that writings in one's own tongue and those of one's foreign contemporaries are unfair game for such depredation. Now, Milton has been for many years vaguely accused of such indebtedness to Vondel, the most eminent of Dutch poets, but no real examination has been made in the case, excepting a cursory essay by Mr. Gosse, until the appearance of the very curious volume under review, in consequence of which it is most likely that the Shakspere-Baconians will hereafter have a cousinly group in the Milton-Vondelians; and certainly these last will not be without excuse for their folly.

It seems a strange coincidence that two poets, each the most gifted in his own country, should have written at nearly the same time on the same themes, and have toned their works with the same theological and political color. Vondel's "Lucifer," "John the Baptist," "Adam in Banishment," "Reflections on God and Religion," and "Samson," published between 1654 and 1664, afford this parallel with the "Paradise Lost," "Paradise Regained," and "Samson Agonistes" of Milton. The author of this inquiry into the resemblances of the two series finds Milton's obligation to be unexpectedly close and large. He first shows by a citation from a letter of Roger Williams to John Winthrop that the former introduced Milton to a knowledge of the Dutch tongue; he then proves with needless fulness the certainty of Milton's thorough acquaintance with Dutch affairs and men, among which Vondel and his books were in the first rank; he next reconciles the apparently conflicting points in the parallel chronology of the composition of the English poems with the publication of the Dutch ones; and finally devotes the body of his little treatise to a comparison of passages, the Dutch of the citations being added in the appendix; and he shows to his own satisfaction that Milton was indebted to Vondel for character-conceptions, plot-incidents, course and order of thought, distinct images, turns of fancy and ideas, and the mode of treatment of whole passages.

It would be impossible to compress this evidence, for its weight depends on the accumulation of instances. The student of literature will find it, indeed, a curiosity; but let him read with caution. For one thing, the translations are made into Miltonic verse, both in structure and phrase, and (while we do not question the exact fidelity of the rendering) something is to be deducted on that account. Again, not only does the practice of literature allow of appropriation from the Bible, the classics, and the Romance tongues, even to the extent of literal translation, but, apart from such direct borrowing, there is a large stock of imagery, sentiment, and rhetoric which is common property. If Milton had never read Vondel, yet in telling the same story about the same persons, in the same places, and drawing upon the same Biblical source for hell, heaven, Eden, the purposes of God, the manners, nature, and offices of the angels, and the biography of Adam and Eve, he would naturally have fallen into parallelisms; and from these, as, for example, that a standard is unfurled, a sword drawn, a messenger despatched, etc., nothing is to be argued as to plagiarism. So, too, from the mere use of such images as a ship under sail, an evening sun, towers of diamond, or others equally open to both authors, nothing is to be inferred to the detriment of either, though the special position of them in the text may sometimes prove a connection. But when every allowance has been made for what may have been derived from common sources, and under the most liberal construction of the rights of plagiary, the student will find it hard to resist the conclusion not only that Milton had read and pondered Vondel, but that his own work was fed from that source in a true sense. Taken by itself, a resemblance like the following unusual simile for the movement of the angelic host is slight:

"It quickly grew, and like a half-moon waxed,
Sharpening its points, and closed on us two horns." (*Vondel.*)

"The angelic squadron bright
Turned fiery red, sharpening in mooned horns
Their phalanx, and began to hem him round." (*Milton.*)

Or such a rhetorical point as this:

"John's shades and deserts, cell and prison shall
Change into light and paradise." (*Vondel.*)

"Eden raised in the waste wilderness." (*Milton.*)

Or even such an extraordinary circumstance as the change of Satan into the dragon form. But when there is a large number of these similarities, as here, one suspects that Milton's mind absorbed Vondel as intimately as it did Pindar. The evidence is perhaps most strong in the most unlooked for quarter, in the "Samson." Vondel's play is modelled exactly as Milton's in classical form; the time is the same; the details of the scene-setting are similar; the conduct of the story and striking passages of the thought and feeling are practically so closely related as to make the thesis of Milton's independence ridiculous. In the matter of phrasing take but one extract:

"The angel of my birth descending,
My dropping courage once more stayed." (*Vondel.*)

"Send thee the angel of thy birth to stand
Fast by thy side." (*Milton.*)

Such reduplication is not infrequent in the course of the poem.

Nevertheless, the author has, we think, weakened his case by over-stating it and leaning too often on slight parallelisms. He does not question, it should be said, Milton's supreme poetic faculty; and, after all, it seems to us that Milton has "bettered what he borrowed," and this he held to be a sufficient defence. Vondel, as he appears here, is a poet primarily of fancy, very literal in his imagery, very fertile in invention; but even when Milton approaches nearest the Dutch original, his affluence in beauty and sublimity in imagination and splendor of expression make him to Vondel as the eagle to the wren. Milton's laurel will not shed a leaf nor deaden its green ever so faintly for this exhibition of what one is compelled to accept as a leading influence in his later poems. The volume is of great interest, but the reader closes it with a stray line of Lowell's running in his head, which is the sum and substance of the whole matter of plagiarism and originality—"'Tis his at last who says it best."

Anthropoid Apes. By Robert Hartmann, Professor in the University of Berlin. [International Scientific Series, vol. lii.] Appletons. 1886.

THE anthropoid, or manlike or tailless, apes include the gorilla and chimpanzee of tropical Africa, the orang of Borneo and Sumatra, and the gibbons of the East Indies, India, and some other parts of Asia. The author of the present work has given much attention to the group, has made himself familiar with most of the literature, and has published original observations upon the habits and structure of the gorilla especially. After an account of the history of our acquaintance with the anthropoids, from the year 470 B. C., when the Carthaginians under Hanno found in Sierra Leone creatures which they called "gorillai," but which were probably chimpanzees, he considers in turn their external form and their structure, their varieties, their geographical distribution, and their habits, both wild and in captivity. He then discusses their zoölogical position and relations, and concludes with an instructive summary. There is a full index, and an appendix contains the titles of 116 books and papers, which would be more useful if the writers' names were always given and alphabetically arranged. The translator or American editor should have completed the list to date, and especially for American works, and should have seen that the first name of the anatomist, Wyman, was spelled Jeffries instead of Jeffrys, as in both the appendix and the text.

The author regards man, apes, and monkeys as constituting a single order, Primates, excluding therefrom the Lemurs. He quotes, with approval, Huxley's statement that the lowest monkeys are further removed from the highest apes than the latter are from man. The brains of anthropoids are somewhat fully described and figured. Although never so large as man's, and never to be mistaken for it, they present certain features of resemblance thereto which not only justify all that has been said of their human-like behavior, but lead us to anticipate more startling approximations whenever it is possible (as, for example, by the care bestowed upon the chimpanzee now at the Central Park Menagerie) to rear anthropoids and observe the effects of education upon several successive generations. For the present, however, notwithstanding the existence of the subfrontal gyre (Broca's convolution), which is certainly connected closely with the faculty of language, the anthropoids do not "talk" any more than other animals. Our author's views upon these points may be gathered from the following paragraph:

"It would, for instance, be a grave mistake to compare a tiger with a bloodthirsty executioner of the Reign of Terror, since the former only satisfies his natural appetite in preying on other animals. The atrocities of the trials for witchcraft . . . find no parallel in the habits of animals in their savage state. And such a comparison is, above all, impossible in the case of anthropoids, which display no hostility toward men or other animals unless they are first attacked. In this respect the anthropoid ape stands on a higher plane than many men. A great chasm between men and anthropoids is constituted, as I believe, by the fact that the human race is capable of education, and is able to acquire the highest mental culture, while the most intelligent anthropoid ape can only receive a certain mechanical training. . . . No anthropoid now in existence has shown itself capable of adapting stones, etc., to his personal use."

Like most living zoölogists, the author is an evolutionist, and holds that "man cannot have descended from any of the fossil species which have hitherto come under our notice, nor yet from any of the species now extant; it is more probable that both types have been produced from a common ground-form" which has become extinct. There is much yet to be learned of the anatomy of the anthropoids, especially of the brain; and their embryonic stages are almost entirely unknown to science. No fact respecting these, our "poor relations," is without its significance in determining our present affinities and common ancestry.

Most of the figures in this book are well chosen and well executed; but (especially in view of the somewhat extended consideration of the mooted point as to the overlapping of the cerebellum by the cerebrum) what is the intelligent layman to infer from the contrast between the orang's brain (fig. 56), which has nearly its natural shape, and that of the gorilla (fig. 60), which any unprejudiced anatomist can see had been distorted in the process of hardening, yet is not so described in the text? The skeletons of man and gorilla, and the facial muscles of the same, are instructively placed on opposite pages, but in two cases detailed anatomical descriptions of unfamiliar parts occur before the figures by which alone they are rendered intelligible to the unprofessional reader, and without reference to them. Like the other volumes of this series, the book is attractive in appearance; but there are numerous evidences of careless proof-reading, and several passages (notably on pp. 194, 198, 199, 110, 310) indicate that the translator (who is not named) had too little familiarity with the subject.

The History of the Anti-Slavery Cause in State and Nation. By Rev. Austin Willey. Portland, Maine: Brown Thurston. 1886. 12mo, pp. 503.

THE size of this book corrects at a glance the extravagance of the "Publisher's Notice" on the opening page, viz., that this is "the most complete and perspicuous history of the cause ever written, or that ever can be written." It is but just to the author to say that he makes no such absurd pretension. He has written seriously, in good faith, and to the best of his ability, but he is not a historian: he remains what he was, a combatant. He worked as a journalist and lecturer devotedly and unselfishly in a remote field, the State of Maine, from which he emerged occasionally to visit the great cities at the time of anniversary or nominating conventions. He naturally tells more and has more to tell, in quantity and in value, of the local movement with which he was identified than of the national movement, though this is sketched crudely and confusedly down to the outbreak of the rebellion. Mr. Willey began Abolitionist, in the technical sense, as President of the Anti-Slavery Society of the Bangor Theological Seminary, and later became one of the officers of the State Society, which, as a result of the sectarian schism in 1840, cut loose from the American Anti-Slavery Society, and passed, by steps which are not here recorded distinctly, into the political movement initiated by the Liberty party. Mr. Willey's account of the causes of this separation is not trustworthy, but the facts have meanwhile been laid before the public in another work, and have not been controverted. The same bias leads him to neglect totally, after the date mentioned, the body which rightly retained the name of Abolitionists, continued uninterruptedly the moral agitation, and was most conspicuous for zeal, activity, talent, eloquence, and conversions.

Mr. Willey was and is one of the most thoroughgoing believers in the efficacy of the ballot to effect a moral revolution, despising every other instrumentality in comparison. This view was the corner-stone of the Liberty party. It is instructive, therefore, to find our author admitting "that not one-half so many anti-slavery papers were taken in Maine in proportion to its Liberty votes, including those published out of the State, as were taken in many other States" (p. 407); and that the "Free Democracy" of 1853 in Maine could not have lived had it not made an alliance with prohibition (p. 419). This points clearly to the fact that, for Maine at least, the Liberty party was organized too soon, or, as used to be said, got itself prematurely counted. We can imagine a similar predicament if the Mugwumps, dissatisfied with inspiring fear in both parties and holding the balance of power, had come out as a separate party, and, after a vain effort to establish themselves on a pure civil-service reform basis, had attached revenue reform or currency reform to their platform. Mr. Willey shows, by the way, unconsciously and incidentally, how vulnerable is the myth which identifies, as parts of one continuous political growth, the Liberty, Free-Soil, and Republican parties. Third-partyism never flourished in this country, and it was only the disbandment (*i. e.*, the anti-slavery conversion, or, as our slang phrase is, capture) of the Whig party which permitted a national candidate to be elected in the person of Abraham Lincoln.

Mr. Willey is faithful now, as in the militant past, in denouncing the complicity of the American churches with slavery. His profession, of course, gives great weight to his utterances on this head, which are numerous and unsparing. That necessary alliance which he affirms between the anti-slavery and the temperance ballot, leads him to trace the fortunes of prohibition in Maine until it became the shibboleth of both parties and the fundamental law of the State. Hence a portrait of Neal Dow is included among the very interesting and valuable series, chiefly anti-slavery, which alone would make this book a desideratum in every public or special library. Most important of these is the benevolent face of the philanthropic Ebenezer Dole, the early prop of the *Liberator;* and next, the fine head of Gen. Samuel Fessenden. But Mr. Willey has succeeded in thus preserving the features of no fewer than nine founders of the Maine Anti-Slavery Society.

The Chersonese with the Gilding Off. By Emily Innes. 2 vols. London: R. Bentley & Son. 1885. 8vo.

THE readers of Miss Bird's 'Golden Chersonese' will find much to interest and amuse them in Mrs. Innes's lively account of her experiences in the same country. Her husband being appointed Collector in the Malay State of Salangore, she determined to accompany him, although assured that it was "perfectly impossible" for an Eng-

lishwoman to live at Langat. This place proved to be a wretched village in a swamp "of seething black mud," inhabited by Malays of the poorest class and a few Chinese. Their house was "an ordinary Malay wigwam," made of dry palm-leaves and boards, standing on piles, while the only walk was a mud path which lost itself in the swamp on the outskirts of the village. Yet here she lived for the greater part of six years, much of the time entirely alone, her husband being often absent on official tours. Her description of the way in which she employed herself, her difficulties with her servants, the straits to which she was often put to get food, the annoyances from her numerous and uninvited guests, is very entertaining. Among these latter visitors were tigers, which, though constantly roaming at night about their house, were singularly harmless. Not so the mosquitoes, however, which were of unexampled size and ferocity. The customs, dress, and mode of life of the natives are also very graphically pictured by Mrs. Innes. From her account they appear to be, though lazy and filthy in their habits, a gentle, inoffensive people, without a trace of the treacherous disposition which we were formerly taught to regard as the distinguishing characteristic of the Malays. She says: "I never found the natives otherwise than civil and obliging." The Chinese form the dangerous element in the population, as she had sufficient reason to know, being nearly killed by the gang which murdered Captain Lloyd, Superintendent of Pangkor, with whom she was staying at the time.

The pleasure of the reader in this book (for though the writer gives a very different picture from Miss Bird's rather highly colored account, yet she always describes her various trials in a cheery, good-humored way) is somewhat marred by the prominence given to the ill-usage of her husband by his immediate superior, the Resident. Though their complaints are apparently well-grounded, it would have been better to avoid the appearance, at least, of having written a book for the purpose of making them public.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 1, 1886.

The Week.

THE news of Mr. Manning's illness and temporary incapacity for work will be received with the sincerest regret by men of all parties. Not only has he given himself to the duties of a most laborious position with extraordinary devotion, but he has brought talents to it such as have not been placed at the service of the Treasury for many a day. His reports on the tariff, and particularly on the silver question, are masterpieces in their way, which will command the respectful attention of economists and public men all over the world. We join in this expression of the sympathy and regret which every one is feeling, all the more heartily because we were among those who doubted at the outset the expediency of Mr. Manning's appointment. We feared he was too much of a politician, and not enough of a financier, for the place. But he has utterly disappointed all doubters and cavillers. His selection has proved one of the very best illustrations of President Cleveland's sagacity.

The strike in the Southwestern railroads has apparently reached its termination in a somewhat simple way. The Executive Committee of the Knights have had long conferences with Jay Gould in this city, but apparently without getting any further than the instructions contained in Mr. Gould's telegram to Mr. Hoxie on Saturday. In answer to that telegram, Mr. Hoxie has expressed his willingness to meet a committee composed of Knights "actually at work in the service of the company, and adjust with them any grievances they may have." This is not what Irons sought for, but the Executive Committee here decided that it was sufficiently satisfactory to justify an order to the men to return to work at once, and such an order was accordingly despatched on Tuesday. As a matter of fact, however, the strike was already breaking down through its own weight; the number of freight trains moving on all the lines was rapidly increasing, and the property of the companies fully protected against the mob except at one or two points. Indeed, a decent excuse for stopping an enterprise which owed what success it has had to criminal violence, was evidently all that the Executive Committee here desired.

The circular of Mr. Powderly, the General Master Workman, to the Knights of Labor, complaining of their strikes and their boycotting and their violence and lawlessness and recklessness, coupled with the remarks of Mr. Arthur, of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, is the most encouraging sign which has appeared in the labor agitation for many years. It shows that moderation, and judgment, and knowledge, and discretion do exist among the Knights, though they may be temporarily overpowered by ignorance, and passion, and crime. They have done much to reassure the multitudes of good people, of all callings, who have been asking themselves during the past few weeks whether American society was really going to be called upon to defend itself with rifles and cannon against a huge band of brigands. Nothing is easier than for labor organizations to command in this country an amount of sympathy and support from all classes in any attempt to better their condition, which would compel employers to make every possible concession through the mere force of public opinion. But no organization can secure any aid from public opinion which resorts to violence, which seeks to further its aims through assaults, pillage, riots, murder, the destruction of property, and physical compulsion of dissidents. The great bulk of the community hate violence and disorder, and attacks on personal liberty, and the persecution of individuals and minorities, and, in fact, tyranny of all kinds, no matter who exercises it; and without the sympathy of the great bulk of the community neither the Knights nor any other organization, as Mr. Powderly points out to them, can succeed in anything.

The comments of Mr. Arthur, the Chief of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, on the practice of boycotting must be extremely lacerating to the Knights of Labor and other advocates of the system. Mr. Arthur says that the Locomotive Brotherhood publish a magazine which circulates 16,000 copies, and that he was waited on recently by a committee of Knights, who gravely demanded that the advertisement of a boycotted firm should be excluded from the magazine, and that he (Arthur) threw their written demand into the waste basket and told the committee to go about their business. What the committee will do next is not known, but they ought to "order out" all the printers who work on the magazine, and notify the paper mills not to supply any more paper to the Locomotive Brotherhood. If the papermakers refuse to obey the order, they should be boycotted, and picketed and prevented from getting any coal or rags, and all dealers in these articles should be served with notice not to trade with them. Finally, if necessary to "secure recognition" by the monopolist Arthur, all the Knights of Labor in the United States should be "ordered out," on the principle that an injury to one is the concern of all.

Perhaps the most dangerous feature of the whole Southwestern disturbance is the fact that the power to suspend the operation of thousands of miles of railway is practically lodged in the hands of one man, whose motives for ordering a strike may be dishonest and purely mercenary. It has been charged that Mr. Irons, the leader of District Assembly No. 101, ordered the strike on the Missouri Pacific in order to depress the stock market. A secret circular of his dated March 23 is published, which points out the probable effect upon the stock market of Mr. Gould's lawsuits against the Knights as one of the elements likely to work in favor of the strikers. It is improbable, however, that Mr. Irons had any speculative plans or intentions of his own to be promoted by the disturbance, but it is plain that such power as he exercises might be used in that way with tremendous effect, and that human virtue could not long resist the temptation to use it when by a mere scratch of the pen a man might make himself rich enough to retire from any kind of labor or business, and nobody need ever be the wiser for it. There are scores of operators in Wall Street who would guarantee Mr. Irons an independent fortune for one strike, and who would arrange things so that nobody should ever know where the money came from.

The evidence given before the Committee of the Legislature in Massachusetts, of Mr. Cyrus W. Field's proposal to wreck the New York and New England Railroad is now overwhelming. Mr. Clark on Friday repeated Mr. Field's declarations made in the presence of seventeen gentlemen, apparently in complete unconsciousness of the effect they would produce. What Field and Sage proposed was, to form a combination for the purchase of the second-mortgage bonds, to be followed by a foreclosure, so as to shut out the stockholders and the creditors and to "make some money," and they both opposed a plan to reorganize the road in such a manner as to save the stockholders and the creditors, on the ground that "there was no money in it." Field even went so far as to censure the directors for publishing a true account of the condition and earnings of the road, on the ground that the "showing was too good"—that is, would interfere with his plan of getting hold of the mortgages at a low rate. We are glad to say the plan was then and there indignantly denounced as dishonest by the Boston men, and it was the communication of it to the Governor and Council which made them refuse to sell the State bonds to Field and his associates on any terms, on the ground that the possession of the road by such men would be injurious both to the road and the State. "Character," as Mr. F. L. Higginson said in his testimony, "still counts for a good deal in this world," and Field and Sage had not enough of it for this particular transaction.

A bill to raise the effective strength of the army of the United States to 30,000 men—it is now 25,000—has been on the calendar of the Senate for several years, getting very little attention *pro* or *con*. Senator Logan has kept it alive by introducing it and referring it, and reporting it back and making a speech upon it now and then. In following his customary programme this year he finds that his measure has suddenly become interesting, and that almost everybody has something to say about it. The reason why this bill, this venerable bore of fatigued Senators, has become entertaining is not far to seek, although most of the debaters are looking quite the other way, and pretending not to observe anything in the internal disorders of the country calling for the exercise of force either now or at any future time. Senator Platt, of Con-

necticut, last week referred to the remote possibility that a strong military force might be required to deal with a class of socialist propagandists who are coming hither from the Old World, and seeking to put in force doctrines subversive of the Government of the United States. Senator Beck, of Kentucky, with his usual low view of every public question, opposed the bill for the reasons which caused Senator Platt to favor it. He (Beck) did not believe in standing armies. They were a menace to "the people" and a convenient tool of despotism. They always ended in the overthrow of liberty, etc., etc.

The arguments in favor of the bill are very plain and simple, and ought to be proclaimed by every supporter of it, not apologetically and with bated breath, but openly and manfully. No anarchist, no organization of law-breakers, will be deceived by the soft words and excuses of any supporter of the bill. No person of education and common sense will be taken in by Senator Beck's apprehensions of the overthrow of liberty. Five thousand soldiers are not going to subvert free institutions in this country. A million such, supported by all the energies of two-thirds of the Union, had their powers taxed to the utmost to conquer one-third of the American people twenty years ago. Mr. Beck's apprehensions are that if he votes for any increase in the army, the class who believe that they have the right to be billeted for life on other people at wages to be fixed by themselves, and that all persons who refuse to be billeted upon ought to have their tools destroyed and their windows broken, will vote against him at the next election. Although 5,000, or 50,000, or 500,000 soldiers would not be dangerous to liberty in this country, 5,000 men in addition to those required to guard the Indian frontier might be very useful in preventing a massacre in San Francisco, or in restoring a railroad to the possession of its owners in St. Louis, or in guarding bridges in Texas, or in performing in a sudden emergency any other duty which the ordinary police are inadequate to perform. Calling out the militia to meet such emergencies means disorganizing industry for the time being, and is therefore the most expensive way of meeting the crisis. The militia are never as efficient as the army, man for man, and they always move reluctantly for the suppression of disorder. Rioters have very little respect for the militia, but very much for the army. A movable force of 5,000 men would save more bloodshed than it would cause by preventing the gathering of mobs.

Any sign of returning sanity among victims of the pension craze in Congress is to be heartily welcomed, and we would fain believe that a glimmer of hope is justified by the action of the House in the case of Margaret B. Harwood last week. Mr. Rogers, of Arkansas, who, by the way, was a "rebel soldier," had introduced a bill granting a pension of $50 a month to the widow of Rear-Admiral Harwood of the United States Navy, on the ground that she is an aged woman in destitute circumstances, and that her daughter, who lives with her, has also been left a widow, and has four children to support. The Committee on Pensions reported the bill favorably, and everybody supposed that it would slip through the House without being challenged, like so many similar bills for the widows of other army and navy officers in the past. But discussion was insisted upon. The facts were brought out that Rear-Admiral Harwood had received a salary which should have enabled him to leave his widow in comfort, and that the daughter is receiving a pension because her husband died from disease contracted in the army. In short, it was shown that Mrs. Harwood's case is in no wise different from that of many thousands of other widows throughout the country, who receive no support from the public treasury because their husbands have left them without a competence in their old age. Thereupon members found sufficient courage to declare that Congress ought not to grant a pension which is not demanded by considerations of justice, and, on a vote, the bill very narrowly escaped defeat, receiving only 96 affirmative votes to 94 negative.

The minority report of the House Committee on Coinage, bearing the signatures of Messrs. Bland, Lanham, and Bynum, recommends the free coinage of silver as a substitute for the present law, which provides for the coinage of silver dollars on Government account. Mr. Bland's arguments in favor of a change in the law are not particularly impressive. The existing law is at variance with the tenets of every school of finance in the world. It is obnoxious to the theories of both bimetallism and monometallism. It is exposed to every sort of attack and is incapable of defence on any side. It was enacted against Mr. Bland's protest and as a substitute for his measure. It has been tried eight years, and its results have frustrated all the expectations and designs of the silver men except the single one of furnishing an artificial market for the product of the mines. This was not the object had in view by Mr. Bland and his followers. They wanted, as his minority report shows, to do something for the "debtor class"; that is, to furnish them a cheap dollar to pay off their mortgages with. No such result has been brought about as yet, and no man can say how near or how remote the millennium of the debtors may be. The only thing quite certain is, that the people are paying two million dollars per month for bullion, which might more profitably be employed in paying the public debt and lessening the interest charge.

Under these circumstances we looked for a pretty sharp rebuke and condemnation of the existing law at the hands of Mr. Bland. But we find only a very mild and deprecating censure of the two-millions-per-month law, and no suggestion that it should ever be repealed unless free coinage of silver be substituted for it. Perhaps Mr. Bland has postponed a more decisive expression of his views until a vote can be had on his free-coinage motion. If this is voted down he may intend to make another motion, either for an international conference, or for a suspension of silver coinage for a definite time. Logically, he and all other bona-fide silver men must attack and overthrow the present law and practice of the Government, if they expect ever to get a "cheap dollar" in actual circulation. But while Mr. Bland deals very gingerly with the law, he does not conceal his desire to see the single silver standard established in this country. So far is he from fearing that all our gold would be exported under a free coinage act that he considers that eventuality most desirable. "The result," he says, "would be an increase in the monetary supply in European countries of gold that would set the machines of industry in motion, giving the starving laborers of those countries employment, and enabling them to purchase our commodities." This method of reviving domestic industry by sending our gold to foreigners so that they may be able to buy our products, is feasible even without a free-coinage act, and it is a wonder that it has never occurred to us or to other countries as a cure for commercial crises in the past. But we advise Congress not to act upon it in the first flush of excitement upon so happy a discovery. Rather let us propose to Europe to make the first experiment, by sending us all of her gold to set our industry going, so that we can buy her commodities. Then, if the plan works well, we can reverse the operation.

The House voted on Monday, 115 to 133, not to refer a bill identical with the Blair bill to the Committee on Education, and subsequently sent it, by nearly the same vote, to the Committee on Labor. The advocates of Federal aid to schools claimed that the Education Committee would smother the measure by not reporting it back to the House at all, while the Labor Committee would give the House a chance to consider it. The House is entitled to have the matter brought before it, and a number of members, like Mr. Long, of Massachusetts, voted to send the bill to the Labor Committee in order that it might surely be reported back, without in the least thereby committing themselves to support the scheme when it comes up for consideration on its merits. If the Education Committee really intended to kill the measure by indirection, the action of the majority was justifiable and commendable. The long debate in the Senate a month ago was so disastrous to the scheme that, as the Washington correspondent of the Springfield *Republican* frankly confessed, the Republican majority only allowed the bill to pass the upper branch in order to "keep their records straight" for consistency, as they had supported a similar bill two years ago, and with the assurance that it would fail in the House. That this assurance was well founded appears more clear every week.

Cases have not been infrequent where a single speech in a legislative body against a pending measure has defeated it. It has very appropriately fallen to the lot of Congressman Singleton, of Mississippi, to achieve the unique distinction of defeating an excellent bill by a single speech in its favor. The bill providing for the much needed Congressional Library Building came up in the House on Wednesday week, and two hours were allotted for its consideration—a sufficient time, if judiciously employed, to secure a vote, which

would probably have been favorable. But Mr. Singleton, who had charge of the measure, insisted upon using up the two hours in making a needless speech for the bill, and so relegated the measure to the calendar of unfinished business, where it may be buried too deep for resurrection. But even such a warning will not produce any effect upon a statesman who is loaded with a speech.

The custom of having the sessions of the Houses of Congress opened with prayer by a "chaplain" needs either a serious reform or total abolition. Many of the prayers now offered are silly, and some blasphemous. One offered lately in the House was really a foolish stump speech on the strikes, which it was disgraceful to try to disguise as a petition to Almighty God. There ought to be a stop put to this sort of thing. If prayer be desirable, it had better be silent prayer, offered by the members, each for himself, and not for his neighbors. There are very few men indeed competent to pray for their neighbors.

The results of the operation of the Civil-Service Act, as set forth in the report sent in to Congress by the President, are most gratifying. Nearly every expectation of its friends has thus far been fulfilled. The effect of the report, too, will be much heightened by the attack on the reform itself in the Senate on Friday by Mr. Ingalls. Anything more blackguard is seldom heard in any Alderman's pot-house in this city, from a City Hall loafer. It cleared the galleries of decent women, but was received with roars of laughter by the Republican Senators to whom it was addressed in support of the Edmunds resolutions about "the papers." These resolutions were carried by a strict party vote. They cannot have the smallest effect on the President, or any one else, and they have been carried at a terrible cost to their chief promoters. It is, on the whole, a happy circumstance for the lovers of good government that the final stroke in their favor should have been a silly and foul-mouthed joke.

Since the recent hearing accorded to the friends of the Postal Savings Bank Bill by the House Committee at Washington there has been a considerable awakening of public interest on this question. A good many petitions have been sent in, some meetings have been held and resolutions passed, and many newspapers have spoken for or against the measure. We judge that although the system may not be adopted by Congress this year, it will gain strength by agitation and discussion, and will eventually and at no very distant day be engrafted upon our post-office machinery as it has been on that of the most enlightened countries of the Old World. We presume that the objections urged against the system by Mr. John P. Townsend in the *Evening Post* are as strongly stated as they can be by anybody, since that gentleman is a recognized authority in the literature of savings banks. The first of these objections, if we understand it rightly, is that if a large amount of money should be deposited in the Treasury through the post-offices, it must be invested in United States bonds, and that if a sudden demand should be made for the money by the depositors, the Government would be obliged to sell the bonds, probably at a loss, and make up the difference out of the general fund in the Treasury, thus taxing the many for the benefit of the few. The most obvious answer is that an ordinary panic would never cause a "run" on the Government by frightened depositors. The tendency in such a case would be to send in fresh deposits to a place considered absolutely secure rather than to draw out money already there. The class of people who deposit money in savings banks do not choose periods of panic for the purpose of making permanent investments. When they draw out money under the influence of panic, they do so because they have lost confidence in the place of deposit. What they draw out they bury in the ground, or stuff into mattresses, stockings, coffee-pots, or crevices in the wall; and to the minds of all such, without a single exception, the Government is the type and symbol of absolute safety. The danger, if any, in such a case would be that depositors in ordinary savings banks might be impelled in times of panic to draw out money in order to lodge it in the postal banks. But under the provisions of the pending bill no person can deposit more than $100 within a space of thirty days.

Mr. Townsend's next objection is, that at the end of twenty years or so there will be no public debt, and therefore no investment for the postal-savings deposits. What are we to do in such a case? Well, if the postal-savings fund earns no interest, it will not pay any, under the terms of the proposed bill. It would be quite indefensible for the Government to go on paying interest on the money of private persons without any reimbursement to itself. That would indeed be taxing the many for the benefit of the few. When the Government can no longer earn interest for the depositors it can pay their principal back to them or allow it to lie in the Treasury subject to the call of the owners. Nobody will be harmed by that situation, but on the other hand the valuable and to many the inestimable privilege of resorting to an absolutely safe place for the custody of their funds will still remain. It cannot be too often repeated that no friend of the bill proposes to continue the national debt one hour in order to keep alive an interest-bearing investment for the money of savings depositors.

The anarchists were unfortunate in making their first experiment on a great scale in Belgium, because, although the manufacturing population is large, the number of small farmers is greater in proportion to population than in any other country in Europe, or perhaps in the world, and their industry may fairly be called implacable. No eight-hour days or compulsory hiring for them. Their day lasts from dawn to dark, and as they ask nothing from any man, they allow no man to billet himself on them against their will. They consequently have little sympathy with communistic modes of making the earth a pleasant abode, and most distinctly object to being killed or having their houses looted by tramps from the great towns. Hence the troops in going to extremities with the strikers have their hearty sympathy and support; but they must have lived in great terror during the last week or two. The labor problem in Belgium is none the less most serious. A huge body of ignorant workers for daily wages has been gradually concentrated in the large towns of a small state, and orders have been diminishing and prices falling, and wages falling with them, and the French Anarchists have been busy showing that people who own anything are to blame, and ought to be exterminated.

The statement of the *Pesther Lloyd*, a leading journal of Buda-Pesth, that Prince Alexander is about making his army proclaim him King of United Bulgaria, may be true as expressing a hidden intention or wish of the Prince as to the future, but it is undoubtedly premature as the announcement of an approaching fact. The Prince has, in the last six months, given too many evidences of prudence and circumspection, combined with firmness and courage, to be believed capable of risking the fruits of a long series of favorable events and concessions wrung from foes. A secret movement intended to secure a Russian triumph and his own downfall was changed by the revolutionary *coup* of September 18, 1885, into a union *de facto* of Eastern Rumelia with his principality of Bulgaria, under his own auspices and sceptre. King Milan's invasion in November, which aimed at undoing this work for the sake of Servia's preponderance and expansion in the Balkans, was baffled in a most surprising manner by Alexander's military skill and the unexpected prowess of both his former and his new subjects. Czar Alexander's violent outburst of spite against the German Prince, as an ungrateful upstart, turned Russia's rival in Balkan politics, Austria-Hungary, whose sympathies had encouraged the King of Servia, into a supporter of the Bulgarian union. The Porte, whose suzerain rights the revolution of Philippopolis had infringed upon, was induced by the armaments of Servia and Greece, and the anti-Russian influence of the English Foreign Office, to conclude, in January, an agreement with Prince Alexander, which made him its Governor-General of Eastern Rumelia for at least five years, and stipulated military co-operation, if needed, against Servia and Greece. Discomfited by his reverses, abandoned by Austria-Hungary, and distracted by conspiratory plottings, King Milan, after much hesitation, signed an inglorious treaty of peace with Bulgaria, negotiated at Bucharest about the beginning of March, and a conference of the great Powers subsequently assembled at Constantinople sanctioned the results of both agreements; Russia yielding to the power of circumstances with very bad grace and some reservations, and Greece alone, of all the states concerned, continuing to bluster. So much substantial gain and newly-acquired prestige Prince Alexander will not jeopard for a title which, with the independence it may imply, he is sure to win in the end.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 24, to TUESDAY, March 30, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President sent to Congress on Thursday the third annual report of the Civil-Service Commission with a message in which he said: "Wherever this reform has gained a foothold it has steadily advanced in the esteem of those charged with public administrative duties, while the people who desire good government have constantly been confirmed in their high estimate of its value and efficiency. With the benefits it has already secured to the public service plainly apparent, and with its promise of increased usefulness easily appreciated, this cause is commended to the liberal care and jealous protection of the Congress."

The report covers the year from January 16, 1885, to January 16, 1886. Among its features are the following: It shows a comprehensive execution of the Civil-Service Act and rules, the particulars of which are fully set forth. Applicants have been examined within the year from every State in the Union, and from every Territory except Utah. From three to six different examinations have been held in each of 17 States, and there have been in all 150 different examinations, all of which except 5 have been competitive, and at these only 8 persons were examined. The whole number of persons examined under the Commission during the year has been 7,602, of whom 6,872 were males and 730 were females. The whole number thus far examined since the act was passed has been 17,491. Of the 7,602 examined during the past year 5,034 attained the minimum of 65 per cent., which makes them eligible for appointment, and 2,568 failed to show that degree of proficiency, and consequently are ineligible for appointment. Of those examined a trifle less than two-thirds (66.22 per cent.) succeeded. The average age of all those examined was thirty years. The whole number of appointments made during the past year from those examined has been 1,876, each for the probationary period of six months. If to these we add 2,300, the number made during the previous eighteen months under the rules, it shows that 4,176 have been appointed in two years. The report shows how the examinations strengthen the school system of the country, and that the general results have been as salutary in New York and Massachusetts, where the competitive system is now established, as in the Federal service. Concerning the President and his Cabinet the report has this language: "Under all circumstances, and in every part of its work during the past year, not less than in previous years, the Commission has had the cordial and unswerving support of the President." The report in conclusion states that only a larger force for the Commission and adequate appropriations are needed to enable examinations of appropriate kind to be extended, not only to smaller post-offices and customs offices, but to the railway mail service, to mints, to the District of Columbia, to internal-revenue offices, to the consular service, to promotions, and wherever else they may, in the light of larger experience, be thought likely to be useful.

Senator Mitchell (Rep., Ore.) in the Senate on Wednesday decidedly opposed the Edmunds programme, and sent up a substitute resolution to the effect that, in the case of the failure or refusal of any head of a department to furnish papers concerning removed officers, it would still remain the constitutional duty of the Senate to proceed within a reasonable time to consider nominations with such light as it had; and such a refusal should not be deemed in itself a sufficient reason for the Senate to refuse to consider or consent to the confirmation.

The Edmunds resolutions were finally adopted in the Senate on Friday. Mr. Van Wyck's open-session resolution came up first, but was ruled out on a point of order, and an appeal was tabled, Van Wyck and Riddleberger voting nay with the Democrats. The first two resolutions were then adopted by a party vote, including the censure of the Attorney-General. The third resolution, providing for the rejection of nominations about which the information demanded is not furnished, was next adopted by one majority; Mitchell, Riddleberger, and Van Wyck voting nay with the Democrats. The majority by which this resolution was passed was so small that the most enthusiastic supporter of it does not expect that it will define the party policy. At least it is not expected that there will be a wholesale rejection of nominations. Liberal use will undoubtedly be made of the saving clause, which does not require rejections except in cases where the Senate shall consider it important to call for the papers.

In the course of a debate on the Postal Appropriation Bill in the House on Wednesday Mr. Burrows (Rep., Mich.) attacked the Post-office Department, declaring that it had not only nullified law touching the administration of the postal service, both domestic and foreign, but had defied not only the spirit but the letter of the Civil-Service Law.

Mr. Belmont offered a joint resolution in the House on Monday appropriating $147,758 "to pay the Chinese Government in consideration of the losses unhappily sustained by certain Chinese subjects by mob violence at Rock Springs, Wyoming Territory, on September 2, 1885, said sum being intended for distribution among the sufferers and their legal representatives, in the discretion of the Chinese Government; that the further restriction of Chinese and coolie immigration, if it shall be found expedient and necessary, can be most properly accomplished by the modification of existing treaties."

Mr. Willis (Dem., Ky.) introduced in the House on Monday a bill similar to the Blair Education Bill and moved to refer it to the Committee on Labor, which is supposed to be friendly to the measure. The House so referred the bill by 138 to 113. A member of the Committee says that he is confident that the Committee will not vote to report the bill favorably, but that the Committee will make a report of some kind and not smother the bill.

The House Post-office Committee has decided to report adversely the bill doubling the rate of postage on fourth-class mail matter.

It is ascertained that a majority of this Committee now favor the Postal Savings Bank Bill, having been convinced by the recent public hearing and by the favorable comments of the press that the supposed dangers to private institutions are imaginary.

Secretary Manning's condition continued very serious throughout the week. It was admitted that the attack was in the nature of apoplexy, and was the result of overwork.

Attorney-General Garland is seriously ill of nervous prostration.

Geronimo, three other Apache chiefs, and seventy-seven of their band have unconditionally surrendered to General Crook.

Grand Master Workman Powderly on Friday issued a notable manifesto to the Knights of Labor throughout the country. After dwelling at some length upon the inadvisability of taking in new members at present, the address continues: "We must not fritter away our strength and miss the opportunity of present success in the struggle against capital by rushing into useless strikes. To the cardinal principles of the order, we must add another—patience. You have had patience for years, and had not the Knights of Labor appeared upon the scene you would still be waiting. Your scales of prices must stand as they are for the present if you cannot raise them by any other process than a strike. You must submit to injustice at the hands of the employer in patience for a while longer. Bide well your time. Find out how much you are justly entitled to, and the tribunal of arbitration will settle the rest. Assemblies of the Knights of Labor must not strike for the eight-hour system on May 1st under the impression that they are obeying orders from headquarters, for such an order was not and will not be given. I write this circular to lay before the order the exact condition of things. I am neither physically nor mentally capable of performing the work required of me. I am willing to do my part, but must not be asked to maintain a false position before the world any longer. One of two things must take place—either the local and district assemblies of the order must obey its laws, or I must be permitted to resign from a vocation which obliges me to play one part before the public and another to our members."

On Saturday Mr. Powderly, on behalf of the Knights of Labor, sent a proposal to Mr. Jay Gould asking for the appointment of an arbitration committee of seven, three members to be appointed by Mr. Gould, three by the Knights of Labor, and the seventh by these six; the decision of the committee upon the railroad difficulties in the Southwest to be final.

The communications on Saturday between Jay Gould and T. V. Powderly did not result in any agreement, Mr. Gould refusing to accept arbitration so long as the Missouri Pacific Railway was subjected to unlawful interference by the strikers. On Sunday, however, an agreement was reached, after two conferences at Mr. Gould's house. The result was that Mr. Gould sent the following to General Manager Hoxie, of the Missouri Pacific: "In resuming the movement of trains on the Missouri Pacific and in the employment of labor in the several departments of the company, you will give preference to our late employees, whether they are members of the Knights of Labor or not, except that you will not employ any person who has injured the company's property during the late strike; nor will we discharge any person who has taken service with the company during the said strike. We see no objection to arbitrating any differences between the employees and the company, past or future." Mr. Powderly telegraphed to the Knights of Labor in the Southwest: "President Jay Gould has consented to our proposition for arbitration, and so telegraphs Vice-President Hoxie. Pursuant to telegraphic instructions sent to the Chairman of the Executive Board of District Assembly No. 101, you are directed to resume work at once." On Monday Mr. Gould said that Mr. Powderly had misunderstood him. He had not agreed to arbitration, but had referred the whole matter to Mr. Hoxie. Orders were issued by the Executive Committee of the Knights at St. Louis on Monday to resume work, but they were not immediately obeyed. Later in the day, on advices from Mr. Powderly that there was a hitch in the negotiations, the order to resume work was rescinded. Trains, however, were run from Sedalia without molestation.

Messrs. Gould and Powderly were again in consultation on Tuesday, and at 9:30 P. M. the Secretary of the Knights telegraphed to Martin Irons in St. Louis: "Have been in conference all day, with the result that Vice-President Hoxie agrees to the following: He is willing to meet a committee of employees, without discrimination, who are actually at work in the service of the company at the time such Committee is appointed, to adjust with them any grievances that they may have. Have your Executive Committee order the men to return to work, and also select a special committee from the employees of the Missouri Pacific to wait on Mr. Hoxie to adjust grievances. Do this as quickly as possible. Board will leave for St. Louis to-morrow." It is believed that this will end the strike.

Judge Dyer, of the United States District Court, sitting in Chicago, in a suit to recover $10,000 insurance on the life of a man who committed suicide while insane, insured in the Accident Insurance Company of North America against injuries effected by "external, accidental, or violent means," suicide being especially excepted, decides against the

company, holding that in this case the act of suicide was no more the man's act in the sense of the law than if he had been impelled by an irresistible physical power.

Steinitz won the twentieth and deciding game of chess and the championship of the world at New Orleans on Monday, the total score standing Steinitz 10, Zukertort 5.

It is now believed that the schooner *Charles H. Morse* sank the Cunard steamship *Oregon*.

The Rev. John Rankin, a native of Tennessee, and one of the oldest abolitionists in the United States, died at Ironton, O., March 18, aged ninety-three. He was pastor of the First and Second Presbyterian Churches at Ripley, O., for forty-four years. From this place (1824) he addressed some most forcible letters to his brother in Middlebrook, Va., dissuading him from slaveholding, which were published at Ripley in 1826, were afterward (1832) reprinted in the *Liberator*, and again in book form in Boston and Newburyport, and ran through many editions. He joined the Garrisonian anti-slavery movement, and was mobbed for his anti-slavery views more than twenty times; in 1837 being knocked down on leaving a church at Dayton, O., and in 1841 being assailed even on his own premises.

Ex-Justice Ward Hunt, of the United States Supreme Court, died in Washington on Wednesday. Justice Hunt was born in Utica, in 1810, was graduated from Union College in 1828, and attended law lectures afterward at Litchfield, Conn. He was a Judge of the New York Court of Appeals from 1865 to 1872, when he was appointed a Justice of the United States Supreme Court by President Grant. His health failed afterward, and in 1882 Congress passed a bill retiring him on a pension.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone was ill with a cold on Thursday and was prevented by his physicians from making his proposed announcement on the Irish question in the House of Commons. Sir William Vernon Harcourt was, however, delegated to do that duty, and announced that Mr. Gladstone would state his Irish policy to the House on April 8.

A British Cabinet meeting was held on Friday. Mr. Gladstone was better, and able to be present.

Mr. Gladstone reappeared in the House of Commons on Friday afternoon. Referring to the announcement made in his behalf by Sir William Vernon Harcourt, Mr. Gladstone said that the statement he would make on April 8 would take the form of the introduction of a bill for the future government of Ireland.

On Saturday it was announced that Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Trevelyan had resigned, and their resignations had been accepted by the Queen. They expressed opposition as strong and unchangeable to certain details of Mr. Gladstone's home-rule plan as to the land-purchase scheme itself. This being so, no further hope of union is possible. In consequence of these secessions, land purchase will lose its precedence in the whole scheme, but will not be essentially altered in form. Home rule in itself will take the principal place, and the Conservative party will be left to take some initiative action on the legislative proposals which have been framed chiefly in their interests.

Mr. James Stansfeld (Radical) has been appointed President of the Local Government Board in the place of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain. Mr. Stansfeld occupied the same office once before. The Earl of Dalhousie has been appointed to succeed Mr. G. O. Trevelyan as Secretary for Scotland. Lord Dalhousie will not, however, have a seat in the Cabinet. It is expected that there will be six secessions from Mr. Gladstone's Ministry, outside of the Cabinet. There is no truth in the rumor that Lord Spencer will resign.

A London correspondent states, on the highest authority, that the following are Mr. Chamberlain's views on the Irish question, the views, moreover, to which he will adhere, and which he believes will secure the support of a majority of the Radicals of the country. He favors an Irish National Assembly in Dublin, free to make by-laws, but subject to the authority of Parliament, and able to make rates, but leaving the Queen's taxes to be settled at Westminster; Ireland to have liberty to manage her own affairs, but another sovereign authority similar to the imperial Parliament to be regarded as entirely inadmissible; not a single Irishman to be removed from St. Stephen's. This would involve a revision, if not a repeal, of the Act of Union.

Mr. Gladstone and Lord Hartington have interchanged views in regard to the Premier's Irish policy. It is surmised that Lord Hartington may come to Mr. Gladstone's support and more than offset the defection of Mr. Chamberlain. The London *News* believes that Mr. Gladstone's scheme does not place the police under control of an Irish Parliament. It is believed that a division on the Irish question will hardly be reached before Easter.

Mr. Gladstone, in the House of Commons on Monday afternoon, stated that on April 8 he would ask permission to introduce his Irish Government Bill. He added that on April 12 the budget would be introduced, and that on April 15 he would request permission to introduce a bill to amend the laws for the sale and purchase of land in Ireland.

Mr. Donald Horne Macfarlane, Radical, asked the Government, in the House of Commons on Thursday afternoon, whether it was true that the Cunard steamship *Oregon* had an insufficient supply of lifeboats aboard. Mr. Mundella, President of the Board of Trade, answered that the *Oregon* had 896 passengers and crew, and boats capable of carrying 265. He said the *Oregon's* boat accommodations were largely in excess of the statutory requirements. No ship carried boats sufficient to accommodate all the passengers.

It is asserted that Lord Randolph Churchill and William Henry Smith have had a bitter quarrel, and the latter threatens to withdraw from the Conservative party unless the former apologizes.

Queen Victoria went in state on Wednesday afternoon to open the ceremony of laying the foundation of the new Examination Hall of the College of Surgeons, on the Thames embankment, London. As the Queen and Princess Beatrice were driving near the Buckingham Palace Park, along the Constitution Hill road, a shabby-looking man elbowed his way through the crowd and threw a small package into the carriage. The Queen was alarmed at the man's approach, and Princess Beatrice leaned forward apparently to shield her mother. The package proved not to be dynamite, as was suspected, but a note complaining that the petitioner had been robbed of his pension. He proved to be Charles Brown, an old English soldier, who has several times been confined in an insane asylum. He was arrested, but afterward released at the Queen's command.

Justice Butt, of London, on Thursday decided that a divorce obtained in America from the bonds of a marriage performed in England is invalid in England.

Richard Chenevix Trench, D.D., formerly Archbishop of Dublin, of the Church of Ireland, is dead. He was born in 1807, educated at Cambridge, was professor at King's College, London, and for eight years Dean of Westminster. He was appointed Archbishop of Dublin in 1864, and resigned that office twenty years afterward. Archbishop Trench was a voluminous writer. Among his best known published works were 'Notes on the Miracles,' 'Notes on the Parables,' 'The Study of Words' (which reached a seventeenth edition), and 'Lectures on Mediæval Church History.' He will be buried in Westminster Abbey.

Sir Henry Taylor, the English writer, is dead at the age of eighty-six. He produced in 1827 'Isaac Comnenus: a Play.' His next venture in the dramatic line was 'Philip Van Artevelde: a Dramatic Romance' (2 vols., 1834), which was at once recognized as a masterpiece. His prose works comprised 'The Statesman' (1836), containing views upon the transaction of public business; 'Notes from Life, in Six Essays' (1847); 'Notes from Books, in Four Essays' (1849); and his poems appeared in two volumes entitled 'The Eve of the Conquest, and Other Poems' (1847), and 'A Sicilian Summer, and Minor Poems' (1868). His autobiography was published last year. His fifty years of official life in the Colonial Department won him the knighthood of the Order of St. Michael and St. George.

The strike begun by the miners at Liége a fortnight ago is extending rapidly all over Belgium. It has now practically become a universal demand by the miners of the country for an increase of wages accompanied by a decrease in the hours of labor. This labor movement at Liége is under the control of anarchists, and the city is really at their mercy. The damage done at Charleroi by the strikers amounts to $2,500,000. In the rioting there on Sunday several persons were killed and many wounded. The town is now quieter. The rioters at Jumet, upon the approach of the troops sent to disperse them, placed 200 women in the front ranks. The troops opened fire, and many of the women were wounded. The strike is extending to Namur. Additional troops have been called from Brussels to quell the disorders. The strike in the Charleroi district was ended on Tuesday.

The debate on the second reading of the German Spirit Monopoly Bill was begun in the Reichstag on Friday. Prince Bismarck made an irritating speech. It was impossible, he said, to increase the revenues by direct taxation. Spirits were especially favorable for taxation. If the Monopoly Bill should be rejected, the Government would introduce a bill to tax the consumption of spirits. It was doubtful whether, with such a majority, the Reichstag would ever be the pivot upon which German unity could revolve. If the Reichstag did not better comprehend its duty, he feared for the future of the empire in the event of complications with foreign countries, though he saw no immediate danger. He would also say that he foresaw no danger in the spring of 1870. If the strength of the empire was likely to be put to severe tests, the present was the time to provide for contingencies. The adoption of the Spirit Monopoly Bill would strengthen, while its rejection would prejudice the empire. The bill was rejected on Saturday by 181 to 3, the members of the Right not voting.

All the Powers except Russia have agreed to recognize Prince Alexander as Governor of Eastern Rumelia during his life.

It is asserted that Prince Alexander is about to make his army proclaim him King of United Bulgaria.

The progress of the electoral campaign in Spain indicates the return of a large Liberal and monarchical majority to the Cortes.

The Comtesse de Chambord is dead.

The two Russian patients of M. Pasteur who a few days ago showed symptoms of hydrophobia, are now recovering.

The natives of Senegal in rebellion against French authority have resorted to open warfare. In a recent attack the rebels killed nine French soldiers and wounded thirty-two. Reinforcements for the colony are being rapidly fitted out at Toulon.

The Abyssinian troops sent to relieve the garrison at Kassala have fought a battle with hostile Arabs near that place and defeated them, capturing 550.

The British troops have defeated 400 Burmese near Yemethen.

THE "FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLE" OF THE KNIGHTS OF LABOR.

THE *Overland Monthly* for March contains an interesting article by a leading Knight of Labor in California, giving the view taken by the Knights of the Chinese question. We say it is interesting, because as a general rule the Knights are rather chary about engaging in public discussion on any subject. Considering the size of the organization, and the claims it makes on public sympathy and forbearance, the small extent to which it puts itself on paper about anything is indeed very remarkable. Very little is known about its social or political creed, or about its plan for reconciling its own existence and activity with those of any civil government. The article in the *Overland Monthly*, therefore, by Mr. W. W. Stone, is almost the first bit of information we have had touching the way in which the Knights look at the constitution of human society. Here is, for instance, according to Mr. Stone, what an average Knight has a right to expect from any community in which he lives:

> "The fundamental principle on which our organization is based is, that the Almighty made air, earth, fire, and water for the use of man. Those who use these agencies incur an obligation which is best met by a due regard for the rights of others. We believe it to be reasonable ground to take that, having a common interest in these great natural agencies, no one man has a right to ask or expect a fellow-being to work for the mere purpose of continuing existence. Under our system of popular government, the man and citizen has a right to expect that he will be protected from the greed of the avaricious in the hunt for subsistence for his wife and family. It does not, therefore, seem absurd to hold that the working classes have a right to expect that those in authority shall devise means by which labor shall be fostered and protected."

That the use of air, earth, fire, and water imposes on each person an obligation to respect the rights of others, we can well understand. We concede, too, that it would be, to say the least, uncivil to ask any one to work for the mere purpose of continuing existence. What we complain of on the part of the Knights, however, is their insisting on working for people who do not desire their services. They are, in fact, trying to introduce into modern society a new right—that is, the right to be employed by people who do not want you and who cannot afford to pay you what you ask. Surely the use of air, earth, fire, and water imposes on us all the obligation not only to ask nobody to work for us at a rate of wages which he does not like, but also the obligation to ask nobody to employ us at a rate of wages which he does not like. The obligation on these points is and must be reciprocal. Nobody ought to use air, earth, fire, and water who insists on staying in a man's service against his will, at a rate of pay to which he does not agree.

We concede, too, that a citizen should be "protected from the greed of avaricious men in the hunt for subsistence for his wife and children," but then there must be some limits to the extent to which this protection can be afforded. "Popular government" is a fine phrase, but it means simply the joint action of the whole of us who live in the country, and who are engaged in procuring subsistence for our wives and children. By subscribing a certain sum of money every year, and employing policemen and judges, we insure each other against such of the avaricious men as take to robbery or fraud. But how are we to protect every father of a family from being overreached by avaricious men in making bargains and in the purchase and sale of commodities? We cannot send a lawyer around with each citizen to see that nobody cheats him or pays him too low a price for what he has to sell. Mr. Stone seems to forget that while Mr. Brick might be occupied in protecting him against some avaricious men, Brick's own family would be left exposed to them, and might be reduced to penury, owing to his absorption in looking after Mr. and Mrs. Stone and their children. The use of air, earth, fire, and water, in fact, imposes on all adults using them, as a matter of necessity, the obligation of protecting themselves against all but the grosser forms of violence and fraud. However much they might desire it, they could not possibly do more than this. Every one of us knows what hard work it is to take care of himself in his own sphere of activity, and how few there are who have the time and capacity to take care of their neighbors.

The way Mr. Stone applies these "fundament principles" to the Chinese in California is very curious. It appears that "from one thing especially the laborer should be shielded, and that is the operation of the competitive system, because under the working of this industrial curse the muscle of a human being is put up at a kind of auction, in much the same way that the old slave was knocked off the block." How the laborer is to be shielded from the competitive system, Mr. Stone does not say, but from this premise he jumps at once into the conclusion that it is the Caucasian only, after all, and not the whole human family, for whom God made the air, earth, fire, and water, and that the Chinese are not entitled to the use of these commodities, wherever they come in contact with the Caucasian. The reason why God has made this exception in the case of the Chinese is, according to Mr. Stone, that

> "they are the natural product of a pagan climate and a despotic soil. Their system of government comprehends the patriarchal as well as the monarchical form. The head of a family has the lives of his charges in his own hands. The head of the Government has the fate of his family under his will. It is no uncommon occurrence for a family to be sacrificed for the misdeed of some fugitive member. With such a training, who cannot see that an attempt to educate these people in the principles of government and to teach them the individual advantages of trade organization would be sheer absurdity? Their success in driving out of the market all white competitors in several branches of trade, shows the danger to the perpetuity of our republican form of government arising from consent on our part to continue the unequal competition."

So it appears that it is not all of God's creatures who are entitled to protection from avaricious men, and from the competitive system, but only those who have received a certain kind of education. If a man has had the misfortune to be born under a despotism, he has no rights which a Caucasian is bound to recognize, but may be killed or robbed by avaricious men with impunity, and exposed freely to any number of competitors armed with clubs and revolvers.

Without inquiring too minutely into the extent of Mr. Stone's knowledge of Chinese government or society, we would like to ask him whether the Emperor of China ever, on hearing that there has been a business quarrel between two men in one of the wards of the City of Pekin, orders traffic to be suspended and the streets barricaded on all the great thoroughfares, until the quarrel is settled to the satisfaction of one of the parties, and directs anybody who tries to force the blockade on his lawful occasions, to be kicked, and stoned, and have his wagon broken. Or whether, on hearing that the captain of a junk has wrongfully dismissed his mate in the province of Kan-Su, he ever orders traffic to be suspended along the whole of the river Hoang-Ho, and lines the banks with troops with orders to wreck and burn all junks and boats trying to move up or down, till the mate is restored to his place.

We have never heard of such things in China, but we know men in America who live under a despotism of this very kind, and seem to like it, and we think all talk from them about danger from the Chinese "to the perpetuity of our republican form of government" is very droll. Such men do not even know what a republican form of government is.

"THE OTHER SIDE OF THE CHINESE QUESTION."

THE country has heard so many wild statements and so much incoherent rhetoric from anti-Chinese agitators of the Denis Kearney type that it is refreshing to get a sober statement of facts such as Col. Fred. A. Bee, the Chinese Consul at San Francisco, has recently published, in the shape of a memorial to the people and the Congress of the United States. It is only when one has thus brought together before him the testimony of the leading citizens of California and the evidence of official records that he fully realizes the madness, as well as the brutality, of the warfare which a professedly Christian State is now waging upon an unoffending race.

The San Francisco Board of Supervisors a few weeks ago published a book which gave fresh currency to all the familiar old charges in their most aggravated form, and Colonel Bee's pamphlet takes up these charges in succession. The book embodies the report made last summer by a special committee of the Supervisors upon this question, and Colonel Bee says that the man who is the author and father of this report expects that it will give him the nomination for Mayor. Some of its statements were so preposterous that even certain San Francisco papers had independence enough to protest against them, the *News-Letter* pronouncing the report "more than usually sensational and misleading," while the *Argus*, after quoting the diatribe against the Chinese quarter, declared that "there are numerous patches in other parts of the city that can hold their own for unadulterated immorality, death-dealing filth, and general cussedness against any part of Chinatown."

The cry that the Chinese are really slaves is again raised. Colonel Bee says that this charge was made originally about twenty-five years ago, and the Legislature of 1862 appointed a committee to investigate it, which reported that, after most thorough inquiry, they were "satisfied that there is no system of slavery or coolyism among the Chinese in this State," and that "they are as free as

any persons in the State." The same charge was again brought in 1876, and an exhaustive inquiry was made by the Congressional Committee of which Senator Morton was chairman, who reported that "Chinese labor in California is as free as any other; they all come as free men, and are their own masters absolutely." Colonel Bee describes the origin and sets forth the character of the famous "Six Companies." The first Chinese immigrants who entered the mining region came from the six districts in the province of Canton, and they simply imitated a custom which they found among the Caucasian miners, who had formed organizations and established headquarters for the mutual advantage of men from the same State, Colonel Bee himself at that time belonging to the New York headquarters. The Chinese organizations are simply benevolent societies, which give aid to the new-comer, look after the sick, and send home the dead; and the only foundation for the charge that they maintain tribunals outside our laws is the fact that the presidents of the companies occasionally act as arbitrators to settle difficulties between their countrymen, although neither party is ever bound by their findings.

The Supervisors' book contains several pages of testimony to the depravity of the Chinese, which was taken ten years ago before a one-sided legislative committee, the Chinese not being permitted to present their case. Colonel Bee presents about thirty pages of the testimony which was given later in the same year by leading citizens of California before the Morton Committee. As to the character of the Chinese merchants, Joseph A. Coolidge, Secretary and Manager for ten years of the Merchants' Exchange, testified that "they are intelligent, shrewd, courteous, and gentlemanly, honorable in their business transactions"; that he had been "informed by merchants who have had extensive business transactions with them that the usual contracts in writing were unnecessary, their word being a sufficient guarantee for their fulfilment, and in a term of years, in which business to the extent of millions of dollars was transacted, not one cent has been lost by bad faith on their part." Richard G. Sneath, former manager of the Merchants' Exchange, President of a bank, and a merchant for twenty years, said upon this point:

"I have dealt a great deal with the Chinese merchants in this city. I have always found them truthful, honorable, and perfectly reliable in all their business engagements. I have done business with them perhaps to the amount of several millions of dollars. I have never had a single one of them fail to live up to his contracts. I never lost a dollar by them in all my business engagements with them, though we commonly accepted a Chinaman's word as good for a cargo of merchandise, while a written contract was demanded of white men."

So much for the merchants. Now for the laborers. Solomon Heydenfeldt, a resident of California for twenty-seven years, and Associate Justice of the Supreme Court for five years, testified that he considered the Chinese "the best laboring class we have among us; more faithful, more reliable, and more intelligent than an equal number of European immigrants; more industrious than the corresponding class of whites; thoroughly reliable and perfectly faithful to their engagements. Very few of the ordinary laboring class cannot read and write their own language." Herman Heynemann, President of a woollen factory and an employer of Chinese laborers for fifteen years, said: "We have not had a single case before the police court of murder, or rows among themselves, or theft upon the proprietors. I think there are few factories run entirely by white labor that could say as much." Donald McLennan, manager of a woollen mill and employer of 300 Chinese operatives, replied to questions regarding their character: "I never found a case of theft among them. They are a very steady people; I have never seen a drunken Chinaman in my life." Colonel William W. Hollister, one of the largest farmers in the State and a long-time employer of the Chinaman, gave this opinion of him "as a worker and man":

"As a laborer he is most submissive and kindly, ready to do what you want done, with entire good will. He descends to the lowest employments, and, when properly treated, thinks of no degradation in the lowest of labors. As a man I have found him honest, and as a rule very intelligent. Who ever saw a drunken Chinaman? His moral condition is so good that I think out of the whole 400 Chinese population in Santa Barbara there have been but five arrests in the course of a year. Two of them were dismissed: two cases were for petty larceny, stealing vegetables, or something like that, from their own people. I never saw a better population in my life. If the teachings of paganism make honest men, as I find the Chinamen to be, I think seriously of becoming a pagan myself."

As to their sanitary habits, Mr. Coolidge said: "In cleanliness of person they are remarkable. I have observed them closely in their various occupations, and on the streets, and cannot call to mind an instance of dirty face, or hands, or of soiled garments." William F. Babcock, director in a quicksilver mining company, which employed 120 Chinamen, said that "every night of their lives every Chinaman bathes himself from head to foot. If you will look at their hands and feet and necks, you will see them as clean and neat-looking people as you ever saw in the world. They are different from the lower white classes." Dr. Arthur B. Stout, a member of the State Board of Health, whose residence was almost in the Chinese quarter, said that the death-rate was greater among the whites than among the Chinese, although the latter live very closely in their quarter, and he thus accounted for the fact:

"Their frugal life gives them more immunity from disease. They eat only what is necessary to live upon. They eat to live, and do not live to eat. They are clean in their habits, and they drink no whiskey. I have never seen a drunken Chinaman in my life. They consequently obtain a better resisting power to the attack of disease."

Dr. Stout, being asked how the Chinese quarter compared with other parts of the city, replied that the squalor was not much greater, and that the difference was largely due to the fact that less care was taken of the quarter by the city authorities. "I can take you down to the lower part of the city," he told Mr. Morton and the other Congressmen, "and show you much more squalor in the form of neglect, want of drainage, and want of proper care, than you would find in the Chinese quarter. There has been a great exaggeration in all those charges against the Chinese."

Since this testimony was taken the Exclusion Act has been passed, all danger of the Pacific Coast being overrun by the "barbarians" is gone, and the proportion of the Chinese to the whole population is steadily sinking. Why is it that the white population are filled with such hostility against them? This was one of the questions which the Morton Committee repeatedly asked, and two of the answers which they elicited are worth quoting. Said Mr. Babcock:

"I think it arises from politicians, office-holders, and foreigners, as a general thing. Very many of our population pander to this low taste, you may call it, and join in the outcry against the Chinese in order to get the foreign vote and popularity among them. That is my idea."

Mr. Heynemann's notion of the cause was this:

"The same cause that has been prevalent all over the earth—strangeness of manners. It used to be in England that any man who did not speak English was a 'bloody foreigner.' It did not make any difference whether he was the best man in the world, he was a 'bloody foreigner,' and it was the height of contempt to use that expression. If this race, instead of keeping themselves in their peculiar dress, were to drink whiskey and patronize the bar-rooms to-day, just like others do, the prejudice would disappear immediately."

A KETTLE OF FISH.

THREE months ago there was a fisheries question all along the coast from Cape Cod to Eastport. Excited fishermen and their representatives were hurrying to Washington to protest against any negotiations with Great Britain looking to a renewal of any kind of a treaty regarding the fisheries, and gallant Congressmen were passing censure upon Secretary Bayard for the six months' arrangement which he made in the interest of the fishermen last year. Mr. Blaine was not unmindful of his duty to the country at such a crisis; so he published in the *Irish World* a long chapter from his "history" on the subject of the Washington Treaty, showing how completely we were taken in and done for at Halifax, and how, having paid $5,500,000 for fishing privileges, it was the part of wisdom and patriotism not to make use of the thing purchased a moment longer than was absolutely necessary. Mr. Pat Ford was naturally impressed with the statesmanlike tone of the excerpt. Everything betokened a flourishing political issue for the next campaign, grounded upon a tariff on codfish and protection to American labor.

But Mr. Bayard and the other betrayers of their country said, "Very well, have it your own way. If you are satisfied with the Treaty of 1818, so be it." Straightway there fell a calm, and the nation went about its other business, of which it had a plenty, forgetting the fisheries as completely as though there were no such thing in the universe. From the hour that the resolution was reached to let the fishermen and their learned counsel and their daring Senators have their own way, there ceased to be any fisheries question. The fishermen having elected to take their chances of profit under the tariff rather than under a treaty, there was no occasion to lash ourselves into a fury in anticipation of what Canada would do. As for Great Britain, she, too, had other fish to fry, Irish for the most part, and much more costly than any caught on the Grand Banks. Both countries closed the book on the 30th of December, 1885, and went about their greater concerns.

It now turns out that the first step to be taken to go a-fishing at Gloucester, Mass., is to ship a lot of Canadian sailors—this by way of protecting American labor. So the Gloucester captains put into Nova Scotian ports, hire the men, and make ready to take them on board. "No," say the Canadian authorities, "the Treaty of 1818 does not allow you to come here except for water and fuel. Sailors are neither water nor fuel. They are not even American labor. So please take water and fuel and begone." The Gloucester captains take their medicine manfully. They tell the hired men to buy tickets to some American port at their expense and they will call for them. This is one of the new costs of fishing, but no patriot heart will be fired on account of a prohibition against the shipping of foreigners in foreign ports to catch fish under the American flag, and to enjoy the wages due to our enlightened and beneficent tariff.

But the increased cost of fishing does not end here. Bait is one of the things wanted for successful angling on the Grand Banks, and it is obtained best and cheapest by trade with the shore fishermen. It was pointed out that bait was neither fuel nor water, but it was answered that the shore fishermen would paddle their canoes out to the fishing fleet, and do the trading outside the three-mile limit. Now, it appears that the Canucks will not do anything of the sort, and if they would their Government would not let them. At some of the bait-producing stations the shore fishermen have held meetings, and passed resolutions that they will not sell bait to people who tax their fish one cent per pound. Moreover, there is a confounded cruiser sailing along the coast, inspecting the three-mile limit and warning off trespassers. To make matters worse, the Committee of Ways and Means propose to abolish the duties on fish, together with those on salt, lumber, and wool.

The consoling part of the business is that there is no prospect of national irritation growing out of the enforcement of the Treaty of 1818. The fishermen may be put to additional expense by reason of the abrogation of the Washington Treaty, but the public understand that it is their own kettle of fish. They have got their affairs in the shape they wanted. They have flung up their heels at Mr. Bayard. They have got their tariff on fish. The nation has consented to be taxed one cent per pound on its fish-balls for their benefit, and is prepared to see the end of the game with entire good humor. Even the Irish contingent is singularly unmoved by the crisis, being perhaps more interested in Mr. Gladstone's scheme for home rule than in the profits of the fishing season.

THE FOURTH OF MARCH.

Most people suppose that the 4th of March is designated by the Constitution of the United States as the day when every Congress shall end and every new administration begin; many cherish a traditional superstition that it was selected, after much mathematical investigation, because it was found to be the only day in the almanac which on these constitutional quadrennials will never come on Sunday. Few—and they are very few—know that the members of the great convention throughout the 100 days of their stupendous work never so much as gave the 4th of March a thought, and that the Constitution itself is absolutely silent as to the day when Congresses shall expire and the transfer of executive power take place. Why, then, is the 4th of March, which is not named in the Constitution, nor in any statute or resolution of the time, and which was not selected by the men who framed the Constitution—why is it our constitutional inauguration day? And why will an amendment to the Constitution be necessary to substitute another?

The Constitution, which is remarkable for its masterly generalizations and the absence of definitions and details, made no provision whatever for setting the new Government of the United States agoing. The makers, indeed, knew not the year, much less the day or the hour, when it would be adopted by the discordant States. All that they could do was to build the framework of the future Government and leave the rest to the States and the Continental Congress. "The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year"; the President "shall hold his office during the term of four years," are the only provisions which the Constitution contains on the subject. How, then, came the 4th of March to be so important a day in American history?

The Constitution was to take effect so soon as it should be ratified by nine States; and the Continental Congress was charged with the responsibility of inaugurating the infant Government. On the 13th of September, 1788, when Congress convened in New York, it appeared that eleven States had ratified the Constitution. Accordingly the Continental Congress—

> "Resolved, That the *first Wednesday in January* next be the day for appointing electors in the several States which, before the said day, shall have ratified the Constitution; that the *first Wednesday in February* next be the day for the electors to assemble in their respective States and vote for a President; and that the *first Wednesday in March* next be the time, and the present seat of Congress the place, for commencing proceedings under the said Constitution."

The first Wednesday in March chanced to be the 4th!

The first two scenes upon the programme came and went at the appointed times; the electors were chosen and the electors cast the electoral vote; but the first Wednesday of March found only a handful of Senators and Representatives assembled and either house without a quorum. Again and again the two houses adjourned for the want of a quorum; so that it was not until the 6th of April that the electoral vote was counted and the first President found to be unanimously elected. But the city of New York was then the seat of government, and Washington was then at Mount Vernon. It required three weeks to carry the official announcement to Virginia and bring the Chief Magistrate back. And thus it happened that the 30th of April was the day of the first inauguration.

It will be observed that the Constitution said then as it says now, "the President shall hold his office during the term of four years." It did not say that he should hold his office during the term of four years from the day when Congress should be directed to commence proceedings, nor did it even provide that the Congressional term of office and the Presidential term of office should begin on the same day. Yet Washington did not "*hold his office* during the term of four years." His first term was only about three years and ten months. Conceding that the holding of the office could have been in part constructive within the intent of the Constitution, it would nevertheless seem that a strong legal argument might have been made to show that such a constructive holding could not have been carried back further than the day when the vote was counted and the result declared, the 6th of April. We are inclined to think that many modern statesmen—the late Mr. William M. Tweed for example—would have taken that view of the case. We are almost persuaded to believe that when the 4th of March, 1793, came around, Mr. Tweed would have blandly but firmly refused to budge, and would have philosophically inquired what they were going to do about it. Indeed, we do not hesitate to say that his reverence for the Constitution would not even have allowed him to compromise on the 6th of April, but that he would have dispensed offices and patronage unflinchingly until the hour of noon on the 30th. Whether any doubt arose in 1793, and whether the good sense and self-abnegation of Washington settled the matter for the country without discussion, is, so far as our hasty researches go, unwritten history. One thing, however, is certain, that the first inauguration of the President did not take place until the 30th day of April, 1789.

During the last eleven years there have been many centennial celebrations, ranging from the Battle of Lexington to the Evacuation of New York. But one of the most notable, second only to that of the Declaration of Independence, if it be second to any, remains to be celebrated—the centennial of our Constitutional Government. To celebrate it on the 4th of March, 1889, will be to celebrate the fact that but a handful of Senators and Representatives assembled in New York in 1789, and that neither of the houses of Congress had a quorum. The constitutional government of the country certainly did not begin then. It began on Thursday, the 30th of April, 1789, at the moment when Chancellor Livingston, turning from administering the oath of office, proclaimed to the throng of excited citizens below, "Long live George Washington, President of the United States."

It was the remarkable fate of Washington to be foremost in the three great vicissitudes of our national infancy—the war for independence, the construction of a national government, the first administration of our national affairs. The schoolboy knows the fact that he was Commander-in-Chief throughout the Revolution and the first President after the formation of the Federal Government; but men have too often overlooked the fact that the first signature affixed to the Constitution was that of George Washington, President of the Convention. The "first in war, first in peace" of Henry Lee was not florid rhetoric, but philosophical fact.

The approaching centennial of Washington's first inauguration will give the American people a marvellous opportunity to stamp his name afresh on the Constitution which he was foremost in formulating. As every intelligent man knows, the short session of Congress has been the legislative season for the ripening of everything that was evil in our national legislation. The forced adjournment which takes place on every alternate 4th of March is a convenience to nobody; for it is still winter at the seat of government, a most unpropitious time for members to break up household arrangements and travel to distant homes. The inauguration day, moreover, has become a wonderful national holiday, which brings visitors from Maine and New Mexico, from States south of the Potomac and from States west of the Rocky Mountains, and is a matter of interest to every man and woman who can read a newspaper. In a word, sentiment and convenience and common sense unite in approving the Constitutional Amendment which shall substitute the 30th of April for the 4th of March. Its adoption will enable us most fitly to celebrate the great event, and the love and reverence of the American people cannot take better or more practical or more enduring form than by inaugurating the centennial President on the day which witnessed the inauguration of Washington. Their thanks are due to Mr. Winthrop for having brought the idea before Congress in his monument oration, and to Senator Ingalls for having introduced the amendment, and they will watch with some solicitude the action or non-action of Senator Hoar and the Committee on Privileges and Elections, in whose keeping the matter now rests.

THE WARNING OF MR. MANNING'S CASE.

Secretary Manning's break-down from sheer overwork is another solemn and impressive warning of the dangers to which the customs of official life in Washington constantly expose both the Government and the country. We presume nobody heard of Mr. Manning's sudden illness without asking himself whether other officers, and notably the President, were not exposed to a similar calamity through similar causes. The demands which the merely necessary duties of administration now make on the President and the members of the Cabinet are as much as even the most vigorous man, at the age at which men usually reach these positions, can possibly bear. To read all the documents which have to be read, and see all the people who have to be seen, in order to carry on the Government at all, are as much as, and even more than, the average American man, over forty and of strong constitution, is equal to. Our system of vacating offices at the end of four years, or on the incoming of a new Administration, makes of itself a tremendous strain on the strength of the officer who has any share in filling them. In no other Government in the world is any such thing known. No officer as highly placed as the American President is compelled to hold innumerable interviews and read innumerable letters about petty places in the public service. Such cases never come near Mr. Gladstone, or Bismarck, or Grévy, or Freycinet. After the places are filled comes the work of supervision, or, in other words, of seeing that the incumbents do their duty, and getting rid of them if they do not do it. And then there are our relations with foreign Powers and the relations of the Executive with the other branches of the Government to be looked after, and innumerable questions of internal law and police arising under the Constitution and Congressional legislation to be examined and comprehended, even if no immediate action has to be taken on them.

All these things mean constant labor at the desk. All the hours of the day in which any man who means to do his work efficiently ought to work, are insufficient for them, and they involve that most exhausting process for brain and nerves—incessant passage from one subject to another, and incessant efforts to keep hold of widely differing and often complicated details. But Washington traditions add to them another duty which is not administrative but purely social—the duty of gratifying the curiosity of travelling sight-seers. The cheap and easy travelling of our day brings thousands of persons to Washington in the course of the year, some for business, and some for pleasure, and not one of them goes away without what is called "paying his respects" at the White House—that is, shaking hands with the President. This involves for this functionary, we believe, now, two hours a day for three days in the week, in a crowded and ill-ventilated room, and it is performed for the sole purpose of gratifying the curiosity of people who have not the smallest claim on the President's time. He is no more bound to exhibit himself to those who find time and money to go to Washington, than he is bound to travel over the great railroad lines and hold levees at every station. It is all done in obedience to an old feeling that an American President must not be inaccessible to plain people. Against this we have not a word to say if accessibility to sight-seers in Washington does not involve injustice to the rest of the community—that is, does not take away from the nation at large the time and strength for which it pays, and which are its just due. We maintain that it does, and that unless the United States can provide their Government with a stronger and more enduring breed of men than has yet appeared on earth, the demands on the Washington officials will have before long to be thoroughly overhauled and inexorably cut down. The office-seekers and the curious will both have to be sifted, and confined to times and seasons in a way which is now unknown.

What increases the danger is, that only a very small proportion of the men of sedentary occupations in the United States have yet become fully alive to the dangers to health produced by hard work combined with plenty of food and drink, without fresh air and regular exercise. Exercise as a necessity for a sedentary man's existence and efficiency, is, in fact, as yet only recognized by a small body in the large cities. In the country towns, nearly every man's ambition is to be known as a gluttonous worker. What he is most disposed to boast of is his custom of sticking to his desk or store fourteen or fifteen hours a day. When he has passed forty under this régime, and begins to put up masses of soft flesh and consume ice-water by the gallon, the doctors know that trouble is brewing; but as long as he can attend to his business, and cannot afford "to go to Europe," he does not mind what they say, and gradually active exertion in the open air becomes odious to him; so he saunters on through life, until some fine day something snaps in the machinery, and he is put on the list of invalids. In private life there is no help for this, and it is of little consequence to anybody but the man's family or his business partners; but men in public life are responsible for what athletes call their "condition" to the whole people.

THE BERNE INTERNATIONAL-COPYRIGHT CONFERENCE.

The proceedings of the second International Conference at Berne have been published in a folio volume of eighty-one pages, entitled 'Actes de la 2me Conférence internationale pour la protection des œuvres littéraires et artistiques réunie à Berne du 7 au 18 Septembre, 1885.' The title of the first year's volume reads "pour la protection des droits d'auteur," but the French delegates claimed that the expression "des droits d'auteur" had, in France, a special and limited signification, namely, the remuneration due to a dramatic author for the representation of his play, and suggested the use of the words "de la propriété littéraire et artistique" as conveying in French the meaning expressed by the German "Urheberrecht" and the English "copyright." Upon the recommendation of the Swiss delegation, the term used in the title of the volume was adopted, although notice was taken of the fact that it does not exactly express the intention of the Conference, which is not to protect the works, but the authors. This object is more distinctly stated in the amended first article of the final draft convention, which reads, "The contracting countries are constituted into a union for the protection of the rights of authors over their literary and artistic works."

It is of interest to note the progress made towards this union by comparing the representation at this Conference with that at the preceding one. In 1884 thirteen countries, counting Austria-Hungary as one state, were represented by twenty delegates, of which those from four states were not active; but the final protocol, in which the individual delegates recommend that a union be constituted for the protection of the rights of authors, was signed by eighteen delegates, representing eleven states; the two delegates from Paraguay and San Salvador, only, not feeling authorized to sign. The countries conspicuous by their absence were Denmark, Russia, Spain, Portugal, Greece, Rumania, Servia, Turkey, the South American States, and the United States. At the 1885 Conference we find that two states have withdrawn, San Salvador and Austria-Hungary. The first is an unimportant country, and as regards the latter, there is good reason to believe that it will ultimately join the proposed union, such being, at least, the opinion expressed in German publications. This belief may be partially based upon the action of the Austrian Parliament, which has shown advanced views upon the subject of authors' rights by enacting, in April, 1884, a liberal copyright law, granting protection to literary property during the lifetime of the author and fifty years after his death. In place of the two absent states, six additional states were represented, Spain, Italy, Tunis, Honduras, the Argentine Republic, and the United States; the delegates from the two latter countries, however, as well as those from Belgium and Paraguay, being only delegates *ad audien-*

dum. Costa Rica, though having agreed to take part in the Conference, failed to send a delegate. In addition to the gain of active delegations from four new states, the delegates from some of the states formerly represented attended in 1885 with enlarged powers. England, instead of one silent representative, as in 1884, sent two delegates, with full authority to act; and their intelligent participation in the proceedings effected considerable modifications in the final draft of a convention.

The changes induced by the discussions in the Conference of 1885 in the draft convention which it is now proposed to submit as the definitive text of an international treaty during the coming September, were largely verbal, resulting, in most cases, in greater simplicity and directness and consequent clearness of statement. But the part taken in the deliberations by the delegates from the Powers for the first time actively represented, led to important alterations in certain of the articles of convention. The first article has been quoted above. To the second article, which declares that authors of one country are to enjoy for their published or unpublished works in the other countries the rights which the respective laws grant to natives—for a term, however, not exceeding that granted, and only after the accomplishment of the formalities prescribed by law in the country of origin—the important addition was made, at the instance of Mr. Adams, the British delegate, declaring that "the country of origin of the work is that in which the work is first published; or, if such publication takes place simultaneously in several countries of the Union, that one of them in which the shortest term of protection is granted by law." The author's country is considered the country of origin of unpublished works; and, according to article three, the stipulations apply to publishers of works issued in one of the countries of the Union, although the authors belong to a country not a party to the Union. Article four defines the expression "literary and artistic works" to comprehend "every production whatsoever in the literary, scientific, or artistic domain which can be published by any mode of impression or reproduction." The two articles, five and six, relating to translations occasioned considerable discussion. The conclusion arrived at in 1884 was that translations should be protected for ten years after publication, provided the translation was issued within three years from first publication of original work. The present articles grant to authors or their legal representatives the exclusive right of making or authorizing translations for a term of ten years from the publication of the original work, always counting from the last day of the year of publication, after which time the translating right falls into the public domain and the translator cannot oppose the translation of the same work by other writers. During this period authorized translations are protected as original works. As regards the reproduction of articles from newspapers and journals, or of extracts from books, the agreement of 1884 was so loosely worded that it afforded a loophole for wholesale appropriation, and it was therefore recast in 1885, to the effect that such reproduction or translation of extracts from periodicals is allowable unless the authors or publishers have expressly forbidden it. A general prohibition at the beginning of each number is sufficient, but this cannot in any case apply to political articles or news articles; and, according to article eight, "as regards the liberty of extracting portions from literary or artistic works for use in publications destined for educational or scientific purposes, or for chrestomathies, the matter is to be decided by the legislation of the different countries of the Union," or by special treaties. The stipulations of article two apply to the public representation of dramatic or dramatico-musical works, whether published or not; and to the public performance of musical works unpublished, or, if published, when bearing upon the title-page or at the beginning the author's prohibition of performance; and the authors of such works are, during the existence of their ten-years' exclusive right of translation, protected against the unauthorized public representation of translations. According to article ten, adaptations, arrangements of music, etc., are specially included among illicit productions; but it is agreed that in the application of this article "the tribunals of the various countries of the Union will, if there is occasion, conform themselves to the provisions of their respective laws." Article eleven provides that for authors of works protected to be considered as such, it will be sufficient that their names be indicated on the work in the accustomed manner; and, as concerns anonymous and pseudonymous works, the publisher is entitled to protect the rights belonging to, and is without other proof reputed to be the legal representative of, the author. The tribunals may, however, require the production of a certificate from the competent authority to the effect that the formalities prescribed by law in the country of origin have been accomplished. Pirated works may be seized upon importation, conformably to the domestic law of each state.

The remaining articles, thirteen to twenty-one, relate to the convention of union, and may be briefly summarized as providing that the convention applies to all works in which copyright exists in the country of origin at the moment of its coming into force, which is to be three months after the exchange of ratifications; that it may be submitted to revisions in order to introduce amendments; that it shall not affect the maintenance of existing conventions between the contracting states, provided always that such conventions confer upon authors more extended rights than those granted by the Union, or contain stipulations which are not contrary to this convention, and upon the same conditions the countries of the Union may enter into special arrangements with each other; that it does not abridge the rights of each country to control or prohibit the circulation of works in regard to which the exercise of such right is found necessary; and that countries which grant by their domestic law the protection of rights secured by this convention, shall be admitted to accede to it on request to that effect, and shall have the right to accede thereto for their colonies or foreign possessions. The final protocol contains some supplementary stipulations in regard to the admission of photographs and choregraphic works to the benefits of the convention; and also an understanding that "the manufacture and sale of instruments for the mechanical reproduction of musical airs which are copyright, shall not be considered as constituting an infringement of musical copyright." Finally, the protocol arranges for the establishment of the "Office of the International Union for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works," which is to be placed under the authority of the Swiss Government, the expenses of conducting it to be shared by the contracting states in proper proportion. It will be the duty of this office, the official language of which will be French, to collect all kinds of information relative to the protection of the rights of authors, and arrange and publish it; to study questions of general utility likely to be of interest to the Union; and, by the aid of documents placed at its disposal by the different administrations, to edit a periodical in the French language treating questions concerning the Union. An edition in one or more other languages may be authorized if experience should show this to be requisite.

To the foregoing *précis* it should be added that the British Parliament has printed as a blue book, under the heading, 'Switzerland, No. 1' (1886), the "Correspondence respecting the formation of an International Copyright Union." The contents, owing to numerous enclosures, are more varied than the title promises, and possess considerable interest. The correspondence opens with a note from the Consul-General for Switzerland, at London, to Earl Granville, enclosing a circular note from the Swiss Federal Council inviting participation in a diplomatic conference at Berne in 1884, with a view to protecting literary and artistic property. After an exchange of letters between the Foreign Office and the Board of Trade, Mr. Adams, Minister at Berne, was directed to attend the Conference as a British delegate, but in a purely consultative capacity, with no power to vote or to bind his Government to accept any views which might be adopted by the Conference. He seems to have given intelligent hearing to the proceedings, and to have become warmly interested in the international Union proposed. On September 26, 1884, he writes:

"The result of this Conference is, in my opinion, that the Union will be founded. I cannot, of course, surmise how many Powers will sign the first convention. That France and Germany, Sweden and Switzerland will do so, I can hardly doubt. I am aware that, unfortunately, in the present state of our copyright law, Great Britain is unable as yet to enter into any such Union, but I cannot help, with all due deference, urging upon Her Majesty's Government the expediency of taking measures for amending that law. This course, I venture to presume, must ultimately be adopted. Should it not rather be sooner than later?"

On the 9th of May, 1885, in response to a second circular of invitation from the Swiss Government, Mr. Adams was authorized to attend the 1885 Conference, but, as in the preceding year only in a consultative capacity. In July, however, Mr. F. R. Daldy, on behalf of the Copyright Association, accompanied by Mr. Cotter Morison as a representative of the Incorporated Society of Authors, was allowed an interview with Mr. Bourke (who was one of the Copyright Commissioners in 1875), in order to point out the reasons why great importance was attached to England's being allowed to take part in the discussions, and also in order to submit a memorandum of the vital points apparently necessary to secure the efficiency of the convention which, Mr. Daldy thought, would result from these deliberations. The meeting with Messrs. Daldy and Morison evidently produced an effect; and when, August 13, Mr. West, at Washington, telegraphed, in reply to a question from the Marquis of Salisbury, Earl Granville's successor, that the United States Minister at Berne would be appointed United States delegate to the Conference, Mr. Adams received instructions, August 18, that he was authorized to attend, with power to take part in the discussions and to vote, but with the understanding that his part in the proceedings would be *ad referendum*, and that any resolutions arrived at by the Conference would be subject to subsequent approval or rejection by his Government. In the same letter he is instructed to be especially careful to notice and report any views which might be expressed by the United States delegate; and, in accordance with these instructions, the report made, September 25, by the British delegates says: "We have given special attention to the bearing which the draft convention might have upon any negotiations between Great Britain and the United States." The report quotes the statement made by Mr. Winchester as to the position of the United States in regard to the question of international copyright. This statement, which we prefer to give in our own translation, was made by Mr. Winchester in his address before the Conference, Sep-

tember 17. After defining his position and functions as the United States delegate, he says: "Meanwhile, I believe that I do not overstep the limits of my powers in saying that the Government of the United States is favorably disposed towards the principle that the author of a literary or artistic work, whatever be his nationality and whatever the place of production, should be everywhere protected upon the same footing as the citizens or subjects of each nation."

"In view of this statement," the report continues, "we do not think that there can be any ground for the apprehension which has been expressed in some quarters, that an immediate amendment of English law, with the view to the entry of Great Britain into the projected Union, would have a prejudicial effect in regard to any copyright negotiations with the United States. In fact, from the friendly interest in the objects of the Conference which has been expressed by the United States delegate, we are justified in anticipating that when once the Union has been formed, and has been acceded to by the more important European countries, the United States will before long feel it difficult to abstain from becoming a party to it also."

It seems scarcely honest for the Department of State to instruct its delegate to say that this Government believes in the principle that the author should be protected without regard to his nationality or to the place of production, when fifty years of almost continuous efforts in Congress have failed to result in the first step towards the *practice* of such a principle. We might almost suppose that Mr. Winchester's own sense of right and justice had unconsciously led him to misread his instructions here. And in spite of Mr. Adams's seemingly frank acceptance of the statement as showing the true position of the United States in regard to the question, we could almost suspect a covert allusion to the truth when he translates the statement to read, "The United States Government is kindly disposed in *principle* [italics ours] towards the proposition that the author should be protected," etc.

In concluding their report, the British delegates urge the importance of a complete codification and amendment of the copyright law, and point out that if this were done during the present session of Parliament it would enable Great Britain to become one of the original signatory Powers of the convention for the creation of an International-Copyright Union, and it is pleasant to note that the last letter contained in the volume is a communication to the Foreign Office from the Board of Trade, stating that the latter will be prepared to submit to Parliament a bill embodying the necessary changes in the existing copyright law. In addition to the various letters, this volume contains copies of the original draft conventions of the Berne Conferences of 1884 and 1885, with English translations; copies of the various circular notes from the Swiss Government, with translations; and Mr. Daldy's "Scheme of a bill to consolidate and amend the law relating to copyright," which is set out at length.

Correspondence.

SOUTH CAROLINA AND THE BLAIR BILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A friend has just brought to my attention your issues of the 4th, 11th, and 18th inst., in which you have placed me upon the witness-stand in your suit against the Blair bill. As I am now, and have always been, an unfaltering advocate of the policy which that bill seeks to carry out, the use you have made of a sentence taken from my annual report astonishes me and all those who know my pronounced views on the subject. It is said, and with some appearance of truth, that almost any kind of heterodoxy may be fortified by a text from the Bible. You have shown, in the articles indicated, how completely an isolated sentence from a very humble, uninspired production may be made to serve a purpose quite opposed to the one intended.

You quote from my annual report for the school year 1883-84 the following sentence: "In addition to these drawbacks, the discussion of the policy of Federal aid for the suppression of illiteracy revived into active expression all the latent, or hitherto silent, opposition to the common-school system of the State"; and you use it as "emphatic testimony" to fortify your argument against the passage of the Blair bill. While I do not entertain the idea that so respectable and influential a publication as the *Nation* could stoop to a wilful perversion of any statement, yet I think that, in your zeal to make headway in your controversy, you have unintentionally ignored three considerations necessary to a proper interpretation of that sentence. These are: 1st, where the report was written; 2d, to whom it was addressed; and, 3d, the antecedent and related circumstances of the subject-matter.

The system of free public schools in this State was the creation of the Constitution of 1868, and, like that instrument and most of the statutes enacted under it, was received with great disfavor by the white people of the State, on account of the character of the men then controlling public affairs. After the political revolution of 1876, the people began to take increasing interest in the public schools, and the enrolment of children in them grew larger year by year. There remained, nevertheless, quite a number of persons in the State bitterly opposed to the whole system—some on theoretical grounds, and many on the practical fact that they were taxed to educate the non-tax-paying mass of negroes. This opposition had ceased, however, to create much friction in the working of the school system until the discussion of the Blair bill began in Congress. A distinguished representative from this State had spoken in opposition to the bill on the floor of the United States Senate, and his views had been further disseminated by a newspaper interview. At once all the *irreconcilables*, whether occupying the editorial chair of a county newspaper or the dry-goods box in front of the village store, finding themselves in the shadow of a great name, began to rail at the public-school system of the State. To them the Blair bill meant increase of the facilities for public instruction, and to this they were opposed. Their cry was, "The public schools are a nuisance"; "Educate a negro and you spoil a laborer," etc., etc.

Writing the report in this State from an interior view of the condition of things, and addressing the two houses of the General Assembly, every member of which was cognizant of all these circumstances, I used the sentence you quote without the fear, or even the risk, of misinterpretation. Had I been addressing an outside audience, I would have said, "The *opposition* to the policy of Federal aid developed in Congress," etc., etc. Thus interpreted, or thus framed, the sentence will not serve very well the purpose of your argument.

Will you be kind enough to give me the benefit of this explanation, and thus set me *rectus in curia* with your large circle of intelligent readers?

Asbury Coward,
State Supt. of Education, S. C.

Columbia, S. C., March, 1886.

[The fact that Mr. Coward personally favors the Blair bill only lends force to the strong argument which his official report presented against it. We said (March 4) that "the mere talk about Federal aid" had exerted a "disastrous effect" upon the cause of public education in South Carolina, and, as evidence, cited the striking sentence regarding this matter in the Superintendent's report for 1884. Mr. Coward now says that it would have been better if he had framed the sentence differently, and had said that "the opposition to the policy of Federal aid developed in Congress" caused the trouble in South Carolina. But this explanation in no wise affects the lesson to be deduced from the incident. If the measure had never been proposed, no opposition to the policy would have been developed in Congress, and without this opposition in Congress, as Mr. Coward now says, "all the latent or hitherto silent opposition to the common-school system of the State" would not have been "revived into active expression." If there had been no "talk about Federal aid," there would have been no revival of the Bourbon opposition to the public-school system, which opposition, as Mr. Coward confesses, "had ceased to create much friction until the discussion of the Blair bill began in Congress."—Ed. Nation.]

IMPORTATIONS OF CARPET WOOL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In answer to your correspondent about carpet wool and Russian wool in your paper of March 25, we refer to the official reports of direct importations, as made by the Treasury Department. He will find that the imports of carpet wool for the year 1885 were 25,610,177 pounds more than those of 1884; these figures being published in No. 6 of the "Summary Statement of Imports" for each year made for December, 1884, and December, 1885. These are for *calendar* years. The reports for fiscal years, ending June 30 in each case, do not include the great rush of carpet wools coming in since July 1, 1885, although they show a large advance in 1883-4 and 1884-5 over former years. Mr. Bond's figures as quoted are taken *from the warehouse and withdrawal accounts*, and are not the *direct imports*. On the 1st of July, 1885, the stock of carpet wools in bonded warehouse was 11,412,023 pounds, *none of which was included in Bond's figures*. The increase of carpet wool imported in 1885 over 1884 was more than 50 per cent., as follows:

1884, calendar year	47,672,926 pounds.
1885, " "	73,283,103 "
Increase (53 72-100 per cent)	25,610,177 "

For the fiscal years 1883-4 and 1884-5 the direct imports were:

1883-4	52,761,170 pounds,	value $6,559,762
1884-5	56,339,530 "	" 5,947,495

In both cases the increase was great over 1882-3, in which only 40,130,322 pounds were imported, and the last half of the year 1885 brought the largest importation and more than twice as much as in any former half year—making the quantity for the whole year 1885 73,283,103 pounds, or fully twice as much as in any year previous to 1882. Does not this amply prove the asserted increase in carpet-wool importations? The official reports of the Treasury Department also show that the imports of carpet wool from Russia were five times as great in the fiscal years 1884-5 as they were in 1879-80, and 30 per cent. greater in the last year, 1884-5, than they were in 1883-4, as follows:

1879-80	3,322,700 pounds.	Value, $375,053.
1880-81	4,400,151 pounds.	Value, 631,316.
1881-82	10,933,587 pounds.	Value, 1,465,765.
1882-83	12,569,523 pounds.	Value, 1,647,468.
1883-84	12,588,840 pounds.	Value, 1,422,020.
1884-85	16,151,392 pounds.	Value, 1,614,962.

Very respectfully,

James W. M. Newlin.
Dallas Sanders.

New York, March 29, 1886.

FIAT JUSTITIA!

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Can you spare me room for a not unimportant question?

Heartily desirous of justice for Ireland, and for Britain also, I would ask if it will be just to tax the already overtaxed and overlandlorded laborers of England and Scotland, employed and unemployed, in order to purchase the land of Ireland for Irish farmers. I say farmers, not seeing very clearly how the Irish laborer is to be benefited by the transaction. W. J. Linton.

New Haven, Conn., March 22, 1886.

[We admit that the question is a difficult one. The arguments in favor of the purchase are, first, that the purchase money would be a sort of commutation of the annual expense of protecting the landlords against the peasantry, who hate them, and resist distraint and eviction at their hands. The expense is very heavy, but the English public has for eighty-five years maintained that it was legitimate and in some measure beneficial to the empire.

The second argument is, that the Irish system of land tenure would undoubtedly have been profoundly modified a century ago if the landlords had had to rely on their own strength or skill in dealing with the tenantry—that is, if the Irish had been an independent community. In other words, rackrenting without making improvements on the soil, and tenancy at will, would have disappeared either through a revolution or through fear of a revolution. The Irish landlords, as a class, have, in other words, been defended in the exercise of the powers which have brought on the present crisis for two hundred years by British troops, and have been so defended, for the last forty years, in the teeth of a full exposure of the system by an English Government inquiry, through a Commission known as the Devon Commission, which ought to have brought, but apparently did not bring, a full knowledge of it home to the English public. In fact, we think it would be hard to find in political history a stronger moral claim for compensation than that which the Irish landlords have on the English taxpayers. It is much stronger than that of the West India slaveholders.—Ed. Nation.]

A LITERARY COINCIDENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "**," in his letter on "A Literary Coincidence" in the *Nation* of March 25, in quoting from Mr. Lowell's article on Gray, published in the *New Princeton Review* for March, and from Mr. Harrison's newly published book, overlooks the fact that Mr. Harrison's book mainly consists of essays republished from the English magazines. The first sentence he quotes originally appeared in the *Nineteenth Century* for March, 1883, the second in the *Fortnightly Review* for April, 1882, and the third in the *Fortnightly Review* for April, 1879. So that, whatever importance may attach to the fact, the priority of publication lies in favor of Mr. Harrison. D. H.

Washington, D. C., March 26, 1886.

JOHN HARVARD AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I see by Mr. Rendle's letter, printed in the last number of the *Nation*, that he has forwarded to you twelve copies of his Harvard pamphlet for distribution among "thinking representative persons." I take the liberty to send you the same number of copies of Mr. Waters's pamphlet, 'John Harvard and His Ancestry,' and also of a reprint from the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for January, 1886, of Mr. Hassam's article on the subject, a part of which was also printed in the London *Athenæum* of January 2, 1886. If you will kindly distribute them among the recipients of the other pamphlet, they will readily see how shadowy is the claim which Mr. Rendle puts forward, and how much the antiquarian world owes to Mr. Waters for so successfully solving this intricate genealogical problem.—Truly yours,

The Editor of The Register.

Boston, March 27, 1886.

AN EMENDATION OF "MACBETH."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A passage in "Macbeth," act iv, sc. i, ll. 93-100, runs in our text (I adopt Dyce's reading):

> "Sweet bodements! Good!
> Rebellion's head, rise never, till the wood
> Of Birnam rise, and our high-placed Macbeth
> Shall live the lease of nature, pay his breath
> To time and mortal custom."

It cannot be denied that the passage, as it stands, makes a strange impression, so that Fleay and other critics with him believe it to be an interpolation by a foreign hand. Various emendations have been tried, but not satisfactorily. I think the difficulty may be set aside by a slight alteration, which with all humility I submit herewith to the judgment of more competent Shakspere students. I read:

> "Rebellion's head, rise never, till the wood
> Of Birnam rise, and *on's high place* Macbeth
> Shall live," etc.

—'on's' standing for 'on his.' The meaning would be: "These are sweet bodements you give me; for if rebellion's head does not rise until Birnam wood rises, then Macbeth may on his high place, the throne, live the lease of nature," etc. But in spite of all these attempts at easing his troubled mind, he cannot get rid of that horrid thought of *Banquo's* issue filling his place one day. Therefore he adds:

> "Yet my heart
> Throbs to know one thing," etc.

Taken thus, our vexed passage is perfectly in keeping with that which precedes it and with that which follows, and the whole gives good sense.

Theodor Marx.

Speyer, Germany, March 8, 1886.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. have in press a translation of Octavo Feuillet's 'La Morte,' made by Mr. J. Henry Hager.

Henry George & Co., 16 Astor Place, New York, will publish on April 1 a work by the senior partner in the firm, called 'Protection or Free Trade,' an examination of the tariff question (with special regard to the interests of labor), of which the bias is not in favor of protection.

Miss E. P. Peabody's 'Lectures to Kindergartners' is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce for immediate publication an abridgment of Kent's 'Commentaries,' edited by Eben Francis Thompson.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will publish an historical story, 'The Captain of the Janizaries,' by James L. Ludlow; 'A Ranchman's Stories,' by Howard Seely; and two new volumes in their series of "Tales from Many Sources."

President Porter's work on Kant's 'Ethics' is now in type, and will be published directly by S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago. They announce, also, 'Geological Studies,' by Prof. Alexander Winchell; and 'Solar Heat, Gravitation, and Sun Spots,' by an anonymous author.

Mr. Austin Dobson has just completed his biography of Richard Steele, and it will soon appear as one of the volumes in the series of "English Worthies," which Mr. Andrew Lang is editing.

Mr. Lewis Carroll, the author of 'Alice in Wonderland,' has republished in a volume entitled 'A Tangled Tale' a series of ten papers, which originally appeared in the *Monthly Packet*, an English periodical. The title is somewhat misleading. There is no "tale" running through the book. It is composed of ten chapters, which are called "knots," and the only bond of connection between them is the reappearance of the same persons. Each "knot" represents some of these persons in a situation which gives an opportunity for the introduction of one or more problems or puzzles of a mathematical or quasi-mathematical nature, of which the reader is supposed to attempt the solution after having exercised his ingenuity in making out what the problem in each case really is. Exactly one-half the volume is occupied by an appendix containing a formal statement of each problem, the answer to it, a statement of the best manner of solving it, remarks and criticisms in regard to the various solutions sent in under assumed names at the time of the original publication of the "knots," and a classification in the order of merit of the names of those who succeeded in giving correct answers. Some of the problems are purely mathematical, and are to be solved by applying the principles and processes of some branch of mathematics, as arithmetic or algebra. Others are mere quibbles or "catches." There is throughout the book a desperate attempt at humor, resulting, as violent efforts at humor generally do, in producing an impression of heaviness and clumsiness. In fact, had it not been for the reputation achieved by Mr. Carroll in his 'Alice' books, we suspect this one would have been left to sleep quietly in the columns of the *Monthly Packet*. The publishers (Macmillan & Co.) have done certainly quite as much as the book deserved to render it attractive. We would, however, warn Mr. Carroll against the dangers of living too long on his acquired capital.

Mr. Morley's 'Diderot,' in two volumes, which closes the series embracing his 'Voltaire' and 'Rousseau,' has now appeared in the beautiful uniform edition undertaken by Macmillan & Co. Nothing has been added to the preface and note of 1878, so that evidently Mr. Morley is unaware of a discussion in the *Nation*, vol. xxvii, pp. 285, 398, which traced almost to its origin the famous speech of Polly Baker attributed to Franklin. It is a small matter, yet Raynal should stand excused for having borrowed in good faith from the *Gentleman's Magazine* the classical specimen of American humor which had imposed on the English editor (first of a long line of victims).

Mr. Theodore Roosevelt's 'Hunting Trips of a Ranchman' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) was essentially a popular work, yet the expensiveness of the first edition put it hopelessly beyond the reach of those whose purses were not long. The publishers have therefore done well to bring it out anew in a cheaper style and form, retaining the woodcuts, but omitting the etchings. An explanatory note referring to the previous edition might have been expected, since etchings are mentioned in Mr. Roosevelt's preface, and may perplex the librarian and bibliographer whose duty it is to know and define a perfect copy.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. send us two seasonable quarto volumes—'The Blessed Easter-Tide,' and 'An Easter Song,' by Robert Hall Baynes. The first consists of appropriate passages from

the Scripture narrative, and numerous well-chosen and familiar hymns by authors ancient and modern. Mechanically considered it is conceived and executed in delicate taste. The companion volume adds one more to the dismal failures to substitute fancy lettering for type, and the illustrations are ineffably weak. That one firm should put its imprint on two such examples of how to do and how not to do, passes comprehension.

'The Correspondent,' by James Wood Davidson (D. Appleton & Co.), while it gives the ordinary business forms and habits of letter-writing which one would learn in a counting-room, occupies nearly all of its one hundred pages with directions how to address and to subscribe epistles to titled individuals who, by virtue of birth, custom, or office, have claim to ceremony in approach or withdrawal, from the attorney to the Emperor and the Pope. For the public this knowledge is, generally speaking, superfluous, and its painful setting forth with elaborate distinctions is amusing. Notwithstanding democracy, etiquette survives here in a thousand shades, answering the thousand ways in which man may be more than man, but for the most part, we observe, in English society and the Catholic Church. The little book is innocent enough, but we are constrained to call it misleading in title; for if the matter relating to Scotch aldermen, Earls' sons, English mayors, Sisters of Charity, Dominican monks, monsignors, cardinals, abbesses, kings, queens, and archdeacons, and a hundred or two other functionaries with whom most Americans have no occasion to correspond, were left out, there would be little left except the boards and the preface. The American schoolboy—much more the citizen—may safely be taught mere respectful courtesy, and left to decide for himself between "humbly" and "respectfully," and, though a Catholic, may hesitate to subscribe himself "your subject" to any archeminence whatever.

Miss Margaret Lonsdale, whose 'Sister Dora' was so well received, has published a little review of George Eliot's 'Life' ('George Eliot: Thoughts upon Her Life, Her Books, and Herself,' Scribner & Welford), which is a magazine article in the form of a book, and is entitled to no more attention because it has covers. The hour has gone by when any one without genius can detain the public with criticism of so bewritten a subject.

Nos. 6–9 of Cassell's diminutive "National Library," edited by Prof. Henry Morley, include "The Rivals" and the "School for Scandal"; 'Sermons on the Card,' by Hugh Latimer; Plutarch's lives of Alexander and Cæsar; and Horace Walpole's 'Castle of Otranto.'

Lippincott's Magazine for April introduces what it calls "Our Experience Meetings"—"a sort of public confessional for prominent men and women, of all callings and classes, who feel autobiographically disposed." But we doubt if the new *Forum* have not priority of patent in this device.

The *Rhode Island Historical Magazine* for January (No. 3 of vol. 6) is a full and interesting number, containing the usual genealogical miscellany, and also two reprints of rare publications—one of a chapter from Arthur Brown's sketch of America (1798), the other of Henry Bull's "Memoirs of Rhode Island" (1832-8), with additions and corrections. This last will run through several numbers.

The April number of the *New York Genealogical and Biographical Record* has sketches and portraits of the two Vanderbilts, and of the late Dr. Franklin B. Hough; and portraits of Gen. J. G. Wilson, President of the society whose organ the *Record* is, and of Col. Henry Rutgers—the former in connection with his inaugural address, and the latter in illustration of a paper on the Rutgers family.

The *Library Journal* has opened a bulletin of duplicates for exchange or sale, and books wanted, which is not confined either to librarians (who, however, started the idea) or to subscribers to the *Library Journal*. Yet these, we may hope, will be increased by it.

Science for March 26 accompanies a review of Commander Wyse's 'Le Canal de Panama' with a reproduction of his map of the isthmus, which will be found extremely useful for present and future reference.

M. Georges d'Heylli, who has already published half-a-dozen books about the Comédie-Française, its members and its doings, has now prepared a little monograph on the labors of Mme. Madeleine Brohan (Paris: Tresse & Stock; New York: F. W. Christern). Mme. Brohan, after "creating" the character of the quick-witted and plain-spoken old dowager in M. Pailleron's charming "Monde où l'on s'ennuie," with broad comic effect and humorous subtlety, has now gone on the retired list. M. d'Heylli sketches her career and gives a complete list of her parts. The pamphlet is illustrated by an excellent portrait, etched by M. Lalauze, and by the facsimile of an autograph letter.

Lest some unwary American reader may be tempted to order M. Auguste Baluffe's temptingly named 'Molière Inconnu,' it may be well to quote from the latest number of the *Moliériste* the opinion of its editor that M. Baluffe's book is absolutely worthless, and filled with fantastic and wilful mistakes. The best recent life of Molière in French is that which formed the first volume of M. Louis Moland's new edition of the great dramatist's works—an edition now complete, and likely to remain without a rival until we get the final volume in M. Regnier's incomparable series justly called "Les Grands Écrivains de la France" (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern).

The letters of M. G. de Molinari to the *Journal des Débats*, written during his third visit to America last summer, have been collected under the title: 'Au Canada et aux Montagnes Rocheuses' (Paris: Reinwald; New York: Christern). The writer has filled out his volume with the letters he wrote to the same journal from Russia in 1882, and from Corsica in 1884. The special occasion of his last journey was the excursion on the new direct line of steamers between France and Canada which the author was invited to join. M. Molinari indulges in the usual chat of newspaper correspondents, with a tendency to touch upon economic and social questions natural enough in the chief editor of the *Journal des Économistes*. He has an avowed sympathy for Riel, and during the whole course of his wanderings he takes every opportunity to urge the advantages of free trade.

The publishers Lecène & Oudin (Paris) have begun a series entitled 'Classiques Populaires,' of which two, 'La Fontaine' and 'Corneille,' both edited by Émile Faguet, have been published. They announce as in preparation 'Victor Hugo' and 'Chateaubriand' by M. Ernest Dupuy, and 'Racine' and 'Lamartine' by M. Jules Lemaitre. The two volumes already issued recount simply the lives of the authors, taking up their principal works, which are analyzed, and from which numerous quotations are given. The volume on La Fontaine selects about sixty of the fables, with a running comment sufficient to give a fair idea of the author. The series, though designed for the young, should find favor with older readers who desire to form or to renew an acquaintance with the chief French classics.

Liberal Germany, through the voice of its ever youthful-hearted poet, Friedrich Bodenstedt, and others, paid a well-merited tribute of respect to the memory of Otto von Corvin (Corvin-Wiersbitzki), at his funeral in Wiesbaden, on the 5th of March. Among German workers and sufferers for the ideas of 1848 he was one of the most courageous and truest. As a journalist and popular historical writer he held an honorable rank, in spite of extreme radicalism and propagandist proclivities. Born in East Prussia, in 1812, he received a military education, and became a lieutenant in the Prussian army, but early left the service and devoted himself to literature. He joined the poet Herwegh, in the spring of 1848, in the rash attempt to republicanize Germany through an invasion of Baden, from France, by a motley band of volunteers. In 1849, during the republican rising in that Grand Duchy which followed the breaking up of the Frankfort Parliament, he was chief of staff of the revolutionary forces in the fortress of Rastatt, down to its surrender to the Prince of Prussia, the present Emperor William. He was sentenced to death by a military tribunal, but the sentence was commuted, and he escaped with six years' close confinement in Bruchsal. On his release from prison he went to London, and in 1861 to Washington, as war correspondent of the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung*, a position which he held to the end of our civil conflict. During the Franco-German war he was employed in the same capacity by the *Neue Freie Presse* of Vienna. Among the more interesting of his writings are 'Illustrirte Weltgeschichte' (written jointly with Held; 4 vols., 1844-51), 'Erinnerungen aus meinem Leben' (4 vols., 1861), 'Geschichte der Neuzeit' (3 vols., 1882-3), and 'Aus dem Zellengefängniss' (1884).

One of our readers in Virginia writes us, apropos of the discussion over the Resolutions of '98, as follows: "*W. C.* Nicholas was Governor of Virginia during the war of 1812. It was his brother George who moved to Kentucky and was prominent in the politics of that State, as another brother, John, was in the State of New York. They were sons of Robert Carter Nicholas, the last Colonial Treasurer and the first Treasurer of the Commonwealth."

By the gift of a generous friend of that institution, the trustees of Smith College, Northampton, will erect this summer an astronomical observatory, the chief instruments of which will be a four-inch meridian circle and an equatorial telescope of eleven inches aperture. The glass for the latter is mounted in the cell by the Clarks, and the construction of the mechanical portions of the telescope, as well as the dome to cover it, is intrusted to a firm in Cleveland well known for its successes in such works. The equipment of the observatory will be well represented in special apparatus, including spectroscopic appliances and arrangements for prosecuting research in astronomical photography. The outfit of the large telescope will be unusually rich in those accessories which facilitate the work of the observer, some of these having been specially planned for this instrument. The specifications of the new observatory and its equipment have been prepared by Professor Todd, of Amherst, and the work on the building and instruments is now in progress.

—The *Atlantic* for April is really distinguished among magazines by having no article that is not interesting. One cuts the leaves to find on every page agreeable and varied reading, and passes with delightful ease across those little thresholds of poetry, so brief that one skips over them almost without knowing it. The freshest topic is "Gouverneur Morris." Mr. Lodge writes a charming study of that brilliant man, whose figure is so exceptional among our Revolutionary patriots because of his humor and satire and worldly penetration; and makes the most of his subject by bringing out this social and modern side of him

with only incidental allusion to his political services. The contrast Gouverneur Morris affords to the Frenchmen he counselled on the eve of the Terror, is very effective in enforcing on the mind the divergence between '76 in America and '89 in Paris. The singular felicity of Morris's political prophecies, his remarkable position as an adviser of the King's friends, and his peculiar literary touch, give uniqueness to his whole character. The article on the "Reformation of Charity," which pleads for societies whose business it shall be to apply only intellect in the way of alms, provokes comment; but we pass it to call attention to Julian Hawthorne's analysis of the 'Scarlet Letter,' which instructs us in the difference between the stories that are made and those that are born. It is significant, for example, that, while we find ourselves differing from him, it is in the region of life and not of art construction. In fact, one cannot analyze any work of creative imagination without discussing in the end our mortality; while in the case of the ordinary realistic novel, one may despatch its art without the least necessity of going outside the domain of literary mechanics.

—It may be observed by any constant reader of the magazines that they have their fixed phases in the annual round, like society; and *Harper's*, which we noted last month as unloading itself and leaving the heavy furniture behind, fairly opens the summer season with its current number, and begins three new serials in fiction, by Warner, Blackmore, and "the author of John Halifax, Gentleman." Indeed, in Mr. Warner's story it almost cheats us into believing for a half-hour that we are enjoying the pleasant March climate of Old Point, where the "watering-place season" begins, at least for Northerners. It seems a strange experiment that the writer has undertaken—to give us an *amour de voyage* among the resorts of fashion; and one is interested to see whether the sketches of the traveller or those of the social humorist or those of the story-teller will prevail, or whether the whole will get inextricably mixed. To judge by the first long instalment, the localities and not the characters are most in the writer's eye—the society fills a larger place than the lovers. Old Point and Atlantic City are effectively drawn, the artist's sketches helping by their truthfulness and representative quality; but with the Ohio business man, the under-bred wife, the gentle and self-possessed daughter, the unchanging young man of the period, we are tediously acquainted already, and through the caravansaries of new paint, rough boards, staring advertisements, and all that, North and South—what a journey is before them! Nothing less than Mr. Warner's unfailing and unperturbed humor could diffuse entertainment over such scenes and persons, "weary stale, flat, and unprofitable," as is the quotation itself.

—The Concord Lectures, 1885, on Goethe have been (with some few exceptions) reprinted in book form by Ticknor & Co., Boston. The contents of the volume are as diversified as the characters of the members of the school. They offer not a little information—some of it rather desultory—and numerous apt criticisms and suggestions. Emerson's influence still shows itself, as might be expected. Prof. White's paper on "Goethe's Youth" is a careful résumé. Mrs. Sherman's, on "Child Life as Portrayed by Goethe," is sympathetic. Mrs. Julia Ward Howe writes on "Goethe's Women" with a frankness and a sound justice that are positively refreshing. Mr. F. B. Sanborn's view of "Goethe's Relation to English Literature" is a proper one, yet we could have wished for greater fulness of facts. The Rev. Dr. Bartol, in his comparison of Goethe and Schiller, is scarcely just to the latter. His tone is too harsh. As for the more philosophic articles by Thomas Davidson, D. J. Snider, and W. T Harris, we shall not attempt to combat them, neither shall we accept them unqualifiedly. They seem to us to put into Goethe a more systematic philosophy than he himself was aware of. First, last, and at all times, Goethe was a poet and a man of the world: to lose sight of this primal fact for a single moment is to be in danger of critical astigmatism.

—The mention of Goethe leads us to speak of a work which should have been discussed long ere this. In 1874 Karl Engel brought out his 'Bibliotheca Faustiana,' which was for its day an admirable survey of the subject. It has now reappeared as a practically new work, under the title, 'Zusammenstellung der Faust-Schriften vom 16. Jahrhundert bis Mitte 1884' (Oldenburg: Schulze [Schwarz]. 1885). We can give our readers only an approximate idea of the richness of its contents. In 718 pages no less than 2,713 titles of books, pamphlets, magazine articles, plastic or pictorial illustrations, musical compositions, and the like are cited and often discussed at some length. One has to be blessed with polyglottic gifts to read all these titles in their original tongues. At any rate, one can now see for himself what a wonderful part the *Faustsage* has played in European thought. Naturally the most interesting sections are the first, second, fifth, and seventh. The first, entitled "Geschichte, Sammelwerke, und Allgemeines," contains 206 numbers, beginning with Johann Tritheim's 'Epistles,' 1536, and ending with Zahn's 'Cyprian von Antiochien und die deutsche Faustsage,' 1882. Tritheim's 'Epistles' being now excessively rare, Engel has quoted entire the letter dated August 20, 1507, memorable for being the first known mention of "Magister Georgius Sabellicus, Faustus iunior, fons necromanticorum," etc. Those who wish to get a "realistic" sense *à la* Zola of the moral character of the historic Faust will read the last paragraph. Section second, "Volksbücher," has 88 numbers, beginning with the famous *princeps historia* of Spies, Frankfort, 1587, and ending with Simrock's and Noeggerath's reconstructions, 1877 and 1882. Section fifth, "Bühnenstücke," brings before us the playbills of the eighteenth century, the puppet-plays, Marlowe's 'Faustus,' and the Faustian ballets and pantomimes. Section seventh deals with Goethe's 'Faust' in all its shapes, early and late, translations, adaptations, commentaries, etc., 667 numbers, with four pages of lecture courses delivered between 1851-1883 at the German universities and schools. Section tenth, "Tondichtungen," is scarcely less interesting, with its 253 numbers. Not the least valuable part of the work is its index of names and anonyma. In short, this remodelled 'Bibliotheca Faustiana' is an honor to its compiler and to Germany. No earnest devotee of the subject can afford to be without it.

—In speaking last week of the English scheme of Latin pronunciation, as ventilated in the London *Academy*, we forgot to mention that our copy went down with the *Oregon*, but floated up later. This we interpret as an omen of the buoyancy and irrepressible character of the cause: "plunged in the depths, it comes out fairer still," *merses profundo, pulchrior euenit.* The scheme has been very promptly followed up by a letter from Professor Roby, who approves of the method in general, but does not speak in very buoyant terms about its adoption: "It will, I hope, lead to a reform in practice." Mr. Roby then asks some pertinent questions, for the details of which the inquisitive are referred to his letter in the *Academy* of March 13. One point, however, we note, as coinciding exactly with what we named last week as an imperfection in the scheme—the vague way in which quantity is referred to: "Again, I do not know how much is intended to be implied by the committee's selection of *sĕcta, rēctus, tĕctus*, as instances of the Roman [Latin?] pronunciation of vowels before two consonants." Surely something more explicit is desired here. In passing, we may remark that many, perhaps most, of the American colleges have abandoned oral examinations for admission, and substituted paper work. The result is a very slovenly and slipshod pronunciation of Latin. On this point the temperate but decided words of Ritschl may be quoted: "The salvation of the world does not depend on these things; but decently, or not at all: *aber ordentlich! oder gar nicht.*"

—The Treasury Commission for investigating the Coast Survey have addressed a communication to the Secretary of the Treasury in which they say: "In the light of the demonstrated inaccuracy of some of the evidence upon which the Committee relied, and to the extent hereinbefore indicated, it is but just to admit that the criticism of Mr. C. S. Peirce in the Committee's report was unwarranted by the facts." It is understood to be admitted that Mr. Peirce's expenditures were overstated and his work undervalued. The only criticism the Committee continue to maintain is, that he practically conducted his operations as he saw fit. His work has been done under detailed instructions issued by the Superintendent of the Survey, and these instructions have been based upon projects which Mr. Peirce was required to submit each season. We will only add that this finding is what every one acquainted with Mr. Peirce must have expected as the result of a calm and unprejudiced examination.

—French sympathies regarding the minor nations of eastern Europe have of late been showing a strong leaning toward the Slavic side, chiefly to the disadvantage of Magyars and Greeks. Panslavism threatens Germany and her ally, Austria-Hungary: it is but natural that it should be favorably viewed by French writers. Its strongest opponents north of the Balkans are the Hungarians, and south of that range the Greeks. M. Louis Leger, Professor of Slavic Languages at the Collège de France, is probably the most diligent exponent of pro-Slavic sentiments in his country. Of his numerous writings we may mention 'Le Monde Slave' (1873), 'Études Slaves' (1875), 'Histoire de l'Autriche-Hongrie' (1878), 'Nouvelles Études Slaves' (1880), 'La Save, le Danube et le Balkan' (1884), and his latest publication, 'La Bulgarie' (1885). M. Leger's knowledge of Slavic things is both extensive and sound, being based in part on personal observation and connections. His friendly bias, however, colors almost every page of his books. The last named, which contains mainly literary sketches—though it requires a flight of the imagination to discover matter for both a "Renaissance littéraire des Bulgares" and a "Littérature bulgare contemporaine"—naturally applauds the union of the two Bulgarias effected by the revolution, or *coup d'état*, of September 18, 1885, but abstains from alluding to the leading actors in that lively little drama. It eulogizes the political abilities of the Bulgarians—a nation which played so conspicuous a part in the history of southeastern Europe in the earlier periods of the Middle Ages, but, after the Ottoman advance, almost disappeared as an ethnic individuality from the scene of history, and as late as sixty years ago (before the Russian armies crossed the Balkans under Diebitsch) was unknown as a people to the greatest writers on the Slavic past and present, such as Kopitar, Dobrovsky, and Schafarik. M. Leger deplores Servia's blindness and

selfish action, but puts the guilt of her hostility to Bulgaria on Austro-Hungarian shoulders. Greece he treats in a less friendly spirit than Turkey herself.

MAINE'S POPULAR GOVERNMENT.—II.

Popular Government: Four Essays. By Sir Henry Sumner Maine. London: John Murray; New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1885.

One source of Maine's power must be obvious to any man endowed with the slightest taste for letters. The author of 'Ancient Law' possesses a more perfect literary style than any living English writer. The very perfection of his mastery, not only of language but of statement—there are writers, like Froude, for instance, who have an admirable command of words and yet cannot state facts or arguments with clearness—is the only thing which ever makes the world forget the admirable quality of Maine's style. It has no affectations; it has no unevenness; it has no dryness; it has no hardness. The words used seem the most natural means for conveying the thoughts or suggestions of the writer. Readers feel as if they knew at once what the author meant, and yet they are not oppressed with that sense of emphatic and irritating clearness which is as trying to human patience and temper as is verbosity or obscurity. The opening pages of 'Popular Government' supply as good a specimen of Maine's literary skill as can be found in his writings. He starts from the text that "the blindness of the privileged classes in France to the Revolution which was about to overwhelm them, furnishes some of the best-worn commonplaces of modern history"; he shows how untenable is the idea, based on our subsequent knowledge, that the French *noblesse* displayed any extraordinary want of foresight, and ends by leading us up to the conclusion that future historians may wonder as much over the blindness of the unprivileged classes in England as we are accustomed to wonder at the blindness exhibited by the privileged nobility of France. Now the point for notice is, for our purpose, not the truth or the untruth of this conclusion, but the wonderful and perfectly legitimate art with which Maine leads his disciples up to the point of view from which he wishes them to contemplate democratic government. Not a word is wasted, no direct appeal is made to argument; but intelligent readers have hardly read through a third of our author's first essay before they are made to realize the uncertainty of all political dogmas, and to feel that our present faith in democracy may be as misplaced as was the easy confidence of the French nobility, who, in the firm belief that they were advancing towards a political millennium, followed the path which suddenly led them into the midst of the Reign of Terror. Our teacher, like an even greater master of style, winds into his subject "like a serpent," and leads his pupils on to the conclusions at which he wishes them to arrive by a process of literary persuasion. He does not irritate his readers by arguing them out of their opinions; he does not offend them by the explanatory condescension of professorial exposition. He rather encourages them to follow out the train of thoughts which naturally come into their minds. Thus his pupils feel, not that they have been converted from dogmatic radicalism by Sir Henry Maine, but that he has revealed to them the fact of their and his conversion.

This command of style is no light matter, for it is command of rhetoric, and good rhetoric means insight into human nature. But gifts of style would not be sufficient to account for the way in which Maine wins over educated men to sympathy with new and (in the case of his last book) unwelcome conclusions. Sir Henry Maine, besides his rhetorical facility, possesses two noteworthy talents, which would be of themselves almost sufficient to explain his literary success. He has, in the first place, the keenest eye for the striking and interesting sides of any subject which he has in hand. This is the quality which gives the extraordinary merit to his 'Ancient Law.' Much of it refers to matters which, though in 1861 they were novelties to Englishmen, had long been discussed on the Continent. But our author gave new life to old topics by omitting unnecessary details and tedious discussions, and dwelling exclusively on the important and general inferences suggested by the history of Roman law. It is preëminently characteristic of this mode of treatment that Sir Henry Maine rarely if ever cites authorities. We do not ourselves censure this omission of references, though it is not without its evils: we call attention to it simply as a trait characteristic of a teacher who makes it his object—and the aim is in itself a perfectly legitimate one—not so much to convey information as to arouse public attention to new ideas. Details are out of place when the object of the painter is to impress the imagination with the large outlines of his subject.

Sir Henry Maine possesses, in the second place, inexhaustible suggestiveness. It would be hard to draw from any of his works, and certainly from his last publication, a list of definite principles which he systematically defends. In this respect he is utterly unlike reasoners such as Mr. Justice Stephen, the late Mr. Greg, or John Mill. Sir Henry Maine can argue, and argue in his way with great force; but he is hardly an argumentative writer in the sense in which this term can be applied to these three distinguished authors. He does not rely for the effect which he produces so much on systematic reasoning as on the force of statement and suggestion. The result is, that while no one can read 'Popular Government' without feeling, and in our judgment justly feeling, that his faith in democratic institutions, though it may not be overthrown, has received a shock, yet none but the most skilful controversialists would be able to put in a fair and quite accurate form the propositions which the treatise is meant to enforce. Propositions are from their nature definite assertions. But the strength of the attack on "popular government"—the expression itself, by the way, is a very vague one—lies not in definite assertions, but in impressive suggestions. What, for example, is the exact lesson to be drawn from the violent ends of many Mexican Presidents, is not perhaps quite easy to state; but the fact that the democracy of Mexico has not produced either order or liberty certainly gives rise to reflections not favorable to popular government. Now to a generation whose taste is repelled by the formalism or pedantry of set argument, or whose indolence dislikes the trouble of systematic reasoning, nothing is more charming than the substitution of suggestions for direct appeals to the understanding. Sir Henry Maine, in short, by his literary brilliancy, by his breadth of view, by his infinitive suggestiveness, exactly meets the taste of the time. His writings correspond with the spirit of the age, and therefore exert immense and in many respects quite legitimate influence.

It is far easier to note the causes than to determine the probable permanence of Sir Henry Maine's influence. Whoever appreciates our author's rare intellectual gifts, and notes the great extent to which literary immortality is due to style, will be inclined to augur that Maine's 'Ancient Law' will take its place among books which have become classics, such, for example, as are Bacon's 'Essays,' Hobbes's 'Leviathan,' Burke's 'Thoughts on the Cause of the Present Discontent in England,' and Montesquieu's 'Esprit des Lois' in France. But when one comes to consider the merits no less than the demerits of Maine's 'Popular Government,' it is impossible not to entertain a doubt how far it will share the fortune of his first and, in our judgment, his best book. The immediate effect produced by the four essays which make up the treatise on popular government is, as the warmest of our author's admirers will admit, due in great measure to the circumstances of the day. The work gives adequate expression to a very peculiar phase of English sentiment. The well-to-do classes in England are not inspired by any hatred of democracy; the lapse of nearly a century has extinguished the anti-Jacobin enthusiasm roused by the horrors of the Revolution. The immense stability exhibited by the structure of English society has impressed upon the mass of educated Englishmen the conviction that political changes produce, if much less good, yet also infinitely less evil, than is conventionally ascribed to them. The governing classes in the country, therefore, have acquiesced in the establishment of democratic institutions; but acquiescence is different from enthusiasm, and it may be doubted whether any generation ever expected less from political innovations than do Englishmen of the year 1886. A fact, moreover, is just at this moment becoming apparent to ordinary politicians which has long been known to thinkers—namely, that the spirit of popular government is not easy to reconcile with the spirit and the exigencies of British imperialism. The time is one marked, to use a word of Maine's own, by disillusionment. 'Popular Government' gives exact expression to this feeling; its drift is, that democracy is a mere form of government, and a form which, like other schemes of polity, may pass away. While it exists, our true wisdom is, our teacher suggests, to make the best of a somewhat indifferent piece of political mechanism. The lesson may be sound or unsound; but, whatever be its intrinsic merits, it singularly suits the prevalent temper of the nation and the class to which it is addressed. This peculiarity, while it contributes immensely to the immediate success of Sir Henry Maine's latest work, is, to say the least, of bad omen for its lasting reputation. A book suggested by temporary causes may indeed have in it elements of permanent vitality. Malthus was roused to write on population in the main (it would appear) from a desire to outargue his father, and to confute the author on whose teaching his father's convictions mainly depended; yet his treatise has influenced the whole current of political and even of moral speculation. The fallacies of 'Political Justice' are forgotten, while the 'Treatise on Population,' if it ever goes out of human memory, will perish only because its essential doctrines have been embraced in the wider principles of Darwinism.

If we seek for the reason of this vitality, we shall find it in the fact that, if the occasion which gave rise to the essay on population was temporary, the author's speculative genius led him to pursue a line of disinterested thought and careful research. Contrast the fate of Malthus on 'Population' with Burke's celebrated 'Letters on a Regicide Peace.' They sounded through Europe like the blast of a trumpet: they summoned hosts to arms; they contained, moreover, a mass of criticism on the Revolution which, one-sided as it is, turns out also to be, as far as it goes, so true that the last historian of the Revolution might be described as a collector of *pièces justificatives* for the invective of Burke. Yet for all this the celebrated 'Letters' are dead; they are read, if at all, for their rhetorical power and not for their substance. The reason of this is obvious. Burke's 'Letters' have every merit but one: the virtue which they lack is the virtue of intellectual disinterestedness. They were composed for a purpose, they attained their ob-

ject; but the qualities which led to an immediate and splendid triumph were, from their nature, fatal to permanent and enduring influence. And what is true in the highest degree of Burke's celebrated 'Letters' is true, though in a less degree, of every word that he wrote or spoke. The necessities of the politician biassed the work of the philosophical theorist, and that judgment of the world which in the long run is unerring, has refused to accept political partisanship for philosophic speculation.

This want of absolute disinterestedness is, from the political habits of Englishmen, the special weakness of English thinkers. But it also infects the writings of foreigners and of men endowed with judgments calmer than the passionate intellect of Burke. Montesquieu's 'Esprit des Lois' teems with acute reflections. De Tocqueville was felt, and rightly felt by the generation whom he addressed, to be the most original thinker of his day. Yet each of these writers is felt by every careful student to be lacking in absolute intellectual disinterestedness. Montesquieu may write about England, China, or Japan—his eye is always fixed upon France; the real object of his work is to detect or censure the defects of the French monarchy. De Tocqueville appeared to himself and to his friends to be the impartial critic of democratic government, but his analysis of 'Democracy in America' is nothing else than a criticism of tendencies, most of which he disliked, in the political and social habits of Frenchmen. Both his great works breathe the spirit of the period in which they were composed. Every word of the 'Ancien Régime' is unconsciously influenced by the author's feeling with regard to the Empire. Of course, in the case of De Tocqueville as of Montesquieu, of whom he is in some sense the follower, the genius of the writer has produced thoughts of permanent value which mankind will hardly let die. But these thoughts will generally be found to be the speculations which had least to do with the immediate wants of the age in which they were produced. Immortal thoughts, like immortal acts, are always disinterested. Now the question which suggests itself to even the most admiring critics of Maine's 'Popular Government' is whether, with all its merits, it contains enough disinterested thought to keep it alive when the sentiment of 1886 has given place to some other form of feeling. That it has some such elements we do not dispute, but it is, both for good and bad, more of a political pamphlet than a speculative treatise. The author may urge that he wrote with the patriotic aim of resisting prevalent delusions. So be it. This aim has been, and no doubt will be, to a great extent, attained; but our cordial admiration for Sir Henry Maine's works inspires us with some regret that the rarest powers of expression and of thought should be employed in the partisan warfare of the moment. Hundreds will read 'Popular Government' who will not care to study 'Ancient Law.' But to students Maine's great work will still remain his 'Ancient Law.'

WALDSTEIN'S ART OF PHIDIAS.

Essays on the Art of Pheidias. By Charles Waldstein, M.A., Director of the Fitzwilliam Museum and Reader of Classical Archæology in the University of Cambridge; Ph.D. Heidelberg; M.A. Columbia College, N. Y. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: The Century Co. 1885.

It is not quite clear for what class of readers Mr. Waldstein's book is intended. It deals partly with the rudimentary generalities of artistic criticism, and in part with such archæological minutiæ as are usually welcome only to the special student—a discrepancy which is perhaps due to first publishing in the *Century* some of the essays which are now collected, while others were written for strictly technical readers. The book has an air of looking both ways, and carries off this rather difficult attitude as well, perhaps, as is practicable. The essays which make the body of the work are a connected series, discussing Phidias and the sculpture of the Parthenon. The author's method, as he tells us, "consists in leading to the ultimate result of a general and complete knowledge of the subject as a whole; but the fixing of this knowledge in the mind of the reader is effected by means of a continuous series of separate investigations, arranged in a methodical manner so as to enter into every special question and still to cover the whole ground of inquiry." One of his purposes, professed in the Note to the American Edition, is to make clear to his countrymen the modern aims and methods of archæological study; and no better exponent of them could offer. After an introductory essay on the study of classical archæology, the next, on the spirit of the art of Phidias, is followed by a series of discussions of the Parthenon sculptures in series—the metopes, the pediments, the frieze, the Athena Parthenos; and the subject is closed by another general essay on the influence of the school of Phidias upon his followers. Four other essays, on kindred subjects, are reprinted from scientific journals in the form of an appendix.

Mr. Waldstein lays emphasis on the application to his studies of the comparative method, distinguished from the examination of records; that is, by comparison of the works of art themselves, by tracing from one to another the peculiarities of artist and school. The reader may admire the disciplined keenness with which attitudes, proportions, details of the human figure or of drapery, tricks of workmanship, are recognized and followed as characteristic of this or that sculptor or school; the minuteness and the cogency with which reasoning based on these leads from one identification to another, the lights that cross and recross between this line of investigation and the parallel study of texts and inscriptions. Doubtless indifferent readers may be led by the charm of Mr. Waldstein's enthusiasm and the story of his researches to an interest in subjects which were before dull to them, and to new respect for the powers and equipment of mind which they presuppose. The *points de repère* by which Mr. Waldstein lays out his discussions are naturally in most cases the identifications and discoveries to which his own independent study has been turned. Thus the salient topic in the essay on the metopes is his identification of a head, which had lain undistinguished in the Louvre, as that of a Lapith in one of the metopes in the British Museum. This is an archæological find of value and a credit to Mr. Waldstein's knowledge and acuteness. (The Centaur's head, here attached to the same metope, but assigned by Michaelis to another, does not to us look at home in its position in the illustration.) So the burden of the essays on the pediment sculpture is the identification of a fragment which the author distinguished in the Museum of the Ducal Palace at Venice, and the establishing of certain personifications among the figures, which he works out with great ingenuity and abundant parallel examples. Mr. Waldstein follows Brunn in his theory of landscape personification. He agrees with him in considering the figure most commonly known as Theseus to be a personification of Mount Olympus, on whose summit the gods met to witness the birth of Athena. This figure occupied the left-hand corner of the eastern pediment, next the extreme angle where the horses which are universally accounted those of Helios are rising out of the sea. Mr. Waldstein adds the plausible theory that the two reclining female figures at the other end of the pediment, next the descending group of Selene, personify Thalassa in the lap of Gaia. We will not venture into the perils of these questions further than to recognize the force of Mr. Waldstein's citations in favor of this personification of the sea, which is perhaps the most important of his identifications, and the plausibility of his reasonings from analogy. It is noteworthy that though this figure was named Thalassa by Weber as long ago as 1822, none of the later authorities have followed him, and that it was left for Mr. Waldstein, in view of its inseparability from the adjoining figure, to name the two together the Sea and the Land.

In his discussion of the frieze of the cella of the Parthenon, from which the chief part of the Elgin marbles is taken, Mr. Waldstein brings to the front the fragment of a terracotta slab which he discovered a while ago among some unregarded fragments in the Louvre, as those will remember who read the article in the *Century* which here makes the sixth essay. It is an evidence of Mr. Waldstein's quickness and sureness of eye that he at once picked out this bit of terracotta, valuable because it contains in perfect condition the head of Athena (mutilated in the marble), although it had long lain unrecognized under the eyes of its keepers at the Louvre. The artistic quality and the appearance of this relief, which is a third as large in scale as the frieze, were such that Mr. Waldstein, discussing its relation to the marble original, conceived the startling theory that it was not only a genuine antique, but an actual model made by Phidias himself for the marble cutters. Further search showed him another terracotta fragment in the Kircherian Museum at Rome which exactly joined and completed that of the Louvre, while in the Museum at Copenhagen was a third fragment, noted by Petersen, which contained the next adjoining figure of the frieze, and corresponded entirely to the other two. But presently Mr. Waldstein found in Mr. Simmons's studio at Rome a series of plaster casts, much fuller, and containing the subjects of the terracotta slabs. These had come from the collection of the sculptor Tenerani; but neither plasters nor terracottas could be traced far back. Comparison showed them to be duplicates, allowing for the difference of material, but the terracottas were smaller in just the proportion in which they should have shrunk in firing if made from the same mould as the plaster. The plasters, then, could not possibly have been taken from the terracottas, but must either be their parents or children of a common parentage. This seems to us fatal to the antiquity of the terracottas, yet to Mr. Waldstein still "the view which presents the fewest serious difficulties is that the plaques are genuine antiques."

Here is a cue to what are, in our judgment, the shortcomings of Mr. Waldstein's book. With evident desire to argue his propositions fairly and state his cases evenly, he is possessed by his enthusiasms. While these make his discussion interesting and persuasive, they lead him to a positiveness in details which savors of overstatement and lends an ex-parte color to his arguments. This may not offend the general reader, who likes an animated discussion, but it spurs the student to question and dissent. Generalizations and inferences which a cautious writer would be careful to give as probabilities only, are put without hesitation or qualification in a way to easily mislead the trusting inquirer, and even the ordinary reader may be a little shaken when he reads such a passage as this description of the eastern pediment: "Hephaistos has just dealt the blow, and the virgin goddess [Athena], fully armed, swinging her spear, stands before her father, the king of the gods, and the assembled deities, and all are wrapped in wonderment. Hera and Poseidon, Apollo and Artemis, Aphro-

dite and Ares, Dionysus and Hermes, all are there. . . . Selene turns back to give one more look over the sea and land to the heights" —he may be a little shaken, we say, at the thought that the whole centre of the scene has been missing for centuries, and never recorded; that the virgin goddess, the king of the gods, Hera, Poseidon, Apollo, Artemis, Aphrodite, Ares, Dionysus, and Hermes are conspicuously absent, and Hephaistos and Selene only presumably represented by two limbless, headless trunks dug up from the ground below. This, it is true, is not archæology—it is only a peroration; but it is said without qualification, and the same unguarded manner runs through much of the author's argumentation, leading him at times to support even a plausible thesis by arguments which almost discredit it.

A like want of reserve, it seems to us, makes the point of view from which Mr. Waldstein looks at his subject insecure. The worship of Phidias among students of Greek art is probably as thoroughly justified as any hero-worship. We grant him to have been the greatest of sculptors. But every such cult is apt to lead its devotees to ascribe actions to their heroes simply for lack of another claimant. The time of Phidias was clearly a time of transition in art. It was also a time of unusual activity and fecundity, in which the producers as well as the works must have been very numerous. It would seem as if under Pericles's reconstructions all the energy of Athens went into its building; as in Boston and Chicago after their great fires. We are told that Phidias was his commissioner of works, and that he had the oversight of all the artists and workmen with whom Athens swarmed. We are told nothing of his labor upon any of the great buildings which went on at that time, except that it was he who wrought (ἐργάζετο) the chryselephantine statue of Athena, the Parthenos, which stood in the Parthenon, and signed his name to it. But the sculpture of the Parthenon alone included two huge pediments, each a hundred feet wide, crowded with colossal statues of men and horses; ninety-two metopes containing each two figures, or more, under life size, but practically sculptured in the round; a frieze covered with some four hundred figures in relief and a crowd of horses. The Parthenon, the Propylæa, the Odeum, the temple of the Dioscuri, that at Eleusis, all went on under their several architects, and Plutarch says that the most wonderful thing of all was the rapidity of their building. It is difficult to see how the man who had the oversight of the whole could design in detail the decoration of any, least of all a building so enormously elaborate as the Parthenon, while the chryselephantine colossus alone might well have given him two or three years of work.

But it is a habit among archæologists to hold him responsible for all the sculpture of the Parthenon. Mr. Waldstein's book ascribes everything to him. Not only the general iconography of the Parthenon is his, the schemes of composition, the distribution of figures; not only the carrying out of the most important groups is controlled by his supervision, but, in the design of the individual figures the character of heads, the modelling of limbs, the very folds of draperies are his, and even the peculiarities of handicraft in the cutting of the reliefs are idiosyncrasies of Phidias. Among the sculptures of the Parthenon there are considerable differences of style, especially among the metopes, where some show distinct traces of archaism, and others are advanced in style. In these differences Mr. Waldstein sees indications of the personal growth of Phidias, his rapid advance from early imperfection to perfect skill, and the same thing in less degree in the two pediments. But Phidias was presumably at the height of his fame when Pericles put him in authority, and had made himself famous by a great number of important public works, which imply fully developed powers: to assume that he got his schooling among the metopes of the Parthenon, executed as they must have been by many hands and in a wonderfully short time—that is, in great part simultaneously —seems to us very venturesome. Students of the history of art know that in periods of transition great disparities of style are found among artists who have worked side by side. In the thirteenth century, where the record is clearer and the chronology surer, at a period very analogous in its rapidity of development to the time of Phidias, we find convincing examples. We see among the churches of the Isle of France, for instance, ranges of carved capitals which must be contemporaneous, yet show the differences of style that mark successive generations. The conclusion is that they were cut by carvers of different habit —that men who held to an old manner worked side by side with others who were full of a new spirit. The examples are too common to be overlooked, and the analogy in the Parthenon is obvious. In Mr. Waldstein's discussions the vision of Phidias overshadows everything else, and leaves no room for any design, any initiative, any style, any idiosyncrasies but his. This is not going so far as another authority we have met, who ascribes even the architecture of the Parthenon to Phidias, and leaves Ictinus and Callicrates in the cold; but it seems to us going too far. It will be safer to assume that Phidias had under him men who, if less famous, stood as near to him as Giulio Romano to Raphael, or Sebastiano del Piombo to Michael Angelo. But we are only told that certain individual figures in Del Piombo's compositions were actually sketched by Michael Angelo, and it is even known that he gave their combined work a coloring which Michael Angelo could not have furnished. On the other hand, to furnish the model for a single sculptured figure involves more labor than to sketch scores of figures for another's painting.

To see only Phidias in all the sculpture of the Periclean period greatly simplifies the *coup d'œil*, but is likely to be misleading. It were well to study the whole question from a more impersonal point of view, and we may more reasonably say that to our sight Phidias is only a name for a particular phase of a nation's art. If there is homogeneity in the work, it argues homogeneity among the artists: where there are differences, we find what we had a right to expect. What we have sufficient authority for attributing to Phidias is represented to our eyes only by two rude statuettes which imitate the Parthenos, the stamps on various coins, and far-off echoes in the design of a number of statues of later periods. That his reputation entirely overshadowed his fellow-sculptors we have evidence in the works of late writers both Greek and Roman. But how much he had to do with the decoration of the Parthenon is a question of pure conjecture; for while we are told that he made the Athena of gold and ivory within it, and while a score of his other works are described or particularized by various writers, we find no witness of his connection with the work on the Parthenon itself.

Mr. Waldstein discusses at some length the puzzling group in the middle of the eastern end of the frieze. Adopting and improving on a suggestion of Mr. A. S. Murray, he calls attention to the quasi-perspective in the treatment of the frieze, and holds that the figures which, in the middle, break the assembly of the gods, represent a recessed group. They are seen through the gap between the gods, who are separated into two divisions, looking opposite ways towards the two arms of the procession which approach from the north and south sides of the cella. For this view he argues with much clearness and probability. The action of the central group, thus reduced to secondary importance, he holds, with Flasch, to represent the priest preparing for the ceremony, and not, as has been commonly taken for granted, the consecration of the peplos of Athena. To part of his discussion of the frieze we must decidedly take exception. It has been a standing paradox that this enormously elaborate frieze, sculptured with a delicacy and refinement which have been the wonder of later ages, should be set at a height of forty feet, under a narrow portico which cut off all light but what was reflected from below, and is so narrow that the spectator cannot get ten feet away from the foot of the wall which carries the frieze. The false and inadequate lighting must have thrown the modelling into confusion even if the figures were detached from the ground and each other by positive colors: the extreme obliquity of view would have ruined the contours even of a painting in flat tints. Mr. Waldstein cannot accept what seems to us the inevitable. He argues at length and with much minuteness to prove that Phidias took careful account of these disadvantages, and with wonderful technical skill and by the idiosyncrasies of his relief work overcame them and made his sculpture clear to the spectator. The peculiarities of treatment which he cites in support of his position are not idiosyncrasies of Phidias, we think, but have been the common property of skilful carvers of reliefs at all times, most of them having birth in other technical necessities than those to which he ascribes them. That whoever cut the Parthenon frieze used, as a matter of course, the technical precautions which have been common in other finished schools for treatment of reliefs above the eye, and which presumably were so in Phidias's time, we can easily believe; but we cannot believe that they hoped to overcome the peculiar difficulties of the situation. As the frieze is now set in the British Museum, nearly on the level of the eye, it is seen as it never was by Phidias's countrymen. Whoever will take the trouble, as we have done, to study a full-sized cast from the frieze high above the eye at an angle of fifteen degrees with its plane, will soon convince himself that to expect to cure its obliquity by the delicate devices cited by Mr. Waldstein was hardly more hopeful than to mend a broken leg with glue. He will probably decide that Phidias was not the blunderer that Mr. Waldstein's argument would make him out to be, and will prefer to think that the sculptors of the Parthenon, just as in the pediment they carved the unseen side of the Theseus (or Olympus) as delicately as the visible, found their satisfaction in doing their work on the frieze as well as they could do it, rather than in its effect to the eye below.

The application of the comparative method to the study of ancient art, of which Mr. Waldstein's book is an exposition, opens out many lines of investigation to which there is no guide in the study of records. Identifications, the tracing of connections, sequences, developments, become possible beyond the rigid boundaries of documentary evidence. Its processes are naturally more interesting than the sifting of texts, and their results more enticing. It is more attractive to trace the draperies of Phidias or the lines of Praxiteles in the work of other sculptors than to verify texts, or to classify inscriptions by the form of an S and the termination of a genitive. But it is also more hazardous. Conclusions so reached are not so convincingly proved. Observers differ much more in their perceptions of artistic qualities than of dialectic or epigraphic forms. To distinguish securely the technical idiosyncrasies of a particular artist is a problem of elimination which calls for not only a knowledge of the master himself, but familiarity with

the general stock of technical expedients. Nothing is easier than to strain beyond their significance the details of artistic treatment or of subtle interpretations. We think we see an instance of this in Mr. Waldstein's minute discussion of the drapery of the two figures above mentioned as Thalassa and Gaia. Safety lies only in a wide induction. Critics of art are constantly assigning subtle esoteric meanings to things which are simply matters of artistic effect or technical processes; and it is not given to every investigator to add to the trained scholarship of the archæologist an eye so open and so sympathetic to the artist's means of expression as Dr. Waldstein's.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Rachel. By Nina H. Kennard. (Famous Women Series). Boston: Roberts Bros.

Adelaide Neilson: A Souvenir. By Laura C. Holloway. Funk & Wagnalls.

The Art of the Stage, as set out in Lamb's Dramatic Essays, with a Commentary. By Percy Fitzgerald, M.A., F.S.A. London: Remington & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford.

La Femme du Comique. Par L. P. Laforêt. Paris: Giraud; New York: F. W. Christern.

Les Hommes-Phénomènes. Par Guyot-Daubes. Paris: Masson; New York: F. W. Christern.

THERE was already a shelf-full of books and pamphlets about Rachel—Jules Janin's 'Rachel et la Tragédie'; Mme. de Bury's slightly hostile biography; Beauvallet's 'Rachel en Amérique,' which contains hardly a word of praise for anything American, except for the acting of Mr. William Warren, the Boston comedian; and the collection of correspondence by M. George d'Heylli. This latest attempt at a biography is by an English lady, Mrs. Kennard, who succeeds in giving a distinct and accurate impression of the woman, although she fails in the far more difficult task of setting before us the genius of the actress. We are told repeatedly in these pages that Rachel was a great actress, and evidence is adduced to show that she was regarded as such by the leading contemporary critics and by the wide play-going public. But Mrs. Kennard does not explain to us how she was great, wherein her genius was triumphant over obstacles, or wherein it was aided by the restrictions of French tragedy. It would be interesting to have considered why it was that Rachel was greatest in Racine and Corneille, and why she failed in the few romantic parts she attempted and in all the modern plays written for her, excepting only the classic "Moineau de Lesbie" and the skilfully arranged "Adrienne Lecouvreur." As to the height of her histrionic power, and as to its well-defined limits, the student will get a better idea from Lewes's brief chapter than from Mrs. Kennard's whole book, although the latter abounds in information not without interest. That Rachel was the greatest actress who ever lived—with the possible exception of Mrs. Siddons—seems to us indisputable; and it is a pity that there should not be a biography of her in which the mere facts of her career might be subordinated to a consideration of her artistic development. Mrs. Kennard's book is good enough as far as unessentials are concerned; it might have been well to quote Legouvé's curious account of Rachel's rejection of "Adrienne Lecouvreur" when Scribe read the play to her, and her acceptance of it when he (Legouvé) read the part *at* her; but in general our authoress has been very diligent in collecting suitable material from the many memoirs and pamphlets of the time. It is a pity that her knowledge of the history of the French stage is not equal to her industry and her zeal. For instance, although Mlle. Mars was elected an associate of the Comédie-Française in 1799, it is scarcely exact to speak "of the grace and beauty that enchanted the France of the latter end of the preceding century," for it was not until after 1800 that Mlle. Mars came before the public in a new character of any special importance. There are also not a few unfortunate misprints, *clique* for *claque*, Rancourt for Raucourt, Bohan for Brohan, Baptiste Aimé for *aîné*, "Vendéene" for "Vendéenne," etc. And there is no index.

With all its faults Mrs. Kennard's 'Rachel' is immensely superior to Mrs. Holloway's 'Adelaide Neilson.' In a way one may venture to see a certain likeness in character and in career between Rachel, who was a genius, and Neilson, who was a beauty. Rachel, indeed, had beauty only in so far as her genius gave it to her; and Adelaide Neilson had genius only in so far as beauty is genius. They were both successful and miserable women; and they both were wanting in the chief virtue of woman. Mrs. Kennard honestly and briefly gives the facts about the dark stain on Rachel's character, without dwelling on the matter either prudishly or pruriently; she handles a delicate subject with delicacy and frankness. Mrs. Holloway chooses to be blind to what is notorious in Neilson's career, while yet hinting at "slanderous enemies," "the storms of a wayward and passionate youth," and so on. In the main, Mrs. Holloway's book is a medley of rambling rhapsody and second-hand gossip. There is nowhere any connected account of Neilson's theatrical career, or any serious attempt to estimate her histrionic ability. Such value as this "souvenir" may have is due wholly to the eight photographs of the actress, four of them as *Juliet*—undoubtedly her best part, for beauty is the stage *Juliet's* chiefest requisite—and others of *Pauline*, *Cymbeline*, and *Viola*.

Mr. Percy Fitzgerald is one of the most careless of theatrical biographers: his 'Life of Garrick,' for instance, is a model of what a histrionic memoir should not be, and his 'Lives of the Kembles' is little, if any, better. But he is well read in the history of the stage, he has studied the good critics, and he has laid hold of not a little sound doctrine. From Charles Lamb he has learned most; and, despite his fondness for paradox, Lamb was one of the very best critics of the acted drama. Mr. Fitzgerald has now brought together in one volume Lamb's various dramatic essays, accompanying them with a Comment of his own, in which he seeks to apply Lamb's principles to the contemporary English stage. In England, far more than here or in France, there is a frequent effort to put "the real thing" on the stage—an effort doomed to inevitable failure. Real pumps, real horses, and real cabs, or elaborately "built-up" houses, have nothing whatever to do with the drama. A realistic imitation of nature—instead of an artistic suggestion—is directly contrary to the *optique du théâtre*. Lowell said that Wordsworth was constantly mistaking fact, which chokes the muse, for truth, which is the breath of her nostrils; and M. Zola in his preaching, and many an English manager in his practice, is constantly making Wordsworth's mistake without Wordsworth's excuse. Mr. Fitzgerald's use of Lamb's sharp pen to combat this delusion is most welcome.

Despite the prefatory letter of M. Émile Augier, which led us to expect a serious study from life, M. Laforêt's novel, 'La Femme du Comique,' is of very little value, and is not to be included among the really good stories of French theatrical life, of which M. Jules Claretie's 'Troisième Dessous' (notwithstanding its inordinate length), M. Edgar Monteil's 'Cornebois,' and M. Cadol's 'Rose' remain the best.

About ten years ago M. Gaston Escudier published a picturesque and interesting volume on 'Les Saltimbanques.' It was written from the literary, not to say journalistic, point of view, and was a clever piece of descriptive work. Now M. Guyot-Daubes, in his 'Hommes-Phénomènes,' approaches the subject from the scientific side, and is quite as entertaining. His book belongs to the "Bibliothèque de *la Nature*"; and in it he considers at length and in turn the feats of the professional strong man, of runners (omitting all mention of the anomalous go-as-you-please contests, now happily obsolescent), of leapers, of swimmers and divers, of acrobats and contortionists, of jugglers and sword-swallowers, and of sharpshooters. It is highly amusing, by the way, to note that his authority for the skill of marksmanship supposed to exist among the hunters of Kentucky is Audubon: we cannot help wondering whether the French author really supposes that there has been no change in the half-century or more since Audubon wrote. It is some sop to our national vanity to see that the sharpshooter whose feats seem to be best known to M. Guyot-Daubes is Mr. Ira-Païne, performing in Paris not long ago in some Parisian modification of the American "variety show." Among the most entertaining of M. Guyot-Daubes's always entertaining pages are those discussing the great gifts of the Japanese acrobats and equilibrists; but his observations are not final. A treatise on Japanese gymnastics by an expert is as much to be desired as a treatise on Indian conjuring by an expert: both subjects are little understood.

Flying Leaves from East and West. By Emily Pfeiffer. Scribner & Welford. 1885.

THE author of this volume, although a poetess, was wiser than the sibyl, and carefully consigned her vagrant screeds to the safe custody of the mail-bag. It is difficult to make out whether the little chapters are passages from a note-book, or letters home, or public correspondence. They have the characteristics of all three kinds of fragmentary compositions—now discursive, and now intimate, and again streaked with that sort of social philosophy which takes itself seriously only in London papers. There are a few of these "leaves" from Asia Minor, each prettily pictorial with gardens, and divans, and harems, and decayed palaces, and brides, and eunuchs; but nearly all are from the West—our own country and Canada. The traveller made what she calls "the round trip" from New York by the Canadian cities to Chicago, and thence to California and back to St. Louis and Washington, winding up with Boston. The time, however, was short, and really sufficed only for a view of the celebrated points, and such a surface glimpse of the people as an intelligent and interested tourist would satisfy himself with in any country. With the foreigners' America, as one may call it, from the elephant on Coney Island to the seals in the Golden Horn, she became acquainted speedily. Our hotels, Saratoga, Niagara, Chicago shops, Colorado coloring, the Mormons, the Chinese, the Yosemite, the President's reception (where she marked a lack of the royal art of being bored with ease), and the Boston literary tea-party, make up the great field of her observation. The description of these things would not detain the native reader were it not for the very pleasant style of the narrative, and especially the philosophizing in regard to democracy. In fact, the author did see one bit of our people at the house of a relative, a Wisconsin farmer, and the account of her visit there lies in her pages like a little German pastoral. That she found very charming, but with democracy elsewhere she cannot make any effectual acquaintance. She says frankly she does not like it. It seemed to her that women are not helped in public places as they should be by male strangers; it is an inference

from her own experience, but she admits as a qualifying circumstance that she was attended by her husband. The great rock of offence is the impossibility of obtaining properly subordinate domestic servants, a vice inherent in democracy, from the full disastrous effects of which we are saved for a time by the great boon of the negroes. This cause of dissatisfaction, however, is hardly less than the foreboding of a lost and lonely feeling in not knowing just where she belonged in a society without fixed external distinctions of place and respect.

Altogether, there is a good deal of frank criticism of the social phase of democracy from the standpoint of an Englishwoman of comfortable position. There is, too, a wide reach of knowledge and generalization that is seldom found in books of this sort. The Turkish harem and the Mormon household suggest equally delicate questions, which are discussed with more innocence than reserve. The notes show that the author was one of the victims of last summer's London sensation; and from their confiding faith in the exposure it would be an easy inference that this cultivated and refined poetess might find more useful and pleasant subjects for public reflection than the "artificial prudential check" and like topics of occult science. The temper of the book is very cordial to America, and if the writer did not go back a convert, she certainly went as a friend.

The Journal Intime of Henri Frédéric Amiel. Translated, with an Introduction, by Mrs. Humphrey Ward. Macmillan.

THERE would be little need to say anything of this book after the extended reviews, both French and English, which appeared upon its first publication, were it not that the present translation will introduce it to a new circle of readers. Mrs. Ward says very justly, in her preface, that there are many persons, not ignorant of French, who still have not the power to understand and appreciate the subtle and complicated expressions of such a book. She has done her work most admirably. In spite of the modesty of her acknowledgments of the help of friends, especially of M. E. Scherer, himself no ordinary English scholar, it is evident that her mastery over both French and English is thorough and complete. So choice a piece of work rarely appears in England. She had not only to render smoothly the descriptions and comments upon daily life, to give the point and sparkle of the epigrams which often sum up Amiel's literary judgments, but she had the difficult task of making clear the abstruse philosophical speculations which were almost his passion. So perfectly has she done it all that almost never is the thought of a translation suggested.

Amiel was born of an old Languedoc family, emigrants to Geneva after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Early orphaned, a small inheritance enabled him to pursue at ease a wide and prolonged course of study in various places, though most importantly at Berlin. Returning to Geneva in 1849, he was appointed, at the age of twenty-eight, Professor of Æsthetics in the Academy, and a little later Professor of Moral Philosophy. To his friends the future seemed all his own. Unfortunately this very success proved a disaster, for it involved him in political relationships which, absolutely without fault or agency of his own, alienated him from what was most cultivated, most attractive, and most congenial to him in the society of Geneva. This being thrown back upon himself increased a natural tendency to inaction, a shrinking from practical exertion, which, gaining as years went on, made his life a disappointment to his friends and a bitter, hopeless regret to himself. The different elements of character which led to so sad a result Mrs. Ward has carefully studied in an introduction which will interest even those who have seen the French articles upon the 'Journal.' It was the sole confidant of the lonely thinker, and, like a faithful friend, it now repays his trust by revealing to those who ignored or doubted him the manner of man he really was. Its frank independence has brought upon it some strict judgments (notably in a late number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*). Paris is not over-willing to hear criticism from Geneva. Amiel himself knew the risk. "Geneva should be to *la Grande Nation* what Diogenes was to Alexander: her rôle is to represent the independent thought and the free speech which is not dazzled by prestige and does not blink the truth. It is true that the rôle is an ungrateful one, that it lends itself to sarcasm and misrepresentation—but what of that?"

The notes on French character are singularly valuable, for Amiel is by blood a thorough Frenchman, yet his German studies and associations gave him an outside point of view. The two pages on Rousseau as "the ancestor of many things" and as "the point of departure" for Chateaubriand, sum up a long literary history. Again and again a single phrase, like a vivid flash, reveals a trait in some author, or the essential quality of a book. "A chronicler may be able to correct Tacitus, but Tacitus survives the chroniclers." "There is not a single echo of chivalry in La Fontaine. For him, the history of France dates from Louis XIV. . . . His defects are eclipsed by his immense variety of different attitudes." "Greek sculpture was Goethe's school of virtue. Completely lacking as he is in the sense of obligation and of sin, he nevertheless finds his way to seriousness through dignity." "In Renan there are still some remains of saintly *ruse*. He strangles with sacred cords." "Schopenhauer professes Buddhism in the full flow of modern Germany, and absolute detachment of mind in the very midst of the nineteenth-century orgie." "Effect is the misfortune of Victor Hugo, because he makes it the centre of his æsthetic system." "Cherbuliez is an Alexandrian exquisite, substituting for the feeling which makes men earnest the irony that leaves them free." "Doudan is an Athenian of the Roman time, a true disciple of Epicurus. The classical world and the Renaissance—that is to say, the horizon of La Fontaine—is his horizon."

Still, Amiel's interest in literature was only the lesser part of his life. We have brought it forward because the reviewers have chiefly occupied themselves with his philosophical discussions, hardly showing on how many different lines the book attracts the reader. Literature and philosophy, wide as their limits are, do not cover all of thought, nor satisfy the whole of the human spirit. "Philosophy can never replace religion; revolutionaries are not apostles, although the apostles may have been revolutionaries. Humanity must have her saints and her heroes to complete the work of her philosophers." It is just here that many minds will feel their closest sympathy with Amiel. They find in him that same burden and bewilderment of intellectual questionings that become only the more perplexing the more we know, and at the same time they see that to him the love and reverence for the old had never lost their force. The old is not a mere form; the tradition that is dear is not of names or rites, but of duties and sacrifices. "Christianity is above all religions; and religion is not a method: it is a life, a communion with God, a calm and deep enthusiasm, a love which radiates, a force which acts, a happiness which overflows." "Righteousness consists in willingly accepting one's lot, in submitting to and espousing the destiny assigned us, in willing what God commands, in renouncing what he forbids us, in consenting to what he takes from us or refuses us." "Piety is the daily renewing of the ideal." This note of personal religion is the more remarkable since there was in Amiel a strong artistic sense, which might have blinded his moral vision. Of Cherbuliez, whose brilliant qualities he admired, he wrote: "It is a splendid organization. Only sometimes he must be antipathetic to those men of duty who make renunciation, sacrifice, and humility the measure of individual worth." These are but imperfect hints of what the book contains; still less do they show the full man. That union of aspiring faith with flexibility of mind that accepts freely the conditions of life and the lessons of experience, while the love of truth is the paramount motive, forms a character that, whatever may be the outward contradictions, speaks to us of our own doubts, raises our hopes, and, though faltering itself, becomes our guide to a higher life.

Amiel has been much compared with Obermann and Maurice de Guérin, but he is far nearer to us than either. Sénancour belonged to the last generation; De Guérin died young. Moreover, there was in Amiel that deeper seriousness which we characterize by the word Puritan. It is for that type of religious mind, of which there are very many among English-speaking peoples, even though they disavow the name, that the book will have the strongest attraction. It is for them, most of all, that Mrs. Ward has done her work.

The Blood-Covenant: A Primitive Rite and its Bearing on Scripture. By H. Clay Trumbull, D.D. Charles Scribner's Sons.

TERENCE'S feeling that he was a man, and therefore nothing human was foreign to him, must, it would seem, be very strong in any one who could enjoy the reading of this book, and still stronger in the author who has made the necessary preparation for its publication. But it is evident that he has been encouraged in his laborious enterprise less by the human—or shall we say inhuman?—interest of his task than by the hope of bringing something out of it for the elucidation of the Christian doctrine of atonement by the blood of Jesus. "Certainly," he says in his preface, "the collation of facts comprised in this volume grew out of no preconceived theory on the part of the author"; and perhaps so much may be allowed, though what is likelier is, that some dim, half-formed conception of the forensic value of the ancient rite for current theological debates inspired him to the prosecution of its study. The operation of the argument will not be universally the same as in the author's mind. There is something wonderfully pathetic in his naïve assurance that it will make the same impression upon all his readers. But many of them will be simply outraged by the connection which he has established, or at least endeavored to establish, between a barbarous custom and a central dogma of the Christian faith, and some of them will even go so far as to suspect him of a covert attack upon the Christian doctrine of atonement under the mask of friendly intercession. Meantime, while the judicious grieve, iconoclasts of the Ingersoll variety will be immoderately pleased. They will declare that Dr. Trumbull has furnished them with such an armory of weapons as they could not have themselves collected without an infinite deal of trouble. But the critic, endeavoring to disengage himself from both the theological and anti-theological bias, will first admire the industry and patience that have gone to the collection and arrangement of so many painful facts, and then acknowledge his surprise that Dr. Trumbull should consider their significance so great for Christian theologians.

The method he pursues is just the opposite of that which was the characteristic method of the early Christians and has always been in general repute in Christendom. This was to magnify the novelty of every Christian rite and doctrine. In our own time, the Christian apologist has generally been suspicious of the studies of comparative religion; and when the more rational apologist has extracted confirmation for his creed from foreign sources, it has been from their purest fountains. But what does Dr. Trumbull do but mix together a heap of facts illustrative of one of the most degrading and revolting superstitions that disfigured primitive society, and endeavor to convert it into a monument in honor of a Christian doctrine? He must not complain if many read his lesson backwards. To read it so will seem to many not only natural but unavoidable.

The book is made up of three chapters and an appendix. The chapters are amplifications of three lectures that were given before the Summer School of Hebrew in Philadelphia, July 16-18, 1885. A certain lack of unity and coherency in their arrangement is very likely owing to the amplification of their original form. The first chapter, on "The Primitive Rite Itself," contains in its first section ("Sources of Bible Study") an almost comical inversion of the natural order of ideas and of their actual development: "But latterly it has been realized, that, while the Bible is an Oriental book, written primarily for Orientals, and therefore to be understood only through an understanding of Oriental modes of thought and speech, it is also a record of God's revelation to the whole human race," etc., etc. How free the author is from any theological bias may be inferred from this sentence, also, which is in the same connection: "Not alone those who insist on the belief that there was a gradual development of the race from a barbarous beginning, but those who believe that man started from a higher plane, and in his degradation retained perverted vestiges of God's original revelation to him," etc. Which theory is Dr. Trumbull's does not admit of any doubt whatever. The discussion fairly opens with an account of blood-covenanting as now practised among Syrians at the base of Lebanon. Then follow examples of the rite in Africa, in Teutonic Europe, in classic literature, in Egypt, and elsewhere. The evidence is abundant that the rite was very general among barbarous and savage races, and that its character was more homogeneous than would be imagined from its geographical extent. In a second chapter, on "Suggestions and Perversions of the Rite," there are more examples of its use, and illustrations of the general importance attached to the blood of men and animals in all primitive societies. The third and final chapter amplifies the Jewish contribution to the argument in circumcision, sacrifice, the Passover, and so on. Lastly we come to "The Blood Covenant in the Gospels." In the Last Supper Dr. Trumbull finds the antitype to all the prototypes of blood-drinking he has brought together, and in the death of Jesus an antitype of all the blood-covenantings of antiquity. Of verbal correspondences there is certainly no lack; for example, "Except ye eat the flesh of the Son of Man and drink his blood, ye have not life in yourselves." In the death of Jesus on the cross, Dr. Trumbull finds the blood of God himself poured out for men's salvation.

We cannot follow him through the textual analysis with which he seeks to fortify the doctrine which he holds. It is apparently ingenuous; it is certainly ingenious. But it may be seriously doubted whether Dr. Trumbull's service will be appreciated by those whom he is evidently looking to for his applause. They will consider it a doubtful matter to ally the most impressive scene in the life of Jesus, and his death also, with the most repulsive of primeval superstitions. They will fear that infidels and scoffers may declare that Dr. Trumbull only proves that Christian rites and doctrines are survivals of antecedent rites and doctrines of the most doubtful character. They will question whether the more legitimate result of his inquiries was not the tremendous influence of an immemorial past upon the *metaphorical* expression of New Testament ideas.

Fishing with the Fly. Sketches by Lovers of the Art, with Illustrations of Standard Flies, collected by Chas. F. Orvis and A. Nelson Cheney. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THIS is the second edition of a compilation of articles on angling, and as such, from the rather scanty supply afforded by American angling literature, is as good a selection as could be made. Mr. Orvis, one of the editors, is a dealer in angling materials, and the illustrations of the book take the form of colored plates of the flies of his tying, well enough done, but in artistic merit below some of the English books written or published by tackle dealers, notably Blacker's 'Art of Fly-making' and Theakston. As Mr. Orvis only gives plates of flies of his own tying, those for salmon fishing are very few in number, and one of them at least is misnamed. Trout and bass flies are depicted in numbers enough to satisfy the ardor, or order, of any angler.

The articles, twenty-four in number, are, as we said above, well selected, and have the advantage for readers in this country of being purely American. "The Salmon and Trout of Alaska," by Mr. Beardslee; "The Resources of Fly-fishing," by Dr. Henshall; "Fly-fishing in the Yosemite," by Mr. Vail, are among the most interesting; and "Suggestions," by C. F. Orvis, is excellent reading for any angler. At the end of each article is a page or two of short extracts from writers on angling. This is a very good idea; you find a bit of philosophy from Christopher North, a beautiful description of a spring morning by Norman McLeod, a scrap of natural history from Buckland, a quaint sentence from Walton—all mixed up with considerable trash from others, yet with considerable that is not.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, O. F. March. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 75 cents.
Aumale, Duc d'. Histoire des Princes de Condé pendant le xvie et xviie siècles. T. III. et. IV. Boston: Schoenhof.
Baillon, Comte de. Henriette-Anne d'Angleterre. Boston: Schoenhof.
Balzac, H. de. César Birotteau. Translation. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.
Bent, S. A. Hints on Language in Connection with Light Reading and Writing. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Bingham, Jennie M. Annals of the Round Table, and Other Stories. Phillips & Hunt. $1.
Brooks, H. M. Curiosities of the Old Lottery. [Olden Time Series.] Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Bullen, A. H. The Works of Thomas Middleton. Vols 5-8. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3 each.
Cox, Sir G. W. Lives of Greek Statesmen. 2d series. Harper & Brothers.
Crawford, Capt. J. The Poet Scout: A Book of Song and Story. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
Daryl, Phillipe. Wassili Samarin. F. W. Christern.
Desnoiresterres, G. La Comédie Satirique au xviiie siècle. Boston: Schoenhof.
Durfee, C. A. Index to Harper's New Monthly Magazine. Vols. I. to LXX. Harper & Bros.
Fabre, Abbé A. Fléchier orateur. Boston: Schoenhof.
Fenn, G. M. The Vicar's People: A Story of a Stain. Cassell & Co. $1.
Feuillet, Octave. La Morte. F. W. Christern.
Gibbons, R. The Physics and Metaphysics of Money. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Glazier, Capt. W. Peculiarities of American Cities. Illustrated. Philadelphia: Hubbard Brothers.
Goethe's Faust. Part II. Edinburgh: Blackwood & Sons.
Gregg, W. S. Irish History for English Readers. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
Griselda: A Novel. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Guide to the Charities of New York and Brooklyn. 1885-86. F. F. McBreen.
Ham, C. H. Manual Training the Solution of Social and Industrial Problems. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers.
Hazlitt, W. The Spirit of the Age, or Contemporary Poets. 4th ed. Scribner & Welford.
Heath, F. G. Sylvan Winter. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford. $3.50.
Holland, Prof. T. E. The Elements of Jurisprudence. 3d. ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Houssaye, Henry. Les Hommes et les Idées. Boston: Schoenhof.
Jerome, Irene E. The Message of the Blue Bird. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Lanman, C. Haphazard Personalities; Chiefly of Noted Americans. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Lawless, Hon. Emily. Hurrish: A Study. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
Lee, Rev. A. Eventful Nights in Bible History. Harper & Brothers.
Light on the Hidden Way. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.
Lonsdale, Margaret. George Eliot: Thoughts upon Her Life, Her Books, and Herself. Scribner & Welford.
Lyall, Edna. In the Golden Days. Harper & Brothers.
Meredith, G. The Ordeal of Richard Feverel. New ed. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $2.
Mougeolle, Paul. Les Problèmes de l'histoire. F. W. Christern.
Nouffiard, G. Hector Berlioz et le mouvement de l'art contemporain. Boston: Schoenhof.
O'Connor, T. P. The Parnell Movement. With a Sketch of Irish Parties from 1843. Scribner & Welford.
Osborne, Prof. G. A. Examples of Differential Equations, with Rules for their Solution. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Rand, E. A. Yard-Stick and Scissors. Phillips & Hunt. $1.25.
Reissmann, A. The Life and Works of Robert Schumann. Scribner & Welford.
Saintsbury, G. Specimens of English Prose Style from Malory to Macaulay. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $2.
Schindler, S. Messianic Expectations and Judaism. Boston: S. E. Cassino & Co. $1.50.
Stories from English History Simply Told. T. Nelson & Sons.
Swaine, Rev. S. A. General Gordon. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Swan, Annie S. Adam Hepburn's Vow: A Tale of Kirk and Covenant. Cassell & Co. $1.
The Encyclopædic Dictionary. A New and Original Work of Reference to All the Words in the English Language. Vol. V., Part I. Cassell & Co. $3.
Thompson, Rev. H. M. The World and the Logos. [The Bedell Lectures.] 1885. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Thompson, R. E. Protection to Home Industry. D. Appleton & Co.
Toland, M. B. M. The Inca Princess: An Historical Romance. Illustrated. Philadelphia; J. B. Lippincott & Co.
Toppan, R. N. Historical Summary of Metallic Money. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Towle, G. M. Young People's History of England. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.

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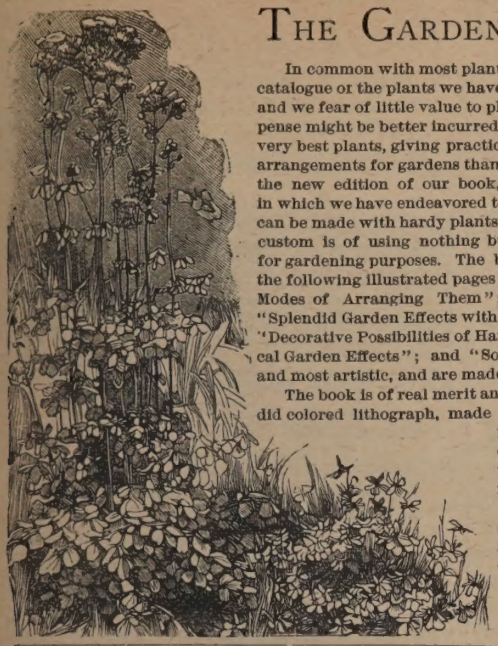

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 8, 1886.

The Week.

THE strike of the Knights of Labor in the Southwest has now reached the point to which it has been plainly running from the start—an armed conflict with the governments of three, perhaps five, States. Great satisfaction is proclaimed by the so-called Executive Committees that they are again "united," and that Mr. Powderly's order to return to work has been rescinded. No right-thinking person can feel satisfaction while contemplating public tumult and probable bloodshed, but if there is a wide-spread conspiracy in the United States against law and order, no time can be considered too early for confronting it. By conspiracy we mean a secret society whose object is to prevent anybody but the conspirators from earning a living; not because they object to any man's earning a living outside of the employments they are engaged in, but because they are unable to coerce employers if the unemployed are allowed to work when *they* see fit to strike. The situation in the Southwest has reached this pass, that nobody is allowed to represent Labor except those who refuse to work or allow anybody else to work. When a man has attained the full dignity of Labor, he must be prepared to shoot down any man more distressed and hungry than himself who applies for a situation that *he* has voluntarily given up. It happens in this particular case that the strikers had no reason that they were willing to avow for throwing up their situations. This, however, was only an incident growing out of the assumption that the right to labor belongs exclusively to the Knights of Labor, and that all persons who dispute this pretension must be shot down.

This has been the attitude of the strikers, under the lead of Irons, from the beginning. Mr. Powderly saw that it would end by bringing the Knights into armed collision with the State authorities, as at last it has in Texas, Kansas, and Arkansas, and will soon in Missouri and Illinois. The result of such a conflict cannot be doubtful. Some blood may be spilled, some houses may be burned, some dynamite may be exploded, but the end will be the crushing of the rebellion, and this end cannot be long delayed. The Governors of the several States have been very slow in performing their duty. They have been cowed by the supposed political power of the Knights. They have waited till the sufferings of the community have shifted the balance of political power upon the other side. It is probably true that public opinion in Texas was at first opposed to any harsh measures and in favor of persuasion and conciliation. While the striking Knights are only a handful in the whole State, the power which belongs to organization and secrecy had created a superstition in men's minds, and for a moment paralyzed the reasoning powers of the community, which never fairly awoke until it was found that a new government under the leadership of Irons had usurped the functions of the one elected by the people. Even then it was necessary that some profoundly impressive act should be committed, like the shooting of a deputy sheriff, to bring people to their senses, and to call into activity the forces which society has provided for just such emergencies.

The number of unemployed laborers in the country possessing more or less skill is always sufficient to man a railway, or a congeries of railways like the Gould Southwestern system, after a short time, if not prevented by violence from accepting the vacant places. The number of men who "went out" at the order of the Knights of Labor organization was only a trifle above five thousand. Mr. Martin Irons "claimed" a much larger number, putting it as high as 14,000 in one of his published statements, but this was shown by *Bradstreet's* census of the unemployed in the several towns on the line to be a gross exaggeration. The whole number thrown out of employment on the Missouri-Pacific and the Texas-Pacific was about 10,000, and half of these were non-strikers, who were ready to resume work whenever they could be protected. Both these and the new-comers have been scarcely heard of in the discussions of the period. But, taken together, they are not only the more numerous body of men, the larger representation of labor, but by far the most deserving. The non-strikers, more than 4,000 in number, who have been thrown out of employment through no action or fault of their own, are certainly entitled to the sympathy which the public always accord to men suddenly deprived of the means of livelihood by accident, such as the burning of a factory or the bankruptcy of employers. The new-comers are always the most needy class in the community, since only the most needy will brave the perils which usually assail those who take the places of strikers. Yet it is customary in the dissertations and stump speeches to which such disorders give rise to ignore the existence of any "labor" except that of the strikers. In common parlance, everybody who labors or seeks labor, but does not strike, is a "scab," a "rat," a disgrace to society and unfit for American citizenship, whereas the majority of them are deterred from joining the Knights of Labor or other local organizations by the demagogical character of the local leaders of the unions, and by the repression of individual freedom which membership implies.

The difficulties which Mr. Powderly has had to contend with are a very valuable contribution to the discussion of all the great schemes of state socialism, not excepting Mr. Henry George's land scheme. They all propose the starting of a business enterprise, such as the world never saw—that is, of a factory in which every man and woman in the nation would be an operative or dependent, and in which every product of human industry would be turned out, but they never say where the managers of the concern are to be found. It would in magnitude bear about the same proportion to the greatest railroad corporation in the world that the German or French army bears to a corporal's guard. Now it is with the greatest difficulty and by the offer of enormous salaries that the railroads find competent managers. Where are the managers of Socialistic States to be found? Who are they and where are they bred? What inducement is to be offered them for undertaking work that would land any mere man in the lunatic asylum in three months? We have no doubt Mr. Powderly has begun to ponder these questions himself. The trouble with the less thoughtful and intelligent Socialists is that the State which is to take care of the workingman, and raise his wages, and shield him from competition, always appears in their fancy as an all-wise and all-powerful person, who knows everything and can accomplish everything, without board, lodging, and washing, instead of being, as it really is, a group composed of Smith, Brown, Jones, White, Black, and Green, not one of whom probably could manage a large store, and all of whom are as anxious as anybody to be protected from competition and filled with good victuals at other people's expense.

The Republican Senators are still floundering about in their effort to make a little party capital out of their controversy with the President over nominations, but it becomes daily more evident that Mr. Edmunds cannot hold them to the rule of rejecting men simply because they cannot get the "papers." The otherwise profitless contest, however, is having one good result in emphasizing the absurdity of the "star-chamber" system of considering nominations in the Senate, and in strengthening the sentiment in favor of abolishing executive sessions. The canvassing of this question has revealed, more clearly than was before suspected, the outrageous character of this secret style of doing public business. For example, it has come out that one of the standing rules which govern the Senate in this branch of its duties is as follows:

> "If, however, charges shall be made against a person nominated, the Committee may, in its discretion, notify such nominee thereof, but the name of the person making such charges shall not be disclosed."

The Republican orators who have had so much to say about the "stabbing of character" involved in the President's removal of office-holders evidently have full scope for their eloquence in reforming the rules of their own body.

The almost unanimous rejection by the Senate, on Wednesday week, of a newly appointed Democratic postmaster in a Western State, on the ground that he had been an "offensive partisan" during his brief official career, shows how generally the idea that "public office is a public trust" is coming to be accepted. Two years ago the man would have been laughed at who should have suggested that the utmost political activity on the part of a Federal office-holder constituted a reason for his removal from office. Now even Democratic Senators vote to

reject the nomination of a Democratic postmaster who has been running his office on a political basis, as Republican postmasters used to do without criticism from anybody except a few "doctrinaires."

A bill has been favorably reported authorizing the President to arrange for a conference with the states of South and Central America, for the purpose, among other things, of improving "the business intercourse" between the United States and these countries, and "encouraging such peaceful and reciprocal commercial relations as will be beneficial to all, and secure more extensive markets for the surplus products of each of said countries." We trust that if the bill passes, the President will remember that no arrangement about commercial intercourse will be satisfactory which does not provide that each country shall sell more than it buys, and shall receive more gold or silver from the other countries than it parts with. If this is not looked after, each country will soon have "the balance of trade against it" and all its gold going abroad. The consequence of having the balance of trade against every country on both the American continents would be very terrible, and we shall not attempt to describe it further than by saying that it would probably afford the European despots the opportunity which they have been long waiting for. The Conference, when it comes off, is to cost $20,000, which is cheap enough if it were to do any good: but a conference to promote commercial intercourse with foreigners is surely something the American people will not have at any price. A $5 conference held with that end in view would be dear.

The recent attempt to double the rate of postage on seeds and other articles of "fourth-class matter," is a striking instance of the small pains taken by some lawmakers to know the operation of existing laws or the real needs of the people. Prior to 1872 the fourth-class postage rate was eight cents per pound; the existing rate is sixteen cents per pound. The bill introduced by Senator Wilson would double this and make the postage thirty-two cents per pound. In Canada the postage on this class of mail matter is four cents per pound, while in England it is six cents per pound for the first pound, and less than four cents where the packages are over one pound. In other European countries equally low rates prevail. The proposed bill must have been introduced in ignorance of these facts, or without consideration or regard for the effect it would have on the agricultural interests of the country. Proof of this is found in the fact that the Senator who introduced this bill doubling the fourth-class postage has now introduced another one reducing the rate one-half, evidently acting under pressure of the strong public opinion freely expressed throughout the country. There seems now to be little doubt that the rate of postage on this class of goods will not be increased; indeed, it is probable that before long seeds and scions will be distributed at a cost even less than heretofore, and a little nearer the prevailing rates of postage in other countries.

We are pained to observe that the Gloucester fishermen are not taking their medicine so manfully as might be desired. They held a public meeting at the Parker House in Boston on Friday, to denounce the unfriendly action of the Dominion authorities in preventing them from shipping Canadian sailors in Canadian ports in the customary way for the season's work. Protection to American industry requires an unrestricted supply of foreign labor. What is a duty on fish good for if our captains are to be taxed three or four dollars per head for all the men they hire in Nova Scotia to work their vessels? The meeting demanded retaliatory legislation to prohibit Canadian vessels from coming into our ports. They called on the President to send "a sufficient number of armed vessels" to the fishing grounds, to "look after and protect American vessels." In regard to the headland dispute, they proposed to make a test question at once by having an American vessel seized by a Canadian cruiser, and then calling on the Government to demand satisfaction. This unseemly preparation for hostilities for which the American people are to pay the costs, is on foot, as the resolutions of the meeting state, "for the reclamation of their home markets to the uses of American fishermen." Instead of peace and good will among men which have ruled for more than ten years along the northeastern boundaries and waters, we are to have cruisers making seizures of fishing smacks, upon our own procurement, in order to make a test case for claims for damages, and we are to get into as great a snarl as possible and as speedily as possible over a duty of one cent per pound on dried fish. But that is not all. It was the opinion of Mr. R. S. Spofford that a similar duty should be imposed on fresh fish, and that a delegation should be sent to the lake fishermen to induce them to combine for the purpose of bringing influence to bear upon Congress to this end. An American fishery union should be formed to promote the taxation of fish.

The proposition to put an American vessel in the way of being captured by a British cruiser in order to bring on an international difficulty is extremely brazen, and could only be avowed by persons who have come to look upon the tariff as a matter of religious faith, or as part and parcel of the common rights of man. Something of this spirit lurks in a recent article on the fisheries question by Theodore S. Woolsey, in which the argument is quite faultless if one concedes that a protecting duty is among the indefeasible rights of a fisherman, like life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. The class of people who are opposed to the whole system of mutual robbery, and especially to that part of it which relates to the people's food, will not find any common standpoint with Mr. Woolsey, or with Mr. Spofford, or with Judge Woodbury. Even those who are indifferent as to the tariff controversy will be likely to ask what has happened lately to bring us into hot water with a friendly and kindred Power, with whom we have been at peace so many years. When they find that it is all about a beggarly duty on codfish they will, perhaps, think that it is better to repeal the duty than to have any international trouble at all. As regards the proposed martyrdom of an American fishing-smack, which is to be thrust into the jaws of a British cruiser, we presume that Secretary Bayard will at once, when the case comes before him, propose arbitration. Our judicial decisions and those of Canada on the headland question run so nearly parallel with each other that we should be much embarrassed to decide the test case without the moral support of an impartial umpire. Out of deference to the feelings of Mr. Blaine, it might be stipulated that we should not accept the late Minister of Belgium as a referee.

The death of Judge John Baxter last week is of especial public interest at the present time, owing to the fact that the Government suit to annul the Bell telephone patent has lately been begun at Columbus, O., in the circuit of the United States Court over which Judge Baxter presided. It has for some time been an open secret among the profession that Judge Baxter had strong sentiments against letters patent, and it needed to be a very clear case of infringement to secure success before him. So prevalent had become the feeling about his views in this particular that many suits were discontinued in his circuit, and few were begun there, the owners of patents preferring to allow infringement to go on unmolested in that district rather than to risk their rights in a suit, although their patents may have been sustained in other circuits. Under these circumstances the appointment of a successor to Judge Baxter by the President will be looked for with considerable interest.

The amount of work done by the judges of the United States Courts and the small compensation awarded them in salary have long been a subject of public discussion. It is now some years since a committee of the American Bar Association, after thorough consideration of the subject, reported a plan which would serve as a basis for a bill to relieve the Supreme Court and the Circuit Courts from the existing pressure of business, and several bills have been introduced for that purpose, but nothing of practical importance has yet been done by Congress. The sudden and unexpected death of Judge Baxter should bring the subject again into prominence and demand attention. The circuit over which Judge Baxter presided extends from Tennessee to Michigan, and his position required the performance of a vast amount of judicial labor. Aside from slight lameness, Judge Baxter was a man of robust health and energetic temperament, and his unexpected death was in all probability indirectly, if not directly, due to overwork. Of the United States judges in that circuit district, Judge Withey has for some time been too ill for service, and is trying to regain his lost health; Judge Brown, the District Judge at Detroit, has been so overworked that he is unable to leave his home to attend to court business, and according to last reports will not be well enough to hold court for some time to come. The death of Judge Baxter therefore leaves the United States Courts in Michigan without any judge to try causes or attend to court business

until his successor is appointed. In our own district, here in New York, it has become quite the practice for United States judges from Vermont, Connecticut, Northern New York, and Brooklyn, to assist in the disposition of cases which constantly accumulate upon the calendar, and all this judicial labor is performed for a salary less than one-half that paid the judge of our City Court. But a still worse state of affairs exists in the mass of business heaped upon the Supreme Court by the great and increasing number of causes coming up on appeal from the different circuit courts sitting in the various States. Suits involving questions of the greatest importance to the commercial and manufacturing interests of the country, in many instances, become almost matters of history before they can be reached in regular order and decided by the Supreme Court at Washington. This subject has been so long under consideration by Congress that there is doubtless now before the Judiciary Committee some feasible plan for the relief of the United States Courts, and the public interest requires that such a plan should be embodied in a law without delay.

Mayor O'Brien, of Boston, has again vindicated the confidence of his supporters that he would treat public questions submitted to him on a common-sense basis. The City Council recently passed an order that every laboring man employed by the municipality should receive a full day's pay for eight hours of work, after the 1st of May. A demagogue in the Mayor's chair would have promptly approved such a measure, especially when it had been supported by almost every member of his party in both branches of the Council. But Mr. O'Brien insisted upon examining into the matter. He applied to the Corporation Counsel for an opinion as to the legality of the proposed ordinance, and asked the head of each department for an estimate as to the additional expense of the eight-hour system. Investigation showed that the change would increase the cost of running the city government by about a million and a half dollars a year, which would involve not only a higher tax rate, but the repeal of the law passed by the Legislature limiting the rate of taxation in Boston, while the Corporation Counsel gave his opinion that under the new city charter the Council had no right to make so radical a change in the executive work of the different departments. The Mayor therefore returned the order without his signature, with a clear statement of its illegality and impracticability, and with the suggestion that the only feasible thing to do was to ask the Legislature for the changes in law required to render the change possible. Considering the strong temptation there was for him to content himself with signing the order and leaving the future to expose its weakness, Mr. O'Brien's course in this matter is most creditable to him.

Mayor Grace has made the gratifying announcement that in selecting new Excise Commissioners he will not appoint any one connected with the liquor or beer interest. He said that he had been requested to appoint "one man for the brewers, one for the liquor interest, and one outsider" to compose the new Board, and had declined the proposition. This was about the same composition as the present Board, which contained two members who refused to act with the third "because he was not in sympathy with the liquor interest." The curious notion that the Excise Board is designed not to limit and control the liquor traffic, but to encourage it, and if necessary shield it from the harshness of the excise laws, is a prevalent one in liquor circles, and is a perfectly natural outgrowth of the way in which the laws have been executed for many years. The Mayor is trying to change this by putting a different kind of men upon the Excise Board, but he will be prevented in his worthy intentions unless the Assembly makes haste to pass the bill for removing from the Aldermen all voice in the selections. The idea that the Aldermen would exercise a reforming influence in matters relating to the liquor traffic is so preposterous that we should think the Assembly would be ashamed to entertain it for a moment.

The Portland *Oregonian*, which certainly has enjoyed ample opportunities for forming a correct judgment, sums up thus briefly its conclusions as to the really effective way of stopping the anti-Chinese war on the Pacific Coast:

"If the Chinaman can be taught to drink whiskey, given the right to vote, and induced to spend his money in the vile drinking holes, the 'agitation' against him will cease at once. He will then be accepted without further struggle as the associate and equal of Cronen, Hamilton, Cradlebaugh, Baker, Gilson, and the other 'champions of labor,' and the 'Anti-Coolie Association' will disband."

We commend this opening for missionary work to the reverend gentleman who, it was recently announced, had become agent of the league organized in California to drive the "heathen" out of this Christian land.

The internal dissensions which are said to exist within the ranks of the Irish party in this country are not very serious. All the trouble comes from the dynamite faction, which is led by such professional agitators as the *Irish World*, Alexander Sullivan, and Patrick Egan. From the moment that Mr. Parnell began to show faith in Mr. Gladstone's plans for home rule, these agitators have held aloof from him. They took no part in the recent effort which was made to send money to him from this country. They have been able, through their control of the organization, to postpone indefinitely the holding of a National League Convention, thus preventing any approval of Parnell's course which such a convention would be certain to give. They have refused to place any faith in Gladstone's sincerity, and have persistently argued that anything less than complete separation between England and Ireland should be rejected by the Irish. Yet they are only a noisy minority of the Irish-American party. Their recent efforts to raise funds for various purposes have been complete failures. They cannot deceive the ignorant masses of their own party any longer, and it is now plain that they cannot deceive Mr. Parnell, for word is cabled from Dublin that he is "making arrangements to collect funds in America irrespective of the League agents." Nothing has ever done more to repel American sympathy from Ireland than the prominence of the dynamite agitators in the Irish party here, and their open rejection by Parnell would be a great gain for his cause in the estimation of the American people.

The signs of war in the Balkan Peninsula steadily multiply. Greece has not only not disarmed, but has continued to increase her forces. Turkey has been straining every nerve all the winter to get ready for her, and Prince Alexander, of Bulgaria, has steadily refused to acquiesce in the temporary, instead of the permanent, union of Bulgaria and Rumelia, which Russia insists on as some sort of precaution against what she most dreads, the growth of a powerful and independent State between her and Constantinople. Accordingly she now proposes to punish his obstinacy by occupying Bulgaria, which would, of course, be a direct violation of the Treaty of Berlin. That Germany would stand this is very unlikely. It is still more unlikely that Austria will stand it, or will not occupy Servia on the smallest sign of a Russian invasion of Bulgaria. The materials for a great blaze of war, in fact, seem to be all prepared.

By a curious small coincidence, both the London *Spectator* and the *Saturday Review* for March 20, not prompted by the same topic, contain precisely similar observations upon a dangerous form of conceit to which the collectors of paintings, china, bric-à-brac, etc., are subject. It is the tendency to go off at score with a self-created idea of their own good judgment, and never to learn anything afterward; to depend upon a purely imaginary power of discernment, without improving knowledge by study, or even without recognizing the need of studying; and, moreover, to back the cherished opinion with great sums of money, to the ultimate confusion and disappointment of their heirs. The *Saturday Review* says:

"Forgetting that, as a rule, a good thing will fetch very nearly, if not quite, its full value, they imagine that bargains are to be had much more often than is the case; and they commit the further mistake of persuading themselves that everything they have bought is much more beautiful, and more genuine, and more valuable than it ever was before."

The *Spectator* justly remarks that this foible may be noted also among buyers of horses and of stocks, and asks why such men do not know their own ignorance, and are self-deceived. The answer to this question it finds somewhat elaborately in the working of two passions—vanity and greed. The *Saturday Review*, it will be observed, slightly connotes the latter cause. Yet the case is probably simpler than this. Greed sharpens the dealer's perceptions and rectifies his judgment, and should perform the same office for the collector. On the other hand, vanity is practically non-existent with the dealer. We doubt if even in stocks greed has much to do with the delusion over "sure things"; it is much more likely to be vanity about one's special means of "information," or conceit of one's "judgment." The collector's besetting danger is only the weakness which makes nearly every man believe that he rides at least tolerably well, and is a "fair" shot.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 31, to TUESDAY, April 6, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Senate on Thursday passed the bill appropriating $500,000 for a monument to Lincoln at Washington.

In the Senate on Monday Mr. Frye sharply criticised the course of the State Department on the fisheries questions, and its decision that American vessels were now bound by the provisions of the Treaty of 1818. He was only waiting, he said, for the seizure of some American fishing vessel by Canadian cruisers, which would probably happen within a week, when he would introduce a ten-line bill barring out Canadian vessels from American ports, and ask the Senate to put itself on record in support of that proposition. On Tuesday the Arbitration Bill passed by the House was favorably reported to the Senate.

Mr. W. L. Trenholm was confirmed by the Senate on Monday as Comptroller of the Currency.

The nomination of Mr. Lyman for Civil-Service Commissioner was reported favorably some days ago. The name of Mr. Oberly is also before the Senate. Mr. Edgerton is alone now on the Commission and is overworked. The delay in confirming the two new Commissioners is the occasion of embarrassment, as there are questions pressing which cannot be taken up while these nominations are held in suspense.

Caleb W. West, of Kentucky, was on Monday nominated by the President to be Governor of Utah Territory. He served in the Confederate army and has been a county judge. Speaker Carlisle recommended him.

The President on Friday nominated Col. Thomas H. Ruger, of the Eighteenth Infantry, to be Brigadier-General in place of General Terry, and Col. Joseph H. Potter, of the Twenty-fourth Infantry, to be Brigadier-General in place of Gen. O. O. Howard.

A caucus of Republican Senators on Friday without reaching a vote made it evident that a majority are opposed to Senator Edmunds's course, and will practically ignore his resolutions in dealing with nominations. There were also very strong expressions of opinion in favor of doing away with secret sessions.

The House of Representatives on Saturday passed the Labor-Arbitration Bill by 195 to 30. It was modified so that arbitration is optional, and the Government pays the expenses up to $1,000 for each case.

The Ways and Means Committee on Saturday took up the Hewitt Customs Bill, and added to it the free list of the Morrison bill so far as it applies to lumber, fish, salt, flax, and hemp. Wool was also added to the free list. Under the head of dutiable goods the chemical cotton schedules of the Morrison bill were added, with amendments relating to fine qualities of cotton goods, and the sugar duties were reduced 10 per cent.

The House passed on Monday the bill for a Congressional library building. The cost of it is limited to $550,000.

The House on Monday afternoon passed the Mexican War Pension Bill by 158 to 68. Mr. Dingley (Rep., Me.) introduced the following resolution: "That the President be requested to furnish the House with any information in his possession relative to the exclusion of American fishing vessels from the right to enter ports of entry of the Dominion of Canada for the purpose of trading, purchasing supplies, or landing fish caught in deep water for shipment in bond to the United States, or doing other acts which Canadian or other British vessels are freely permitted to do in ports of the United States; and also to inform the House what steps have been taken, or are proposed, to bring such unwarrantable acts of the Dominion authorities to the attention of the British Government."

The public-debt statement shows a decrease of $14,087,884 in March.

Geronimo, the Apache chief, with twenty other Indians, has escaped from Lieutenant Maus's custody.

General Miles has been transferred to General Crook's department in the Southwest. General Crook will relieve General Howard of the command of the Department of the Platte, the latter taking command of the Division of the Pacific.

An alarming incident of the strike occurred on Saturday. A Missouri-Pacific freight train left Fort Worth, Texas, in charge of twenty armed deputies. Two miles from the city it stopped on meeting a party of men, who were asked what they were doing, to which they replied that they were not armed, and had no intention of interfering with the road. As the officers returned to the cars they noticed several men sitting or lying on the grass a few yards from the train. The entire posse advanced toward the men in ambush until they reached the ditch alongside the track, when they commanded a throwing up of hands. The men in ambush then opened fire with Winchester rifles, killing one deputy and badly wounding two others. The fire was returned by the posse with revolvers. One rioter is known to have been killed and two wounded. There was intense excitement in Fort Worth on Sunday night, and many citizens were under arms. Several companies of militia and one battery have arrived there. Some of the prominent citizens are in favor of organizing a vigilance committee and hanging the leaders of the anti-law element. It is stated that these leaders have made out a list of houses to be pillaged and burned in case the strike is not settled peaceably. On Monday quiet was in a measure restored, and maintained by the militia.

The Missouri-Pacific officers refused to take the striking Knights of Labor back as a body, but considered their applications individually. This delayed the final settlement of the Gould system strike, though many freight trains were run without interruption. On Friday Vice-President Hoxie telegraphed to Mr. Gould: "While there may still be some trouble at a few points, I think that the worst is over. Things may not run smoothly for some days, but I have plenty of force to run trains and do repairs, and I am gradually recruiting my force with new men." By Saturday freight was moving from St. Louis in almost normal quantities. The blockade still continues at East St. Louis, where the strikers are very determined.

At St. Louis trains were freely running on Monday, although Mr. Hoxie had failed to reach any agreement with Messrs. Turner and Bailey, of the Knights of Labor. At East St. Louis the blockade continues, and more trouble is apprehended. The whole situation was further complicated by an order issued by the General Executive Board early Monday morning, recalling the order which directed the men to return to work. The reason for this action was Mr. Hoxie's refusal to take back all the Knights or to treat with their order as a body.

A sensation was created in political circles in this city on Thursday, when it became known that ex-Alderman Waite had made a statement to the District Attorney involving a number of members of the Board of 1884 in the Broadway franchise scandal. As a result William P. Kirk, who was President of the Board in 1884, was arrested on Thursday evening, and ex-Alderman Pearson on Friday, charged with bribery. Ex-Alderman Fullgraff is allowed his liberty, it is said, only on condition that he will give certain testimony which is in his possession.

FOREIGN.

The British Cabinet on Thursday discussed the scheme of buying out Irish landlords. In consequence of the unfavorable attitude of the Scotch Liberal Association, Mr. Gladstone proposed to modify his project in several particulars, but no agreement could be reached by the Cabinet.

Mr. James Stansfeld, the new Secretary for Scotland, in his address to the electors of Halifax, asking reëlection to the seat in Parliament made vacant by his acceptance of office, says he agrees with the principles enunciated by Mr. Gladstone in his Midlothian platform, and is resolved to assist the Premier in the work of practically realizing those principles. He has been reëlected.

A great mass-meeting was held in London on Friday afternoon in Guildhall to protest against the granting of a Parliament to Ireland. The Lord Mayor presided. Sir John Lubbock (Liberal), member of Parliament for London University, moved the adoption of a resolution condemning Mr. Gladstone for his intention of "handing Ireland over to Mr. Parnell, whom he previously denounced." A workingman arose and offered an amendment to Sir John Lubbock's resolution, but he was howled down, and the resolution was carried amid wild enthusiasm. But 200 persons in the immense audience voted in the negative. The name of Gladstone was repeatedly and vigorously hissed.

The British Conservatives are making strenuous efforts to form a coalition of the Whigs against Gladstone. Lord Hartington had a long interview with the Queen on Tuesday and also with Lord Salisbury.

Mr. Gladstone, on Tuesday afternoon, submitted his home-rule scheme to the Cabinet. It was reported that the discussion which followed resulted in continuing the Ministerial opposition to certain features of the Premier's proposals. The Earl of Kimberley, Secretary for India; Mr. Childers, Home Secretary; Sir William Vernon Harcourt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Mr. Mundella, President of the Board of Trade, were, it was said, as much opposed as ever to that feature which surrenders control of the customs in Ireland. Later in the day, however, it was announced that the Cabinet feud had abated. Mr. Gladstone modified his proposals regarding customs control, by giving the English Parliament the right to veto all fiscal enactments of Ireland, providing that an imperial Receiver shall collect customs and excise, and making imperial claims the first charges on the revenues. The malcontents consequently withheld their resignations.

The following outline is given with reserve: Mr. Gladstone proposes the establishment at Dublin of a statutory Irish National Parliament of a single chamber, elected largely by the same franchise as the existing representation in Parliament. Special guarantees will be taken to secure the presence of an adequate proportion of Protestant members. Mr. Parnell agrees to an arrangement by which at least 75 out of a House of 300 members will be allotted to the Protestants. To this Parliament will be handed over the whole administration of Ireland, together with the exclusive right to legislate on Irish affairs. An Irish Ministry will control the magistrates and police, undertake the enforcement of the law, and have supreme authority over all Irish affairs, except the military forces of the Crown, which will remain under the exclusive control of the Viceroy. The Viceroy will be appointed by the Crown, and will probably be non-political, as is the Viceroy of India. The existing constabulary, as an armed and drilled military force, will be under the direct orders of the Viceroy, as will be the other imperial troops garrisoned in Ireland. The statutory Parliament will impose, remit, and collect all taxes levied in Ireland, and defray from the same the cost of the local administration. The new body is forbidden

to impose a protective tariff which would close the Irish markets to English goods. The number of Irish members in the Imperial Parliament will not much exceed a score. They will only sit in the House of Commons when questions involving imperial considerations are under discussion. A veto upon all acts of the Irish Legislature is to be vested in the Crown, and exercised by advice of the Imperial Ministry. If the House of Commons wishes to challenge the exercise of this veto, or censure a minister for not advising its exercise, the Irish members will be admitted before the debate takes place.

The Dublin *Freeman's Journal* says that the Irish Land Bill which Mr. Gladstone will propose does not, as has been stated, involve either a compulsory purchase or the advance of any specified sum from the Imperial Treasury. What the measure will enact will be the right of any owner of land in Ireland to claim from the Government of Ireland, after home rule has been granted, the privilege of being bought out at a sum regulated by law. This sum will be arrived at by multiplying the amount of the rent where it is judicially fixed, or of a fair rent where it is not rated judicially, by a term of years to be agreed upon by Parliament. The imperial exchequer is to provide the purchase money. The Irish Government is to guarantee repayment and is to attend to the business of reimbursing the empire for all these outlays, by disposing of the purchased lands to occupiers, and collecting in the shape of payments therefor such rents as will cover the whole sum back in forty-nine years. As at present framed, Mr. Gladstone's bill fixes the rents to be paid by the tenants at 4 per cent. per annum on the amount of the purchase. When the tenant has paid in rent to the Irish Government the amount the land cost the Government, he is to become the owner. Although the tenant is to pay the Irish Government 4 per cent. per annum, the latter will be responsible to the Imperial Treasury for only 3½ per cent. per annum, the difference to go into a sinking fund to meet bad debts, the cost of collection, and so forth.

The House of Commons at 2 o'clock on Friday morning took up the bill for the relief of the poor of Ireland and passed it to a second reading. The bill authorizes boards of guardians to make grants of food to the poor, subject to the sanction of the local-government board. The first two sections of the act passed in 1883 for the relief of distressed unions are revived, but the total amount of grants must not exceed £40,000. Briefly stated, the object of the bill is to legalize the granting of out-door relief in kind, on such conditions as the local-government board may specify.

It is rumored that Mr. Parnell contemplates making arrangements to collect funds in America irrespective of the League agents.

William E. Forster, Chief Secretary for Ireland under the previous Gladstone Ministry, died on Monday. He was the son of William Forster, a minister of the Society of Friends, and was born at Bradpole, Dorsetshire, England, on July 11, 1818. His father came to the United States on an anti-slavery mission during the great struggle. He died during the visit and was buried in Tennessee. As a monument to his father's memory Mr. Forster founded a Quaker school at Friendsville, Tenn., in 1874. In April, 1859, Mr. Forster entered upon his political career by unsuccessfully contesting Leeds as a candidate for the House of Commons. In February, 1861, he was returned for Bradford, for which borough he has been returned at every succeeding election. In politics Mr. Forster was what is termed a "Philosophical Radical." In December, 1868, he became Minister of Education. This office he held until Mr. Gladstone retired in February, 1874, having been admitted to a seat in the Cabinet in 1870. He achieved a commanding position during Gladstone's first Administration, his name being especially connected with two of the most vital measures of that period—the Educational Act and the Ballot Act. When Mr. Gladstone resumed office in April, 1880, Mr. Forster was made Chief Secretary for Ireland, and held that position until May, 1882, when he resigned and was succeeded by the unfortunate Lord Frederick Cavendish. His incumbency of the Irish Secretaryship was a stormy one. He began by pressing through the House of Commons the Irish Compensation and Registration Bills, which were thrown out by the House of Lords. In 1881 he managed the Irish Land Bill and secured its enactment, but this measure he accompanied by a coercion bill and by a proclamation which declared the Land League illegal and criminal, and caused the arrest and imprisonment of Mr. Parnell and about 1,000 others for the part taken by them in the land agitation. As a result, he became very unpopular with the Irish element in England as well as at home. He was forced to resign on May 3, 1882. Although out of office, Mr. Forster did not abandon his policy, but continued to expound it forcibly in the House of Commons.

The London *News* demands of the British Government an explanation of the statement printed in New York that British contractors and officers are interested financially in the construction of the new vessels to be built for the American Navy. The new cruisers, it is asserted, are to be designed by a syndicate, of whom Sir Nathaniel Barnaby, ex-Chief Constructor of the British Navy, Mr. White, the present Chief Constructor, and the gunnery firm of Sir William Armstrong & Co., are the principal members. The last-mentioned firm deny the truth of the assertion. Mr. White, however, writes to the *News*: "I believe that the American Government purchased from Messrs. Armstrong & Co. some designs which I prepared while in their service and out of the public service. These designs were the property of Messrs. Armstrong & Co., and were unlike any existing in the British Navy. Sir Nathaniel Barnaby took no part in drawing up the designs." Sir Nathaniel Barnaby writes to the *News*: "I consider that the fact that I am pensioned does not debar me from designing for foreign countries, if I thereby obtain work for British builders. As to the alleged facts, the Marquis of Ripon, First Lord of the Admiralty, has the right to question me." From unofficial sources it is learned that our Navy Department is in possession of copies of every design of value relating to naval construction that has been prepared by the British Government.

Sir Charles Dilke's lawyer has been informed that providing Dilke and his witnesses will make affidavits of his innocence, a third party will apply to court showing cause why the decree of divorce should not be made absolute. This places Dilke's fate, if innocent, in his own hands.

Cambridge defeated Oxford in the annual boat-race on the Thames, on Saturday, by half a length. It was one of the best contests ever rowed between the Universities.

A gloomy view was taken on Friday of the whole Eastern question. There was great activity at the British Foreign Office. The Russian fleet was ordered to return to Suda Bay, and two French ironclads were placed in readiness for immediate despatch to the Mediterranean.

Sir Horace Rumboldt, the British Minister to Greece, was ordered on Friday to join with the other foreign diplomatic representatives at Athens in sending to the Greek Government a final remonstrance against Greece's warlike attitude. This will be tantamount to an ultimatum, and if Greece ignores it, the foreign fleet will act forthwith.

Mr. Bryce, Under Foreign Secretary, said in the House of Commons on Monday that Greece had not accepted the advice of the Powers as to the course she should pursue in her troubles with Turkey. He also said that the Government had no information which would enable them to say that Greece would refrain from war.

The Russian Government has notified the Powers that Russia will take no part in coercing Greece. The Greek and Turkish armies on the Turco-Greek frontier have lost 10 per cent. of their men by extremely cold weather.

The Balkan Conference at Constantinople will appoint Prince Alexander Governor of Eastern Rumelia for five years, ignoring the Prince's refusal to accept the appointment for that term.

Prince Alexander refuses absolutely to submit to the Powers, as demanded by Russia, the question whether his title of Governor of Eastern Rumelia is for life, as he claims, or, as Russia contends, for the term of five years. The Bulgarian papers applaud the attitude of the Prince. A despatch from St. Petersburg says the Russian Government has definitely decided to occupy Bulgaria within a few weeks unless Prince Alexander submits to the wishes of Russia.

M. Tricoupis, ex-Prime Minister of Greece, in an attack on the present Government on Saturday in the Chamber of Deputies, blamed the Ministers for missing the opportunity of arriving at a good understanding with Turkey presented by the recent war between Servia and Bulgaria. He also criticised the Government for failing to organize properly the Greek army, and urged that the raw recruits be sent home and well-trained men be added to the army, so that the country might be in a state of military readiness in case of emergency.

The Greek Minister of War on Monday returned from a tour of inspection of the frontier defences. He expressed his delight to the various commanders at the efficiency of the works. Before leaving Arta, he requested the officers to inform their men that they were destined to uphold the honor of Greece on the field of battle, and would not return to their homes until that honor was satisfied. The trip of the War Minister and the expressions used by him were taken to indicate a speedy declaration of war. A late despatch on Tuesday asserted, however, that the King of Greece and his Ministers had decided to abandon war preparations, as Prince Alexander had yielded to the Powers.

M. Ristitch has withdrawn from the task of forming a new Servian Ministry. He was not satisfied with the war budget. M. Garashanin has consented to attempt the formation of a Cabinet.

Returns from the Spanish elections so far show the election of 301 Ministerialists, 60 followers of Castillo, 18 Federal and Zorillist Republicans, 26 Democrats, 10 Independent Conservatives, and 8 followers of Dominguez. The elections were orderly.

MM. Roche and Ducquerey have been arrested at Decazeville, the scene of the French mining troubles, and taken to the prison of Villefranche. This has caused a sensation in Paris. Socialists have called an indignation meeting, when, it is believed, they will decide on some form of retaliation for the arrests.

Another of Pasteur's Russian patients has died of hydrophobia.

The German Reichstag on Wednesday by a vote of 173 to 146 prolonged the Anti-Socialist Law two years. The majority consisted mainly of National Liberals and Conservatives, and the minority of German Liberals. The Socialists abstained from voting.

The Lower House of the Prussian Diet on Friday adopted the first clause of the Polish bill placing 100,000,000 marks at the disposal of the Government for establishing German colonies in West Prussia and Posen.

Despatches from Anam report fresh massacres at the Catholic missions in the province of Quang Bing. The number of victims is said to be 442.

MR. WEEKS ON ARBITRATION.

THE promoters of the O'Neill Arbitration Bill in Congress—those, at least, who desire to be useful to their day and generation, and not merely to scramble for the "labor vote" in the next election—will do well to possess themselves of Mr. Joseph D. Weeks's tract on labor differences and their settlement, just issued by the Society for Political Education. Although the arguments in favor of arbitration and conciliation as opposed to strife and contention are as plain and obvious as the advantages of peace over war among nations, or those of trial by jury over trial by ordeal among individuals, it is surprising how few of the current disputes between employers and employed are actually settled in that way. The explanation is, that when a strike or a lockout has once got headway, men's passions are enlisted, and the voice of reason has no hearing until one side or the other is pretty well exhausted—that is, until a great deal of misery has been endured. To make arbitration successful, as Mr. Weeks shows, it is necessary to have it in the house before the difficulty begins. The court or committee to decide the disputed points must have been appointed and empowered beforehand, must be within reach at all times, and ought to hold regular meetings, whether there is any question to arbitrate upon or not, since the habit of meeting tends to produce a friendly feeling among the arbitrators, which is reflected back upon their constituents.

Mr. Weeks finds it necessary to "take a hack" at political economy in his prefatory chapters before introducing us to the main body of his argument. The doctrine of *laissez-faire* he demolishes by first confounding it with competition, and then demolishing that. The *laissez-faire* of the economists is simply a denial of or protest against State interference with the industrial occupations of individuals. It has nothing to oppose to voluntary combinations of workingmen or of employers, still less to arbitration and conciliation. It would, of course, be opposed to compulsory arbitration, which should seek to make contracts obligatory upon parties for future work. This Mr. Weeks is opposed to, and he shows that such arbitration can never be enforced, and that it would be harmful if it could be.

Mr. Weeks's attack upon competition is not more successful than his attack upon *laissez-faire*. It is not necessary to show at length where his argument fails, but a single remark may serve to indicate that he does not grasp the meaning of competition when he offers arbitration as a remedy for it. No system of arbitration between employer and employee can prevent the children of both from growing up and competing with others, perhaps with their own parents, for the possession of the world's goods. The value of arbitration consists not in suppressing competition—that could not be done if the whole world should solemnly vote to do it—but in avoiding the loss and waste, the misery, vice, and crime, consequent upon the suspension of industry. It is possible to change the direction which competition shall take, but not to lessen it in the aggregate. This is the only criticism we make upon Mr. Weeks's timely publication, and this upon the theoretical branch of the discussion only.

The arguments in support of the principle of arbitration are, as has been stated, all on the surface. They need not be recounted. Arbitration has been practised on an extensive scale in many countries on many different plans. It has yielded its best results in three places and trades in England, the Nottingham hosiery and glove trade, the Durham collieries, and the north of England iron furnaces. At Nottingham—

> "The Board consists of twenty-two members, half operatives and half manufacturers, elected for one year, each class electing its own representatives. The delegates have full powers, and the decisions of the Board are considered binding upon all. There is provision for a Committee of Inquiry, to whom all differences must be referred before the Board will act upon them. This Committee has no power to make an award, acting only as conciliators. A month's notice is to be given to the secretaries before any change in the rates of wages will be considered. Regular meetings are held quarterly. The chairman, in the original constitution of the board, has a vote, and a casting vote as well, in case of tie. This was one of the weak points in the organization, and, as the chairman was an employer, trouble resulted. A referee is now called in case of a failure to agree.
>
> "The proceedings under these rules are very simple. When any difference arises between the employers and employed the secretaries endeavor to arrange it. In the event of their failure it is brought before the Committee of Inquiry, who try to settle it; and it being unable, it is then brought before the Board. One of the invariable conditions of any arbitration is that work shall be continued pending the trial of the case; that is, that there shall be neither strike nor lockout. The proceedings before the Board are very informal. The members sit around a table, workingmen and employers interspersed. The discussion is without ceremony, and the difference is settled by endeavoring to arrive at the best arrangement possible under the circumstances. If no agreement can be reached, the umpire is called upon."

The Nottingham arrangement is a type of the most successful application of the principle that has ever been made. The Board may make binding decisions on any questions brought before it except the future rate of wages. Upon this question it may only recommend. The reason for this limitation is the very obvious one that it is impossible to require a manufacturer to keep his works going if he thinks they are to be run at a loss, and equally so to keep men at work in a particular place if they can do better elsewhere. All systems of arbitration and conciliation are agreed as to this, the legalized boards of France and Belgium as well as the voluntary ones of Great Britain. Mr. Weeks evidently favors the voluntary system, but is so much the friend of arbitration that he would have it made compulsory within proper limits. Arbitration does not prevent strikes. It does not even prevent violence, as events have recently shown in Belgium, where legal arbitration has existed under the *Conseils des Prud-hommes* for half a century. But it prevents many unnecessary and unjustifiable strikes, and saves a vast deal of trouble and loss arising from unfounded suspicion and misunderstanding of facts. The next great industrial reform in this country should be the organization of arbitration. Even boycotting would disappear under its influence.

AN ECONOMIST'S ADVICE TO THE KNIGHTS OF LABOR.

IT would be hard to find a set of men who need good advice more than the Knights of Labor do, and we are glad to find Dr. R. T. Ely, the well-known Baltimore economist, so ready in supplying it. Dr. Ely is, we believe, the leading instructor in political economy in the Johns Hopkins University, and is one of several graduates of German universities who have brought across the ocean that curious admixture of sense and nonsense, commonly but wrongly known among us as German political economy. He is an ardent believer in popular government, which is all right, and he is a yet more ardent supporter of labor movements, which are about the only enemy popular government seems likely to encounter in our time. His latest effort, which appeared in the Baltimore *American* of Thursday, is a long and elaborate "open letter" to the Knights of Labor, appealing to them to come out in support of civil-service reform. The soundness of its advice, the naïveté of its argument, and its simple-minded faith in the wisdom, purity, and high-mindedness of the men it addresses, all combine to render it an interesting document.

Very early in the letter the writer betrays a consciousness that his task is rather an awkward one, in that civil-service reform was invented by a class of men of whom Knights of Labor entertain a deep distrust. They are all eminently respectable men, who wear swallow-tail coats and white neck-ties, but we find no leaders of the masses among them, and "they have seemed to overlook the essential character of our Republican Government." Here, as in several other passages, Dr. Ely's ground is not at all clear to us. In order to become "leaders of the masses," is anything more necessary than that they should succeed in getting the masses to vote with them? If they do this, are they not, by that very fact, leaders? In other passages he points out that the only other leaders the masses have are "liars, liquor-dealers, and the worst elements." Was it a mistake to permit these men to remain outside of civil-service reform associations? If not, who were the neglected leaders so pointedly referred to? We have studied the letter in vain to find a reply to this question.

How much soever we may regret this vagueness, there can be no doubt that Dr. Ely sugar-coats his pill with great art. Although he intimates that there is another side to the question, he cannot squarely deny that civil-service reformers belong to a very objectionable class of men. And yet he wants the Knights to accept their doctrine. So, with persuasive rhetoric, he points out that they can take his advice without getting into any bad company: "If you don't want to march with them, you can at least enter into their labors and appropriate what they have done as a free gift." We shall look with great interest to see whether his clients will accept this view.

Leaving out this rather awkward introduction of the civil-service reformers to their future constituency, Dr. Ely's whole tone is that of unlimited confidence in the wisdom and statecraft of the men he is addressing. He says that the very work the Knights are at-

tempting is an elevation of the people to a higher intellectual and moral level. If he means all he says, he must think that the stoppage of trains, the "killing" of engines, the mobbing of "scabs," and the expulsion of Chinese, are the dawn of a higher civilization, and that ignorance of the boycott will yet be looked upon as one of the features of the dark ages. But perhaps he does not mean all this, so let us return to his actual advice. He says the most pressing need of the time is that the Government, under the right of eminent domain, shall purchase all telegraphs, telephones, and railroads, and no longer allow any corporation to transport intelligence, passengers, or freight. This will require an immense increase in our army of civil servants, and unless they are faithful and trained men, our property will be mismanaged, our lives risked, and perhaps we may still be plundered as badly as ever. The word "perhaps" is brought in with great rhetorical skill. It would hardly do to tell the Knights categorically that things could be worse under their policy than they are now. But they can stand such a statement as this: If when Government manages the railroads all the engine-drivers, switch-tenders, and train-starters are appointed and discharged on the recommendation of pot-house politicians, then *perhaps* things might be as bad as before.

These are not all the cogent appeals for administrative reform which the letter urges upon the Knights. Their attention is pointedly called to the low character of the politicians at Washington and Annapolis, and their gross neglect of their legislative duties. "There are fifty measures which you (Knights) want passed at once," and which you are sending delegations to urge, but instead of attending to this business, the politicians talk of nothing but "petty personalities which are not of the slightest concern to the laboring classes." So, the Knights must vote for civil-service reform, and then we shall have men who will at once proceed to legislate. The first of the fifty measures to be taken up must be that for the purchase of the railroads and telegraphs. How fast the other forty-nine will be passed is not indicated, but we are sure that less than one a day would show a lack of energy to which the civil-service reform Knights would never submit.

We must congratulate Dr. Ely that his letter appeared in the nick of time to prevent a possible insinuation against his motives on the part of his more bigoted opponents. On the very morning of its publication came a press despatch from Reading, Pa., stating that some seventy cigar factories could not sell their products in the West unless they bore a label showing that they had been made by Knights of Labor. From stopping the sale of all cigars not made by Knights to stopping all teaching by political economists not licensed by the Knights to teach, would be a very short step to a power which wanted fifty measures, like those just alluded to, passed by Congress at once. Had the letter not appeared till after this announcement, there would have been room for the insinuation that Dr. Ely wanted to be on the right side when the Knights decided who should teach political economy. Happily there is now no ground for such a suspicion.

PLUNKITT'S "PROPOSITION."

Mr. Plunkitt has introduced in the State Senate a bill, which has been read twice, providing for the submission to the electors of the State of a proposition to "abolish the office of Civil-Service Commissioner and the Civil-Service Commission, and to repeal the laws relating thereto." It enacts that a vote shall be taken at the election of this year for or against this proposition. This bill has been introduced at the instigation of the Tammany opponents of the Civil-Service Law from this city, as the only means of overcoming or getting around the opposition to its repeal which they encounter in the Legislature every year. They calculate that if they can get a majority at the polls in favor of the proposition, the fear of "the reform club," under which even the worst legislators now live, would be removed, and they would make haste to restore the offices to the spoilsmen, whose importunities they now find it so difficult to withstand.

But why should they expect a majority at the polls? it may be asked. For the simple reason, which they have constantly in mind, that it is very hard to call out a full vote of the electors except on plain, pressing, and practical questions, possessing a strong public interest, which the election will decide, such as the election of high officers and the adoption of Constitutional Amendments. On "propositions" submitted by the Legislature merely for the purpose of ascertaining the drift of popular opinion, that great mass of the electors who are busy with honest industry, will not take the trouble to inform themselves, or even to go to the polls. But the other kind of voters, to whom "politics" means simply a struggle for the offices, and to whom the Civil-Service Law is, therefore, odious, would take the deepest interest in the proposition, and would drag to the polls every one whom they influence, and might possibly get a majority on a light vote. At all events, what the supporters of the Plunkitt bill count on is the apathy of the friends of the reform and the great activity of its enemies, in what would probably be their last chance to strike a blow at it.

This much by way of explanation of Plunkitt's scheme. Now as to its propriety. The people of New York pay the State Legislature $211,200 for about six months' work, and provide them with a costly building to work in. This work is legislation, and legislation does not mean simply reading bills three times and then voting on them. It means the careful examination of the subjects on which legislation is proposed, within the limits set by the Constitution, and the decision by the legislators, with such lights as they have, what ought to be done about them. That is what they are paid for, and they are paid handsomely. They are, in other words, hired by the voters to attend to their law-making, and to save them the trouble and expense of voting on every piece of business which has to be done for the State. Any legislator who does not feel himself competent for this work, or who feels the need of a popular vote before he can make up his mind about such a commonplace matter as the best mode of ascertaining the fitness of State employees for their places, ought to resign and go home. If Plunkitt be in need of this guidance, Plunkitt ought to resign. If the Judiciary Committee who have reported this bill favorably, feel the need of it, every man of them ought to go home, and tell their constituencies that they are not up to their work. Their performance is nearly as absurd as that of a bank cashier who insisted on getting the stockholders together every day or two to balance his books. In other words, if the bill is passed, it will be a confession of fraud and incompetency on the part of every man voting for it.

Moreover, the Legislature of the State of New York as created by the Constitution is a law-making body, and not a committee for arranging plébiscites. The sole case in which the Legislature is justified in taking a popular vote on a law is prescribed in the Constitution, section 12 of article vii., where popular approval is required for the creation of a State debt over and above a limited amount. This question was fully discussed by the Court of Appeals, in the case of Barto against Himrod, which arose under an attempt of the Legislature to shirk its responsibility in the same way in the matter of an act establishing free schools. It tried to throw the burden on the people by taking a popular vote on the bill, but the Court of Appeals pronounced the act unconstitutional and void. That decision is not exactly applicable to Plunkitt's proposition, for we do not understand that he thinks a majority vote in its favor will make it a law, but the Court was very emphatic in its condemnation of the Plunkitt principle, namely, that the Legislature "may take a popular vote on the identical question which the Constitution makes it the duty of the Legislature itself to decide." Said Chief Justice Ruggles:

> "They have no more authority to refer such a question to the whole people than to an individual. The people are sovereign, but their sovereignty must be exercised in the mode which they have pointed out in the Constitution. All legislative power is derived from the people; but when the people adopted the Constitution, they surrendered the power of making laws to the Legislature, and imposed it upon that body as a duty. They did not reserve to themselves the power of ratifying or adopting laws proposed by the Legislature, except in the single case of contracting public debt. They probably foresaw the evil consequences likely to arise from such a reservation. These are well and forcibly expressed by Mr. Justice Johnson in his opinion in the case of Johnson v. Rich, 9 Barb., 686. 'I regard it,' said he, 'as an unwise and unsound policy, calculated to lead to loose and improvident legislation, and to take away from the legislator all just sense of his high and enduring responsibility to his constituents and to posterity, by shifting that responsibility upon others. Experience has also shown that laws passed in this manner are seldom permanent, but are changed the moment the excitement under which they are ratified has abated or reversed its current; of all the evils which afflict a State, that of unstable and capricious legislation is among the greatest.'"

It was discussed again in the case of the Bank of Chenango against Brown (26 N. Y., p. 470), with like result. The Court again said that the Legislature "cannot delegate to the people the power to vote on the precise question which the Constitution makes it their own duty to decide, that is, the expediency of a given law." It was discussed again in the case of Clarke against the City of Rochester (28 N. Y., p. 633), and Chief-Justice Denio then said:

"The Government organized by the Constitution was considered to be, as it undoubtedly is, that of a representative republic, and no power existed in the Legislature to convert it into a pure democracy. The organization of the law-making power is one of the principal purposes of a constitutional charter of government, and in all communities of considerable extent this must be effected by means of a system of representation by which people at stated intervals delegate to citizens chosen by them the power of enacting general laws by which all members of the State are to be governed. That purpose is expressed in the Constitution of this State by the declaration that the legislative power shall be vested in the Senate and Assembly."

We would warn members of the Legislature that they will not escape these weighty condemnations by the cheap device of submitting "propositions" to the people, instead of actual bills. They began this plan of shirking their responsibility in 1883 by submitting a proposition about convict labor; but the public will not stand another repetition of this. They will not submit to be saddled with the expense and trouble of deciding questions which they have hired legislators to decide. Therefore, any member of the Legislature who does not feel himself mentally or morally competent to vote aye or no out of his own head on so simple a matter as the question whether the Civil-Service Commission, which the Legislature itself has created, ought to be abolished, ought to resign at once and make way for a better man.

POLITICAL SCIENTISTS.

Professor Huxley's manifesto about the Irish question, published in Saturday morning's *Tribune*, is extremely interesting, as showing what kind of government the modern world would get were the Comtist scheme, of having councils of scientific men set to rule over the nations, carried out. He expresses in thorough Carlylese hi; contempt for "government by average opinion," which he says "is merely a circuitous method of going to the devil," and demands instead of it "one real statesman" of "the calibre of Pitt or Burke, to say nothing of Strafford and Pym." The only mark of such a statesman that Mr. Huxley furnishes to the English people is, that he (the statesman) would "stand up" and tell his countrymen that "the proposed disruption of the Union [with Ireland] is cowardly wickedness," "an act base in itself and fraught with immeasurable evil." But if this performance is all that is necessary for statesmanship, England swarms to-day with real statesmen. Hundreds of politicians, and particularly Lord Randolph Churchill, have stood up and told Englishmen this very thing, and yet Mr. Huxley says, a little further on, that at the last election "he would have voted for the Conservatives for the first time in his life had it not been for Lord Randolph Churchill."

In Parnell he recognizes a genuine leader of men of the Carlylese sort. He says of him:

"Mr. Parnell has great qualities. For the first time the Irish malcontents have a leader who is not eloquent and who is honest, who knows what he wants and faces the risks involved in getting it. Our poor Right Honorable rhetoricians are no match for this man, who understands realities. I believe that he will succeed, and that success will destroy him, and I am very sorry for him. I respect him. I believe also that his success will destroy English politicians who permit themselves to be his instruments, as soon as a bitter experience of the consequence has brought Englishmen and Scotchmen, and I will add Irishmen, to their senses."

Nevertheless, instead of rejoicing that the Irish have got a genuine leader who "understands realities," and encouraging the English, who have not got one, to listen to him and heed him, he dismisses him with the pleasant remark that "success will destroy him."

Carlylese philosophers discoursing on politics have always been a little obscure. They have never yet furnished the world with a good working plan of government, but we doubt if any of them have been more barren in their utterances than Mr. Huxley. What encouragement is there for public men to "understand the realities," and become genuine leaders of men, when success will only ruin them? Surely if the Carlylese gospel had real salvation in it, it would be the duty of the English public now to throw their own statesmen overboard and buckle to Parnell with all their might. In fact, it seems to us painfully apparent that there is no use in being a real statesman, or grasping the verities, if one does not agree with Professor Huxley on the leading question of the day.

The manifesto also gives no reason for despising "the average opinion," except that on a particular question Professor Huxley does not share it. If it agreed with his own, touching Gladstone's effort to settle the long quarrel with Ireland, it is plain it would be much more respectable. The appearance of Sir John Lubbock at the furious Jingo meeting at Guildhall at which Gladstone and Parnell were hissed, makes the scientific opposition to Gladstone now very complete. Tyndall is as furious a Jingo and anti-Gladstonian as anybody, and we suppose there are other scientists of less note also boiling over with indignation against him more privately.

The phenomenon is most regrettable, because it will help to increase the growing popular contempt and dislike for "the scholar in politics." The occasional appearances of scientists like Tyndall and Huxley in the political arena are mischievous, because they do not bring with them a scrap or vestige of their scientific equipment. When they get "inside politics," they rant and roar just like any stump orator. This is not all. They go much further in the direction of non-science than any politician, for they demand before they begin their experiments, not the facts as they are, but facts as they would like them to be. Mr. Gladstone did not make modern England or modern Ireland. He found them as they are—that is, what six centuries of causation have made them; and the problem he has to solve is to make the actual Englishman and Irishman, and not the ideal Huxleyan Englishman and Irishman, stop quarrelling. The "average opinion," which Huxley abuses him for regarding, is also one of the great facts of the problem. There is no more use in calling him names for taking it into account than abusing a chemist because alkalis are alkalis instead of being acids, or an artillerist for allowing for the resistance of the air. In truth, the scientists rarely open their lips about politics except when they are much excited about it, and they then almost invariably reveal their incapacity for political thinking. The difficulty of collecting and arranging the facts of all political problems, and the noise and confusion through which average opinion expresses itself, shock their sense of order and disturb their judgment. If they were ever to succeed to the government of the world, they would never be satisfied with anything short of a drilled society, from which political opinion would issue in prescribed lengths with official labels of soundness.

QUESTIONS FOR THE BRITISH PREMIER.

London, March 27.

Mr. Gladstone's closed hand is to remain closed until the 8th of April. On that day he will make a statement and possibly ask leave to introduce a bill relating to the government of Ireland. It is taken for certain that before the statement is made Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Trevelyan will have retired from the Cabinet. They will retain office, if they can, until the Crofters' Bill is well on its way through Committee; then they will go, and their places will probably be filled by smaller men. As to the nature of Mr. Gladstone's scheme, and the points at issue between him and his colleagues, we have literally no information. We have indeed a considerable number of paragraphs with large-type headings, but the headings have nothing behind them. They are like the scenes run forward while the chief tableau of the piece is being prepared. A vast extent of country is indicated or suggested; secondary characters enter and engage in conversations which nobody follows; the attention of the audience is held in reserve by the mysterious sounds of shuffling and thumping behind. It would be a waste of time to discuss all the statements which have been made this week "on the best authority." They may all be summed up in the phrase of Goldsmith's coffee-house politician, "A certain Minister is reported to cherish secret intentions, but this requires confirmation." Before Mr. Gladstone tells us what his intentions are, your readers may, perhaps, like to know what are the questions which the country will expect him to answer.

First, he will have to let us know in what order he proposes to take the various branches of the Irish difficulty. Is it to be a case of home rule first—Mr. Parnell's one-plank platform of November last; or shall we have a land-purchase measure first—a bridge on which the landlords may cross St. George's Channel before Mr. Parnell comes to his kingdom? This question the Prime Minister will probably meet by demanding to have the two measures considered together. They are indeed so closely connected that neither can well stand without the other. If they are taken together, the effect on parties will be curious. Landlords who have been looking forward with dread to the possible policy of a native Parliament will welcome home rule if it is combined with a generous scheme of land purchase. On the other hand, many Radicals who are willing to grant home rule will object strongly to a scheme for buying out the landlords on the credit of the imperial exchequer.

If Mr. Gladstone proposes purchase, he will have to meet opposition from two quarters. There are the enemies of the landlords, who grudge them the proposed compensation. Mr. Davitt has already been heard to protest against any leniency being shown to an "idle and worthless class." An ardent Home Ruler tells me that he means to echo this protest as soon as he gets a chance—and why? Because he thinks it would be a mistake to turn the landlords out altogether. He wishes to curtail their power and to get as much out of them as possible; but they do serve certain use-

ful purposes, and therefore, for the sake of the tenants and laborers, the landlords should not be permitted to sell out.

Again, any scheme of land purchase is sure to be opposed in the name of the British taxpayer. Here again we have to note one of those odd changes which Irish questions so often produce among English politicians. Hitherto our economists have been to some extent in sympathy with the landlord; they have taken objection to any argument which seemed to deny or undervalue the owner's interest in the land. Now they seem to be bent on showing that the owners of Irish land have no interest on which it would be safe to advance money. Sir James Caird has committed himself to the proposition that the majority of small holdings in Ireland cannot pay rent at the present time; his assertion was eagerly taken up by the *Times*, and we were told that land purchase meant simply the purchase of rents which are "practically irrecoverable." The *Freeman's Journal* was evidently puzzled and alarmed by this unseasonable waving of the No Rent flag; at the same time, it could not venture to shock Irish opinion by contending that rents ought to be easily recovered. It took refuge in what a lawyer would call confession and avoidance. "True it is," said the organ of the middle-class home-rule party, "that the tenants cannot pay rent *now*. But if we get a native Parliament, the circumstances of the country will improve, and even the poorer tenants will be able to pay a moderate rent."

It is not impossible that land purchase may be opposed in the name of other classes who consider that their claim to be assisted by the State is as good as that of the Irish tenants. If we are to pledge the public credit in favor of Irishmen who wish to set up as peasant proprietors, why not in favor of Englishmen out of work? If the answer is that Irishmen have become a political danger which must be averted, the English workingman is shrewd enough to reply, "Then if *we* behave like the Irish peasantry, you'll think over the advisability of buying somebody out on our behalf?"

These objections to land purchase are formidable, and they may perhaps prevail with some who were inclined to look favorably on Mr. Giffen's scheme of expropriation. Difficulties on this point can only be met by showing that home rule offers the prospect of some benefit which will justify us in running a financial risk. What is the benefit to be? We cannot anticipate Mr. Gladstone's positive answer to this question; but there are advantages claimed for some other schemes of home rule which we may be tolerably certain his scheme will not endeavor to secure for us. In the first place, there will be no complete separation between British and Irish finance. It would in some ways be a gain to us if we were relieved from the necessity of raising, spending, or lending money in Ireland for the future. But to carry out this programme would involve administrative changes of great difficulty; it would also embarrass the question of land purchase by leaving us without any hold on our Irish debtor. Gentlemen at the Treasury say, "The thing is impossible"; and it is well known the Treasury has great influence with Mr. Gladstone.

It seems also most probable that the removal of the Parnellites from the House of Commons will not be one of the attractions of the Government plan. Mr. Morley, indeed, before he was in office, spoke in favor of this course; but the repeal of the Act of Union would point plainly to separation, and the British advocates of home rule are bent on showing that the scheme is to bring about a closer union between the two countries. It is very uncertain whether the Irish members wish to go, and they have some strong motives to insist on remaining. So long as they are with us, they can hold over us the threat of obstruction, and they may consider this a useful and even indispensable safeguard against oppression by the Imperial Parliament. Then, in the House of Commons they have the aid of men who would not care to sit in an Irish legislature. I wonder what Mr. Justin McCarthy would take to live in Dublin? If the Irish members remain, their position will be anomalous; they will interfere with our local affairs, while we shall be debarred from interfering with theirs. It has been suggested that Mr. Gladstone may meet this objection by admitting the Irish members to vote only on questions concerning the whole United Kingdom. If any such limitation is introduced, it will be as fatal to Mr. Gladstone's measure of home rule as the "gagging clauses" were to his Dublin University Bill of 1873. But it is impossible to believe that an experienced statesman will make the rash attempt to distinguish between one Parliamentary question and another. Mr. Gladstone is governing the Empire at this moment because the Irishmen voted for him on an amendment proposed in the interest of English and Scottish laborers. He cannot surely dream of proposing that Irish members may in future be shut out from a division on an English question, even if the division be one which affects the fate of a government.

I have endeavored to state the questions to which Mr. Gladstone will have to find an answer when he makes his long-expected statement. There are many politicians, Liberal and Conservative, who are not willing to decide absolutely against home rule; but at the same time they do not see their way out of the difficulties I have indicated, nor do they feel sure that Mr. Gladstone can find a way. Their doubts are treated as treasonable by some devout admirers of the Liberal leader, but the name of Gladstone is not sufficient to conjure away all our fears. There are even some significant symptoms of reaction against the personal influence of the Prime Minister. Some advanced Liberal journals have declared that this Government is founded on a mistake; that the party should not have gone into office until it had an Irish policy. Others again hold that this Parliament has no mandate to settle the question of home rule. It is curious that a Radical paper should bring up at this moment an incident almost forgotten by the admirers of Mr. Gladstone—his prompt, not to say hasty, recognition of the Confederate Government. It is suggested that he has given Mr. Parnell credit for having "formed a nation," just as he gave the same credit to Mr. Jefferson Davis, and that the ultimate result may be the same in both cases. The comparison is worth noting, but we must not be ready to accept a sinister omen. Whatever our differences with Ireland may be, we must at least endeavor to settle them without recourse to the arbitrament of war.

R.

TWO NOVELS BY PAUL BOURGET.

PARIS, March 23, 1886.

FRANCE is undergoing a curious revolution: it is fast becoming one of the greatest fields of what I might call the fiction industry. The word industry is not misplaced: there must be somewhere large factories where novels are made by the thousand, as there are factories of shoes and clothes. I confess that I am perpetually astonished when I pass before the shop-windows of the book-venders and see every week—I might almost say every day—a large array of new novels, with their catching titles, their yellow, pink, red, blue covers, with the illustrations which often adorn these covers, so as to make them more attractive. I confess having bought some of these books, merely on account of the cleverness of these title-illustrations. Alas! the outside was better than the inside, and I was not well rewarded for my little sacrifice. The fashion has set in not to make edition after edition, but to count the thousands of copies: you see on the title "fifth thousand," "sixth thousand," etc.; sometimes the numbers go much higher. There is a sort of mercantile spirit in this new literature: if a book does not sell rapidly, it disappears; it goes nobody knows where. Everything must be fresh and brilliant, as in a *magasin de nouveautés*. This eruption of novels marks a transformation in the public mind. I sometimes ask myself, What can be the intellectual and moral condition of the devotees of this new literature, of those who write these novels and of those who read them? Shall we pity more the former or the latter? The former have an excuse; they have perhaps a family—"J'ai quatre enfans à nourrir," as we read in one of Molière's plays. What can be the excuse for the latter? I am afraid that a moralist would be tempted to place the novel-reading mania with many others, such as the morphine or chloral mania. The systematic reader of novels needs to forget his own thoughts and troubles in the thoughts and troubles of imaginary persons; he needs an artificial sort of excitement; and this is probably the reason why the sensation novel supersedes by degrees the psychological and purely analytic novel.

The popular mind wants a somewhat coarse food; I have been conversing with some of the men who furnish novels to the penny papers which have the largest circulation. They are almost obliged to amuse their public with crimes and detectives. I should have thought that real crimes were sufficiently numerous and sufficiently interesting; but it seems they are not.

There is no disputing tastes: we must recognize hard facts, and must admit that France, which, even in my memory, was a very poor field for novel writers, has become most fruitful in this respect. If poor Balzac lived now, he would no longer struggle perpetually with creditors; the publishers would all be at his feet. There is not much in all this new literature which deserves the attention of the critic. The new novels are written for one day only; they are doomed to immediate oblivion, like newspaper articles. Here and there, in this chaos of trivial, obscene, dull, inarticulate literature, something more artistic emerges, as a fine flower blooms on a dunghill. My attention was first drawn to a writer called Paul Bourget, by the first number of a novel entitled 'Cruel Enigma,' which appeared in the *Revue Nouvelle*. It described the placid life of two ladies, poor and highly genteel, who were educating a young man, their son and nephew, with the most delicate and tender care. This début was charming; the description of this quiet home, this Eden of virtue, of respectability, of peace, in the midst of Paris, had real merit. To be sure, it reminded one of many passages in Balzac's 'Scènes de la vie de province,' for our great Balzac was admirable in these descriptions of humble and domestic lives: he knew how to place his pure figures in their *cadre*, and how to give a sort of life to this *cadre*. But it is not everybody who can make you think of Balzac, and I conceived at once a high opinion of the talent of M. Bourget.

I saw also at once how the drama would develop itself: how this tender, delicate, refined, but too feminine education of the young hero would ill prepare him for the temptations of life. I was not deceived; the young man falls under the influence of a bad woman, a married woman, and you can imagine the rest—the struggle between the pure affections and impure love, the hesitations, the victories, the defeats of the human will subjected to the action of conflicting forces. It is the old story of Hercules placed be-

tween virtue and vice; it is, alas! the old story of the final and irreparable fall. This "cruel enigma" is no enigma at all: it is the common story. The work of long years of education, the teachings of ancestors, even the clearest possible vision of right and wrong, the consciousness of a great fault and of a great folly—all is vain. Man must meet his fate, and the punishment comes at once, in the diminution of the will, in the impotence of liberty, in the degradation of all the faculties which represent the divine in man. This book, 'Cruel Enigma,' is not a bad analysis of the struggle which too often ends in the subjugation of a fine nature to a coarse, common, and bad nature. It is artistic in so far as it is analytic; it is inartistic in so far as the mind is never kept in suspense, and that you can see at once how it will end. The young man who represents Hercules between virtue and vice, is not enough of a Hercules; he is too weak, you can expect nothing of him. He is not very interesting; you cannot help despising him almost as soon as you know him.

The last novel by M. Paul Bourget, 'Un Crime d'Amour,' is an extraordinary mixture of qualities and defects. It is, like 'Cruel Enigma,' essentially analytic, and in some parts the analysis of human passion becomes powerful, as it is dramatized and not purely descriptive. It is impossible for me to imagine why, having chosen the subject of this 'Crime d'Amour,' M. Bourget has wilfully treated it with a sort of coarseness, I might almost say, of brutality, which is evidently not natural to him, which is obviously forced and artificial. The *dramatis personæ* are always few in number in his novels. In this case, as usual, we have "le mari, la femme et l'amant." The husband is a good, honest, hard-working, innocent, and unsuspecting engineer; the wife is a romantic and dissatisfied person who has made a marriage "de raison." She falls in love with a friend of her husband, a man of the world, idle, clever, for whom love is an occupation more than a passion. The woman does not understand him; she loves in him the man of her dreams; she is blind and becomes guilty. She sacrifices to a dream, to a chimera, her duty, her honor, her peace of mind; and her sacrifice is vain. The two criminals are punished in a different way; the woman, by the gradual discovery of her lover's true character. She finds out in the end that her sacrifice has not been even understood. Her lover does not believe that he is her first lover; he has heard that she had in past times shown some preference for a certain M. de Varades; in reality Hélène (that is the name of our heroine) repulsed with contempt the advances of M. de Varades. But Armand (our lover) thinks that M. de Varades has obtained as much of Hélène as he has himself; and if he has, why have not others? He is extremely ingenious in discovering in all the arts, the forced precautions, the feminine coquetries, of Hélène the fruits of experience; he degrades constantly in his own mind the woman who was to be his idol; he is a sort of moral iconoclast. He sees a mere episode, a mere adventure, in what seems to Hélène the object and foundation of her whole existence. The more she believes in him, the less he believes in her. Her passion has a sort of repellant effect; they do not understand each other. She has given everything to him, and he does not know it or comprehend it. He has been always looking, during the idle years of his youth and of his manhood, for real love—for an absolute, boundless, unselfish affection; he has it, and does not know it. His perverse egoism makes him blind and poisons everything for him. He is not happy; and she is not happy, at first because she knows that she is a bad wife and a bad mother, and afterwards because she discovers that her sacrifice has been vain, and that the man for whom she has done so much makes no difference between her and the women who take lover after lover, and who have made for themselves, as the poet says, "un front qui ne rougit jamais."

She becomes absolutely wild with anger and shame when Armand reproaches her with M. de Varades; and chance will have it that this Varades, whom she has not seen for years, whom she had dismissed from her sight, is thrown again in her path. Here Bourget has copied an incident in the 'Petite Comtesse' of Octave Feuillet. The "petite Comtesse," unjustly accused by the man she loves of having loved another, throws herself in the arms of the latter; she becomes guilty because she has been thought guilty. The "petite Comtesse" punishes herself by death for this moment of folly. In the novels of M. Bourget things are not so tragical. Hélène throws herself in the arms of the astonished Varades; and she then can say to Armand: "Now you can despise me, now I am despicable, but I was not so when you thought I was." This confession convinces Armand at the same time of the sincerity of Hélène and of his own folly; he knows what he has lost, and is conscious of having lost it by his own fault.

I do not like this episode of Varades. I can hardly understand a woman behaving like a child who has been punished unjustly for doing a thing, and who feels that he must do it. Hélène, as M. Bourget depicts her at first, is a little above this puerility. The conclusion of M. Bourget may be moral, if he wished to show all the tortures of mind of a married woman and her lover: but the details of his work are sometimes coarse, sometimes even indecent, and the impression which is produced by it cannot be said to be very healthy. There is something morbid in his delineation of character, in his views of human existence; something unnatural and illogical in his conception of man and of woman.

Correspondence.

IMPORTATIONS OF CARPET WOOL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The late decision of the Secretary on the question of "scoured" Donskoi wool would seem to relieve me of the necessity of replying to the letter of the wool-growers' attorneys, published in your last issue. But as they have given the figures on which they have based their previous charges, I may be permitted to point out the fallacy of relying on undigested official figures in matters of this kind. In doing this your correspondents show an increase of importations of Russian carpet wools from 3,322,700 pounds in the fiscal year 1879–80 to 16,151,392 pounds in 1884–85. Now, the fact is, that in 1879–80 one single house in New York alone imported from Russian ports in the Black Sea upwards of 8,000,000 pounds of washed Donskoi wools. The apparent discrepancy arises simply from the circumstance that before 1881 the system of shipping on through-bills of lading from the Black Sea was comparatively unknown. The bulk of the shipments were made to English ports, arrived here under English bills of lading, and were officially recorded as importations from England. I have not the means at hand for verifying the official figures quoted to prove the great increase of importations of carpet wools in the calendar year 1884 over those of 1885; but your correspondents are certainly wrong in ascribing such increase to the alleged evasion of duty, since it is a fact well known and easily proved, that no washed Donskoi wool has ever before this year been classed as scoured, and that in the years 1878, 1879, 1883, and 1884 all, or nearly all, white washed Donskoi wools have been admitted here at the lower rate of duty.

Gustav Schwab.

New York, April 3, 1886.

THE TEST OF NUMBERS FOR COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The reply which Mr. Bourne has made in No. 1080 of the *Nation* to Mr. Page's criticisms of the Yale policy goes to show that the test of numbers is misleading. To those who are familiar with the inside workings of a college it is evident that this test is also positively mischievous.

The method of instruction in classes requires that a minimum of work shall be demanded of all students, in order to make the class a unit. If this standard is not maintained, the lower half of the class falls so far away from the upper that instruction cannot be given to both together, and one or the other must be neglected. Moreover, the effect of stimulating teaching is constantly to raise men from the indifferent to the working section, and the best results cannot be obtained, even among the best students, unless the college machine is constantly eliminating from the lower end of a class the men who will not work.

The test of numbers, when it is applied to the work of a college faculty, puts a clog upon this machinery and has sometimes stopped it entirely. Into every vote upon the question of dropping a man, the test of numbers enters as a disturbing element. The President, especially if he is an ambitious man, anxious for the success of his administration according to the standards of the public, becomes *ex officio* the defender of all low-stand students; if he is at the same time a scholar, he will attempt to ride the two horses at once, and more than one of the difficulties into which college presidents have lately seemed prone to fall has come from this cause.

The introduction of this test just now is especially dangerous, not only to Yale, but to all good colleges. For there are in the country a couple of dozen preparatory schools in which the work of the Freshman year could be thoroughly well done, and perhaps a dozen colleges which are capable of advancing their standard a single year. It looks as if the next step in the progress of higher education would be made by raising the standard of admission. But right in the way of this stands the test of numbers, suggesting to trustees that such an advance will lessen the attendance; and a college president must be a courageous man if he does not use his veto to prevent a move which seems to threaten disaster to his administration.

The method, too, in which the New York alumni have for some years been trying to apply this test to Yale College deserves notice. The normally developed American college passes through three stages: first, it consists of a board of trustees, served by a president and by a number of teachers; second, the president absorbs the powers of the board of trustees over the internal matters, and the college becomes a one-man affair; third, the college is (not has) a faculty of instruction, whose leading member is the president, and the trustees attend to the funds and to little else. These three stages are about as marked as the oligarchy, tyranny, and democracy of a Greek city constitution.

Yale and most of the New England colleges have reached the third stage: the trustees have nothing to do with elective courses, or with the standard of scholarship, and but little with the appointment of new professors. Their work is confined mostly to the management of the funds. The criticisms of the New York alumni, therefore, while they have been directed ostensi-

bly against the Corporation, bear, in fact, chiefly upon the Faculty. They desire to see changes in the Corporation, in order that the new Corporation may become more completely the governing body, and may change the courses of instruction. They wish to take the management of internal affairs out of the hands of the Faculty and put it into the hands of the trustees—that is, to bring the College back from the third stage to the first. Already a trustee of the New York party has attempted to instruct the mathematical professors about the functions and arrangement of an astronomical observatory.

Such a revolution in the college constitution will have two results. It will lower the *morale* of the Faculty and render a position there less attractive to men of independence and of first-rate ability, precisely as the application of rigid denominational tests lowers the value of a professorship in some colleges. Upon the Faculty thus weakened a corporation of the Young Yale spirit will bring the test of numbers to bear with double force, and the scholarship will go down.

And, second, the revolution will result in a long period of disturbance and struggle at Yale, the end of which will inevitably be the recovery by the Faculty of the position which they now occupy. They have the same advantage (if they will pardon the comparison) which the ward politician has over the good citizen in the primaries—the advantage of being always on hand.

Mr. Page has written two forcible letters, but he is mistaken, I think, in saying that "results are the ultimate criterion by which all policies are judged," when by "results" he means number of students; and equally mistaken, therefore, in supposing that his figures present "the shameful history of Yale's decline." He seems to me mistaken, also, in the tone of his letters, which is that of a stern reformer letting the light and fresh air of public opinion in upon a roomful of selfish and dim-eyed pedants. On the contrary, he is applying to the affairs of a great college, and to the work of an able body of men, a test which in crudity and mischievousness is second only to the bricks-and-mortar standard. Some of Mr. Page's references to Dr. Porter would be hardly pardonable in a letter the facts and reasoning of which were without a flaw.

Very respectfully, M.

JOHN HARVARD AND HIS ANCESTRY: NOTES ON MR. WATERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Drawing from the winter season in which I write an illustration of my meaning, I may say that when once the ice has been broken it is easy to enlarge the breach. Mr. Waters, whose successful labors I fully appreciate and have elsewhere acknowledged, will receive in the spirit in which they are offered these remarks on some portions of his article in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for July, 1885 (vol xxxix, pp. 265-284).

Thomas Harvard, in his will (p. 277), speaks of certain property which his brother and he jointly held by lease from the Hospital of St. Katharine, near the Tower, and the lease was doubtless granted between July, 1635, and July, 1636. If the lease could be found, it could scarcely fail to show where John Harvard was residing at the time, and would thus lead the way to what he was doing between 1631, when he left Cambridge, and 1637, when he went to New England. Accordingly, by the kind intervention of the Rev. I. S. Blunt, the present Master of St. Katharine's Hospital, search was made by Mr. I. G. Rugg, the Assistant Chapter Clerk, among the muniments of the hospital, the substance of whose report deserves to be preserved, and is here placed on record.

The Registry Books of St. Katharine's—that is to say, books containing copies of the leases granted by the hospital, and of other documents—do not go further back than 1681, while the Chapter Minute Books extend only to 1698, and the Receivers' Accounts only to 1819. There is, however, in the Chapter Safe a book of Constables' Accounts from 1599 to 1706, which appears to contain a record of certain courts leet held for the Manor of St. Katharine—that is, for the ancient precincts; but Mr. Rugg was unable to find any mention of the name Harvard, or any clue whatever. "The property held by the Harvards doubtless formed part of the original precincts, and it may be just possible that when the sale was made to the London and St. Katharine Docks Company, about 1836, the then existing and expired leases might have been handed over to the purchasers." In the Chapter Safe are also old leases, expired and cancelled, some hundreds in number, and it is possible that an inspection might disclose John Harvard's place of residence, "but such inspection means time, and consequently money, and the question arises, 'Is the game worth the candle?'" Inquiry at the office of the Docks Company met with a courteous reception, and the reply that the index to their deeds threw no light on the matter.

Grant of probate of Thomas Harvard's will was made to one only of the two executors appointed, power being reserved of making the like grant to the other, who was John Harvard, the founder, "when he should come to seek it." This was the set form invariably followed in such a case, and cannot, therefore, be taken as implying anything beyond what appears on its face, namely, that the other executor did not then prove. Let me note in the certificate of probate the omission of "uno" before "executorū," and also the error of "petitur" for "petitum" (p. 280).

On pages 280–1, Mr. Waters gives various particulars respecting the Harvard family, to which I am able to make an addition, so far as concerns Thomas Harvard, brother of the founder. The records of the Clothworkers' Company show that Thomas Harvarde bound himself apprentice to William Coxe for eight years from June 24, 1627. I give the entry, extending the abbreviated Latin of the original:

"Thomas Harvarde filius Roberti nuper de Southwarke in comitatu Surrey lanii defuncti posuit seipsum Apprenticium Willielmo Coxe Civi & Clothworker London par Octo Annos A festo Nativitatis Sancti Johannis Baptistæ præterito Datum undecimo Septembris 1627" (Apprentice Book, 1606–1641).

The apprentice, as Thomas Haward, was admitted to the freedom in 1634, before his eight years had expired, the explanation being that he had fulfilled the term of seven years, which was all that the use and custom of the city of London required.

On page 284 we read of John Sadler, father of John Harvard's wife: "he was settled at Ringmer, where I find he was inducted 12 October, 1626." Mr. Waters appears here to be mixing up the two separate acts of induction and institution, because the latter is the act of which the Episcopal Register preserves the record, there being no need of anything further because, institution having been given, induction follows as a matter of course. By institution, the bishop commits to the clerk presented to him the cure of the souls of the parishioners; by induction, the clerk is merely put into formal possession, on the spot, of the temporalities which of right are his.

Speaking of John Sadler, brother of John Harvard's wife, as Master of Magdalene College, Cambridge, Mr. Waters says (p. 284) he "was admitted 1650 and deprived at the Restoration." This statement can only have been made in ignorance of the facts, which may be stated in few words. The founder of the College had provided that the Master should be appointed by the owner for the time being of a certain mansion-house and estate; and Sadler, not having been so appointed, had no right to the office, nor can it be said that he was deprived when he was forced to give place to the rightful head. The truth is, the boot belongs to the other leg. Dr. Rainbow was appointed Master in 1642, and was reinstated in 1660, Sadler having been intruded in 1650. I believe that Sadler is regarded by the College in the light in which my language will indicate, and I am told that an account of him is to be found in the *Gentleman's Magazine*, vol. 91. 2, p. 567. Z.

Cambridge, Eng., March 22, 1886.

SUICIDE IN INSURANCE LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last issue, you announce a recent decision of Judge Dyer in Chicago, to the effect that the self-killing of an insane man is not suicide within the meaning of that term in insurance law. To those of your readers who prefer, with Coke, "petere fontes quam sectari rivulos," it may be interesting to note that the decision in question is but a repetition of the doctrine, and to some extent, of the words, contained in the opinion of the Supreme Court of the United States in Manhattan Life Insurance Company vs. Broughton, reported in 109 United States and decided in November, 1883. The head note of Mr. Justice Gray in the latter case is this: "A self-killing by an insane person, understanding the physical nature and consequences of his act, but not its moral aspect, is not death by suicide within the meaning of a condition in a policy of insurance upon his life, that the policy shall be void in case he shall die by suicide."

Joseph C. France.

Baltimore, April 3, 1886.

PROTESTANT EXCOMMUNICATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

WHAT BISHOP FOWLER SIGNED.

Editor The Voice.—I see in a late issue of *The Voice* that Bishop Fowler is reported to have signed a petition for High License. I would like to know if it is a fact. Have you evidence to prove it? I am a minister of the M. E. Church, and I am telling my members if they sign a petition for license they will have to leave the church. I hope it is only a rumor. Rev. S. Dimmick,

Kinzua, Pa.

Sir: This letter was printed in the Prohibition organ, *The Voice*, with approval. Can anybody point out any difference in principle between the act of Rev. Mr. Dimmick in excommunicating members of his church, and the abuse of priestly authority which is attributed to the priests of the Roman Catholic Church? A.

March 29, 1886.

A LIQUOR-DEALER DEFINED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a number of articles you have recently used the word "liquor-dealer," as, for instance, on page 249, first column, in your issue of the 25th inst., you say: "No party would venture to put a liquor-dealer on a ticket which was to be submitted to the whole city for election."

As no harm can arise from making your positions perfectly clear to your readers, will you be kind enough to state precisely what you mean by a "liquor-dealer"?—Very respectfully yours,

Charles McK. Leoser.

University Club, Madison Square, March 30, 1886.

[A retail vender of rum, gin, whiskey, brandy, porter, ale, or beer, across a bar, or counter,

or wooden partition of some kind, for cash or on credit.—Ed. Nation.]

A PEN SLIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: From a medical point of view I read with much pleasure and profit Dr. T. M. Coan's interesting article in the *Nation* of March 25, on the "Curative Properties of the Waters of La Bourboule"; and at the same time my knowledge of Biblical history was increased to the extent of learning that it was Ahab of old who insisted on choosing his own Abana and Pharpar.

Medicus.

Lemont, Pa., March 27, 1886.

[We will not say that Dr. Coan's studies, like those of the physician in the 'Canterbury Tales,' "have been but litel on the Bible," but when he wrote Ahab for Naaman it was doubtless because those studies have occupied him with mineral waters of more recent vogue than those of Abana and Pharpar, which are not now entered in the manuals of Braun, Hellft, Le Pileur, Trousseau, or of any other modern balneographer known to us.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

The publishers' spring announcements invite our customary summary selection. (New York) *D. Appleton & Co.*:—'Songs and Ballads of the Southern People,' collected by Frank Moore; 'The Rear-Guard of the Revolution,' by Edmund Kirke; 'Tales of Eccentric Life,' by Dr. W. A. Hammond, and his daughter, Mrs. Clara Lanza; 'The Development of the Roman Constitution,' by Ambrose Tighe; 'Comparative Literature,' by Prof. A. M. Posnett; and 'Shattesbury,' by H. D. Traill. *A. C. Armstrong & Son*:—'The Last Days of the Consulate,' translated from the French of Fauriel. *Cassell & Co.*:—The second volume of Henry W. Lucy's 'Diary of Two Parliaments'; 'Fresh Water Fishes of Europe,' by Professor H. G. Seeley, of King's College, London, illustrated; 'Manual of Greek Archæology,' by Maxime Collignon; 'The Education of the Artist,' by Ernest Chesneau; and 'Representative Poems by Living Poets,' selected by themselves and edited by George Parsons Lathrop. *Harper & Bros.*:—Richard J. Cleveland's 'Narrative of Voyages and Commercial Enterprises,' a work a quarter of a century old, now edited by the author's son, H. W. S. Cleveland; 'Economics for the People,' by R. R. Bowker; 'George Eliot and her Heroines,' by Abba Goold Woolson; 'Mary and Martha, the Mother and Wife of Washington,' by Benson J. Lossing; and 'Memoirs of Mrs. Edward Livingston,' by Louisa Livingston Hunt. *Henry Holt & Co.*:—The second volume of Doyle's 'English Colonies in America,' and of Fyffe's 'History of Modern Europe,' respectively; 'Cyclopædia of Greek and Latin Literature,' by Thomas Sargeant Perry; and 'Whom God Hath Joined,' a novel which appeared serially in the *Catholic World*, by Mrs. Elizabeth G. Martin. *Macmillan & Co.*:—'The Letters of Thomas Carlyle,' edited by Professor C. E. Norton; and a preliminary 'Life of Peter Cooper.' *W. W. Munsell & Co.*:—'History of New Haven, Conn.,' by the Rev. E. E. Atwater—a subscription book, 4to, illustrated. *Publishers' Weekly*:—'Copyright; its Law and its Literature,' by R. R. Bowker and Thorvald Solberg. *G. P. Putnam's Sons*:—'The Political History of Canada,' by Goldwin Smith; 'The Greeks of To-day,' by Charles K. Tuckerman; 'Documents Illustrative of American History, 1606-1863,' edited by Howard W. Preston; and 'History of the United States from 1840 down to the close of 1885,' by Prof. Alexander Johnston. *Charles Scribner's Sons*:—The two latest volumes of Mommsen's 'History of Rome,' translated by Dr. W. P. Dickson; 'Persia, the Land of the Imams,' by the Rev. James Bassett; 'The Epic Songs of Russia,' translated from the original by Miss Isabel F. Hapgood, with an introduction by Prof. F. J. Child; an American edition of Fischer's 'History of Modern Philosophy'; and a translation of Ribot's 'Contemporary German Psychology.' *Scribner & Welford*:—'Letters of George Sand,' translated and edited by R. L. de Beaufort, with six portraits; Johnson's 'Rasselas'; Goldsmith's 'Vicar of Wakefield,' in facsimile of the first edition of 1766, with preface by Austin Dobson, and a complete bibliography; Hatton's 'North Borneo,' and Johnston's 'Kilima-Njaro Expedition.'

(Boston) *Estes & Lauriat*:—A fine library edition of George Eliot's works, 500 copies, with original painter-etchings and photo-etchings by American artists; and Rossetti's 'Complete Poetical Works of Shelley,' in three volumes, a special edition of fifty copies. *Houghton, Mifflin & Co.*:—Prof. Josiah Royce's 'History of California'; and 'Hamlet's Note-book,' by W. D. O'Connor. *Lee & Shepard*:—'Down the West Branch; or, Camps and Tramps around Katahdin,' by Capt. C. A. J. Farrar; 'A Winter in Central America,' by Helen C. Sanborn; and 'Forgotten Meanings, or, An Hour with a Dictionary,' by Alfred Waites. *Roberts Bros.*:—'Hours with German Authors,' by the Rev. F. H. Hedge. *Ticknor & Co.*:—'The Imperial Island; or, England's Chronicle in Stone,' a collection of historic buildings, by James F. Hunnewell; and 'Italian Poets,' by W. D. Howells.

(Philadelphia) *J. B. Lippincott Co.*:—'Othello,' the sixth volume in Mr. Horace Howard Furness's Variorum Edition.

(Cincinnati) *J. Fletcher Brennan & Co.*:—'Autobiography of Cassius M. Clay, of Kentucky,' a subscription book.

(Providence, R. I.) *J. A. & R. A. Reid*:—'The Providence Plantations for Two Hundred and Fifty Years,' compiled by Welcome A. Greene, assisted by the Rev. William H. Fish.

The second volume of Messrs. Matthews and Hutton's 'Actors and Actresses' (Cassell & Co.) will appear before the end of the month. It covers the period of the Kembles, and contains sketches of Mrs. Siddons, John Philip Kemble, and Charles Kemble, by Mr. Matthews, while Mr. Hutton has considered the careers of Charles Lamb's favorites, Liston and Munden, as well as those of Miss O'Neill, George Frederick Cooke, and Master Betty. Mr. Archer has written about Mrs. Jordan and Elliston—another of Lamb's comic actors; Mr. R. W. Lowe about Miss Farren, who became the Countess of Derby; Mr. H. G. Paine and Mr. H. G. Henderson have sketched Charles Mathews (the elder) and Charles Mayne Young; and Mr. Joseph N. Ireland, the historian of the New York stage, has told the life of Thomas Abthorpe Cooper.

Mr. Walter Herries Pollock has abandoned his intention of writing the life of David Garrick for Mr. Lang's series of 'English Worthies,' and instead he will write the life of Sir Francis Drake.

Mr. Alfred Ainger, who has done much for the memory of Charles Lamb, has now edited, with his usual learning, tact, and skill, 'Mrs. Leicester's School, and Other Writings in Prose and Verse' (A. C. Armstrong & Son), in which he has gathered all of Lamb's writing which he has deemed worthy of preservation, and which had not already been included in his two earlier volumes, the 'Essays of Elia' and the 'Plays and Poems.' Together the three volumes give us a Lamb almost complete (and we wholly approve of Mr. Ainger's few omissions), carefully and sympathetically annotated, and well printed: it seems to us quite the best edition of Lamb now to be had. We observe with much pleasure that Mr. Ainger purposes to extend it still further by the collections of Lamb's letters, no wholly satisfactory edition of which has been made.

The huge volume of 'Historical Lights' (Funk & Wagnalls), compiled by the Rev. Chas. E. Little, and consisting of 6,000 alphabetical quotations from standard histories and biographies, has avowedly a practical object, viz., to assist in the preparation of addresses, essays, sermons, newspaper articles, etc. This dictionary has the merit of textual quotation from the sources, and is furnished with a general index and abundant cross-references. The execution of the plan is occasionally grotesque, as when we meet with this scrupulous use of brackets and inverted commas: "3910.—ONE, power of. *Christian.* "The Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge," and also "The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts" [were both established about 1698, mainly by one admirable man, Dr. Thomas Bray].—Knight's Eng., vol. v, ch. 13, p. 206." The odd heading, "One," is matched by "Depreciation, Financial," from which we warn any Congressman who seeks to garnish a speech on panics; it relates that the managers of the Plymouth Colony had in four years expended $34,000, and that there was neither profit nor the hope of any. Whether it would occur to any orator or essayist to imagine headings like "Follower, An Inferior"; or "Leader, Unnatural," we cannot judge; but we dare say this volume will be deemed a prize by the intellects to which it caters.

Two of the late Mrs. Helen Jackson's stories, published originally in the "No Name Series," viz: 'Hetty's Strange Story,' and 'Mercy Philbrick's Choice,' have been reissued in uniform style by Roberts Bros.

The admirers of George Meredith will rejoice in the newly begun uniform English edition of his nine stories, bearing the American imprint of Roberts Bros. 'Richard Feverel' and 'Evan Harrington' are before us, and are to be praised as manufactured articles.

Mr. Scott Keltie, in his *Statesman's Year-Book* (Macmillan), follows the *Almanach de Gotha* in admitting the Congo Free State to the sisterhood of nations; and he also now for the first time gives a distinct place to the Straits Settlement and to Fiji. We notice that in the list of Presidents of the United States Mr. Cleveland is credited to New Jersey, his native State, instead of to New York, his adopted State and his political belonging *par excellence*. There would be no objection to this if the table were made up on that principle, but it is not. Virginia would then appear as the mother of seven Presidents, and Ohio's three (Grant, Hayes, Garfield) would show an immediate succession from that State for four terms, like Virginia's succession for six in the case of Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe. In this table, by the way, we ought to find General Grant's death recorded; and in the list of non-official publications at the end, Dr. von Holst's History should be allowed four volumes instead of two.

A good deal more than the commonplaces of obituary literature will be found in the volume of 'Letters and Addresses in Memory of Winfield Scott Hancock,' published with liberal margins and with a portrait and many autographic facsimiles, by G. P. Putnam's Sons, for the Military Service Institution. Not only have we the more or less frank estimate of General Hancock by eminent brother officers and some civilians in high station, but a considerable fund of anecdote and reminiscence is amassed for the biographer of this distinguished soldier of the civil war.

E. P. Dutton & Co.'s "Élite Monthly Menu Cards" are certainly praiseworthy as tending to diminish the thought given perforce to what we shall eat and what we shall drink. They are mere lists of dishes, etc., but are far handier than the ordinary index to receipt books. The cards have a neat Russia-leather frame.

A literary curiosity is reproduced in Mr. S. S. Rider's *Book-Notes* (Providence) for March 27—"Old Grimes," as first printed in the Providence *Gazette* for January 16, 1822. Like more famous and more elevated poetry, these verses of the late Albert G. Greene have suffered some modifications in being copied and recopied.

The frontispiece of the April *Book-Buyer* is a very effective portrait of Dr. George P. Fisher, and the chief illustrated article is the third of Mr. Laurence Hutton's papers on noted American Bookplates, in which we find not a few playful strokes of humor, not to be expected in an essay on a dry subject. Among the announcements are two new American novels to be published this month by Charles Scribner's Sons, 'The End of the Story,' by Mr. H. C. Bunner, and 'A Desperate Chance,' by Lieut. J. D. J. Kelley.

A very graphic description of the slides on Tripyramid Mountain, N. H., with some observations on land-slides in general, by the Rev. Alford A. Butler, forms the opening paper in *Appalachia* for March (Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth). A subject of growing interest, 'Earthquakes in New England,' for which scientific data are wanting, is briefly set forth by Mr. William Morris Davis, with the aid of a map showing the areas most visited in 1872-1884. Professor Edward C. Pickering gives a list of accurate Appalachian Mountain heights (New England and New York), and there are numerous reports of mountain exploration and adventure. Nor should we omit to mention the map of the Middlesex (Mass.) Fells, a proposed preserve, whose roads and paths are here delineated for the first time, by Mr. R. B. Lawrence.

In the April number of the *Academy* (Syracuse, N. Y.: George A. Bacon), the editor bids good-by to the practice of noticing school-books by writers whose names are signed to their reviews. In hardly any branch of literary criticism, in fact, is anonymous reviewing so imperative, if independence—of publishers and of favoritism—is to be attained. This change is one more mark of the discretion with which this periodical is conducted. The *Academy*, in the line of its main object, is collecting statistics regarding the study of Greek in this country.

The threatened disuse of the London Charterhouse as a home for pensioners endangers the preservation of the wonderfully interesting old buildings themselves. To arouse public opinion against such a consummation is the aim of an interesting article in the *English Illustrated Magazine* for April. Of the accompanying cuts, that representing the Charterhouse as Sutton left it is the most valuable, for a fine series of autotype views of this architectural monument are among the publications of the Society for Photographing Relics of Old London.

Mr. Henry Harrisse returns, in *Le Livre* for March, to the subject of the plundered library of Fernando Columbus, with the prime object of discussing the hitherto unknown first edition of one of the most curious works of Clément Marot—a translation of the sixth psalm of David. This stolen rarity, in four pages small octavo, has no date, but bears an inscription, in Fernando's hand, of having been bought in 1525. By the aid of the internal evidence and much historical lore, Mr. Harrisse acutely discovers the true date of Marot's becoming valet de chambre to Francis I.; by fixing the date of the death of his father, whom he succeeded; shows, therefore, that 1525 must be an error (probably for 1535); and that the date of this first essay at translation is earlier than 1533. Among the announcements in *Le Livre* is the completion of volume i. (A. B.) of M. Paul Guérin's 'Dictionnaire des Dictionnaires.' Among the reviews is that of M. Ambroise Tardieu's 'Dictionnaire iconographique des Parisiens,' being a general list of natives of Paris of whom engraved or lithographed portraits exist, with a biographical sketch of each of the 3,000 names cited, and some rare portraits reproduced by photogravure. M. Tardieu in reality catalogues his own incomparable collection, and is engaged by way of recreation on a biographical dictionary of Parisians either celebrated or worthy of remembrance—some 7,000 of them. This work is about three-quarters done. His example may be held up to any rich American of civic pride whose leisure exceeds his capacity to turn it to useful account.

Polybiblion announces that the well-known writer on old French, M. Frédéric Godefroy, is going to undertake, through Hachette, a 'Répertoire Universel de la Langue Française écrite et parlée,' comprising "all the words and all the dialectic or orthographic forms of words from the beginning to our time, with an indication of their age"; the most important terms of the provincial patois (those of the south of France excepted), including the Walloon, those of Switzerland, Canada, Isle of Bourbon, Île de France, and Martinique; the nomenclature and explanation of the chief proper names, personal and of places, found in ancient texts; and a grammatical sketch, with the general laws of the formation of French vocables.

The first volume of Victor Hugo's posthumous works was announced to appear on the 30th of March, under the title 'Théâtre en liberté.' It contains, besides the prologue, two comedies, "La Grand' Mère" and "Mangeront-ils?" one drama in five scenes, "L'Épée"; a *fantaisie*, "La Forêt mouillée," and three *saynètes*. The beginning of a preface was found among the papers of the poet, in which he says that "La Grand' Mère" alone could be presented on the stage. The other plays would be possible only in the "ideal theatre that every one has in his mind."

'Les grands Maîtres du xviie siècle' (Paris; Lecène & Oudin) is a series of literary and dramatic studies on thirteen authors of the seventeenth century, beginning with Corneille and ending with Saint-Simon. This book is illustrated, not too well, with portraits. The author, M. Émile Faguet, dwells at length upon only a few of the most important works of each writer. His general plan is to give briefly the life, then to speak of the method, the character, the philosophical or poetical theories of his author. He then, almost invariably, closes with an excellent appreciation of the literary merits of his style, explaining briefly what is peculiar in his language, analyzing with a fine critical sense his process of composition. His chapters on La Bruyère are particularly interesting. 'Les grands Maîtres' is evidently a condensation of the teaching of M. Faguet, who is one of the first ready with a work which meets the demands of the new official requirements for secondary education in France. He had only to abridge his larger work for his school edition, 'Notices littéraires sur les Auteurs français' (Lecène & Oudin), adding, however, a few pages on Voltaire and Montaigne. His 'Recueil de Textes' is a companion volume, containing three classic plays in full and other extracts, as prescribed by the new programme of studies.

The Paris papers announce the death of the very clever and prolific writer, "P.-J. Stahl," who, under his real name, Pierre-Jules Hetzel, was a very successful and enterprising bookseller and publisher. His memory ought to be dear to the many persons who, in their younger days, have handled the profusely illustrated books which he has published. In connection with M. Jean Macé he founded and conducted the excellent *Magazin d'Éducation et de Récréation*, which since 1864 has held the first rank among French magazines for the young. It is in this that the greater part of the stories of M. Jules Verne appeared and continue to appear before they are published in volumes. Hetzel (or rather Stahl, for he will continue to be known under that name as an author) was more than a writer for the young. He was a humorist and a fine moralist, who, in the words of M. Émile Montégut, combined "German sentiment with French wit." Two of his most important publications were 'Le Diable à Paris' and 'Les Animaux peints par eux-mêmes.' His best work, a masterpiece in the judgment of Sainte-Beuve, was 'Les Amours d'un Notaire.' Hetzel at one period of his life became much involved in politics, but after his exile in 1851 he devoted himself exclusively to his literary work and to his duties as a publisher. He was seventy-two years of age at the time of his death.

A study of the list of members of the new Weimar Goethe-Gesellschaft (see *Nation*, No. 1079) suggests one or two reflections. Berlin heads the list with 257. Putting Weimar aside, for obvious reasons, we count 53 in Halle, 59 in Hamburg, and only 56 in Leipzig. Certainly 53 is a good showing for Halle, and 59 for so materialistic a city as Hamburg. But the comparison between Berlin and Leipzig is not favorable to the latter. And what shall we say of Dresden, with its 36? Or of wealthy Frankfort, Goethe's first home, with only 37? America "shines" with 6!

The American Historical Association will hold its third meeting at Washington, on April 27–29, in the large lecture-hall of the Columbian University. The President, Mr. George Bancroft, will give the opening address. Reduced rates are offered to members by the proprietors of the Ebbitt House, corner of F and Fourteenth Streets.

—The *Century* War Papers for April all relate to the cruise of the Confederate ship *Alabama* and her final combat with the *Kearsarge*. The first is the story of the *Alabama's* outfit and cruising by Mr. P. D. Haywood, "one of the crew," and who was an English sailor enlisted to serve before the mast. It seems to be an impartial, and is certainly a very interesting, account of life on board the cruiser, of the character and discipline of the crew, and of the fight in which she was destroyed. It gives the "inside view," not from the standpoint of an officer or one who has a theory to sustain, but from that of a man who had satisfied his spirit of youthful adventure in serving on the ship, and has no motive but to tell frankly what he remembers of that which he saw. The other papers are from the executive officer of the *Alabama*, and one of the surgeons of the *Kearsarge*. They are clear narratives of the naval battle more than of the history of the vessels, though Captain Kell gives also a sketch of the *Alabama's* cruise. The only point of real disagreement is with regard to the question whether the *Kearsarge* fired upon the *Alabama* after the latter had struck her flag. Surgeon Browne explicitly declares that the *Alabama* reopened fire after the flag had been hauled down, and that this made necessary a further discharge of cannon by the *Kearsarge*, when a white flag and a signal of distress were both shown, the *Alabama* being in a sinking condition. The Confederate officer insists that no renewal of firing by the *Alabama* was ordered or made. The character of the officers of the victorious ship is the best evidence that they would not knowingly injure an enemy who had surrendered, even though they had been accustomed to consider that enemy as little less than a corsair. The portraits of

Winslow and Semmes, and of the executive officers of the ships, Thornton and Kell, with others of the subordinates, are noteworthy additions to the *Century's* gallery of war worthies, and the naval scenes are good examples of spirited illustration.

—The *Southern Bivouac* for April has a second article by Mr. Durrett upon the Kentucky Resolutions of 1798 and 1799, in which, noting the difference between the resolutions of 1798 as they passed the Legislature, and the draft by Jefferson, the point is made that Kentucky was never committed to the right of nullification by a single State, and that even in the resolution of 1799 it was nullification by the joint action of the States which was asserted to be the remedy for alleged violations of the Constitution by Congress. No one has now any interest in giving to those famous resolutions a meaning not fairly implied in their words interpreted in the light of the situation. Since the nationality of the Government is now admitted to be established, and the alleged rights of secession and nullification to be non-existent, it is only a question of history and of logic whether this result be the decision of war or of a proper interpretation of the Constitution. We think the candid reader of the Resolutions of 1798 and of the arguments of Mr. Breckenridge by which he supported them, will feel that the softening of the conclusion from Jefferson's language was a matter of policy and not of logic Mr. Breckenridge said in the speech which Mr. Durrett reprints, "If upon the representations of the States from whom they [Congress] derive their powers they should nevertheless attempt to enforce them [the obnoxious laws], I hesitate not to declare as my opinion that it is then the right and duty of the several States to nullify those acts and to protect their citizens from their operation." This is precisely the doctrine enunciated in 1799, and which was in the original eighth resolution as Jefferson drew it. To argue, as the writer does, that the right and duty of the *several* States to nullify acts of Congress, only means the right and duty of the States *collectively*, will hardly be thought tenable by those accustomed to interpret English, especially when the resolution of 1799, after all but one of the States which responded to Kentucky had declared against the doctrine and its application, combats the idea that Kentucky, "in momentous regulations like the present," was bound to "surrender its opinion to a majority of its sister States." But the fundamental heresy of the whole series, of both years, is the declaration that the United States was not a nation, but a confederation of States, "sovereign and independent," the Federal Government not being even so much as a "party" to the "compact." It has been too much the fashion in the South to speak of the idea of nationality as if it had been a late growth; but whoever will take the trouble to read Mr. Bancroft's 'History of the Constitution' will find how completely Washington and the great movers in the establishment of the present Government were filled with the thought that the aspiration of the people of these United States for a truly national existence was the impulse they were obeying in framing the Constitution, and was the irresistible force which overcame the objections and the jealousies of local politicians. The argument that "we, the people of the United States," not "we, the Thirteen States of America," ordained the Constitution, was as pointedly used by Mr. Murray in this very Legislature of Kentucky in 1798 (quoted by Mr. Durrett), as it was by Daniel Webster more than thirty years afterwards.

—Miss Lucy M. Salmon's 'History of the Appointing Power of the President' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) appears as No. 5 of the Papers of the American Historical Association. It is a clear, orderly, and interesting account of the subject. Miss Salmon has evidently searched well a wide range of authorities. She states the various theories that were entertained by the framers of the Constitution in fixing the appointing power, and gives the early interpretations of the Constitution. At the close of the first debate in Congress "four important conclusions had been reached: 1. That the appointing power includes the removing power; 2. That both belong to the President, the Senate having simply a negative on appointments; 3. Where the tenure of office has not been provided for by the Constitution, the office is held at the pleasure of the appointing power; 4. Heads of departments are not 'inferior officers.'" The practice of the various administrations in exercising the appointing power is stated in an intelligent and interesting way from the beginning, showing the lapse from virtue, the attempts at reform, and the discussions, down to the approval of the Pendleton Act on January 16, 1883. The early administrations, to 1829, are grouped as belonging to the "Merit Period"; the succeeding ones, to 1861, as of the "Spoils Period"; and the latest are designated as making up the "Reform Period." After all that has been accomplished, the author points to the Four Years' Limitation Law, a baleful influence ever since its ill-starred enactment in 1820, as something to be repealed; and other fields for reform are indicated by allusions to the narrow scope of the Pendleton Act, applicable to only one-seventh of our civil offices, to the abuses in appointing to consular offices, to the loose practices possible under the head of removals for "offensive partisanship," and to the almost untouched regions of State and local administration. The reformers of the civil service are greatly indebted to Miss Salmon for this excellent contribution of full, well-ordered, well-authenticated, and well-illustrated narrative. On page 23 a striking statement is made as to the number of offices in the Post-office Department from 1789 to 1817. During the first two years of the Government there were only seventy-five. The next year they rose to eighty-nine. In 1800 they were 903. In 1817 they were 3,459. Now, it might be added, they are no fewer than 51,252.

—The *American Law Review* (St. Louis: Review Publishing Co.), with the bi-monthly number of last November, finished its nineteenth volume. It began, as a quarterly, at Boston in October, 1866; three volumes have now appeared since its transfer to St. Louis. It was and is a fact discreditable to the legal profession and the legal publishers of the East that they should have allowed the leading law periodical of the country to pass to the banks of the Mississippi. But thanks are due to those of the West that they maintain it, and with so much credit. It is greatly to be regretted that the *Review* has lost its hold on such a contributor as Mr. Justice Holmes, whose articles formerly gave distinction to the *Review;* such a journal should seek to represent the scholarship of the profession as well as its more common gifts. In the main the present volume compares favorably with the earlier ones. Mr. Wm. M. Meigs's article on the "Relation of the Judiciary to the Constitution" (pp. 175-203) is full of valuable suggestion on a topic which has never yet been so carefully explored as it should be. Mr. Meigs's views have a certain ante-bellum flavor, and they lack that illustration from foreign sources of which one gets a hint in Dicey's recent book; but his thorough and accurate presentation of the early precedents and discussions on the topic in question is the best that we have ever seen; it is very valuable. Mr. Edmund Kelly's article on "The French Law of Evidence" (pp. 380-399) will be found highly instructive by reason of the side-light it throws on our own system. But the most important article in the volume is that of Mr. Glendower Evans on "Jurisdiction in Mandamus in United States Courts" (pp. 505-546), an altogether admirable piece of work, both in method and substance, and one which should be preserved in permanent form. It is devoted to showing that our Federal Courts have fallen into an error in denying that the Circuit Courts (and so the District Courts), in the exercise of their original jurisdiction, can use the writ of mandamus otherwise than as a writ of execution. A careful examination of the cases is conducted with skill in statement, strength of argument, and excellent temper. This is a paper which must command attention in any future discussions of the subject. Two articles by Mr. Edward C. Moore, jr., treat with learning the perplexed topic of the apportionment of dividends between life-tenant and remainder man, a subject which was illuminated some years ago by the wit and sense of Mr. John O. Sargent in his pamphlets on "The Rule in Minot's Case."—Since the foregoing lines were written the tidings come of the sudden death of Mr. Glendower Evans, at Boston, at the untimely age of thirty years. He was a man of excellent gifts of mind and character, and already had begun to justify the high expectations of his friends. In various public affairs he had taken an important and successful part. The death at so early an age of a person so accomplished, able, and public-spirited, is a heavy loss to any community.

—In the introduction to his 'Measures of the Velocity of Light,' recently published in vol. ii of the 'Astronomical Papers prepared for the use of the American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac,' Prof. Newcomb gives an admirable review of the work of previous investigators in the same field, beginning with Galileo, to whom it first occurred that light might take a sensible interval to pass from one point to another. He suggested an experimental investigation of the question, in a form which was undertaken by the Florentine Academy, and which failed of detecting the non-instantaneous propagation of light only because its velocity was so great as to elude their rude appliances. Prof. Newcomb points out the fact that the principle on which the method of the Academicians was based is identical with that which underlies one of the most celebrated methods used in recent times for the attainment of the same object, and known to physicists as the toothed-wheel method of Fizeau. Prof. Newcomb's own measures were conducted with apparatus embodying a modification of Foucault's method of the revolving mirror. Nearly twenty years ago, in his classic 'Investigation of the Distance of the Sun,' he pointed out the importance of repeating Foucault's own determination on a much larger scale; but it was not until 1878 that definite steps were taken by bringing the matter before the National Academy of Sciences, through the report of which to the Navy Department Secretary Thompson in 1880 secured a Congressional appropriation of $5,000 to defray the expenses of the experiments. Under the direction of Prof. Newcomb, the complicated apparatus now known as the phototachometer was constructed by the Messrs. Clark, of Cambridgeport, and installed at the military post, Fort Whipple (now Fort Myer), in Virginia, and at a distance of 2,550 metres from the Naval Observatory, on the grounds of which the return-mirror was set up. Finding, after a few months' experience, that the observations might be conducted over a much longer line, the position of the return-mirror was changed to a point near the base of the Washington Monument, and at a distance of 3,720 metres from the apparatus at Fort Myer,

With this new arrangement the work of actual experiment was concluded in the autumn of 1882, from the discussion of which Prof. Newcomb concludes that the velocity of light *in vacuo* is 299,860 kilometres per second. If we combine this result, according to the well-known relation, with the constant of aberration, 20".492, as determined by the recent labors of Dr. Nyrén at Pulkova, the resulting parallax of the sun is 8".794, corresponding to a distance of practically 93 millions of miles—a value which, if the general drift of results obtained by other methods is to be trusted, cannot be much displaced by any subsequent research.

LONGFELLOW.

Life of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. With extracts from his journals and correspondence. Edited by Samuel Longfellow. 2 vols. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1886.

THIS biography is characterized by its good manners. There is no line in it, any more than in his poems, which the poet dying would wish to blot, and this is double good fortune. Those who were his acquaintances need not fear any disillusion as to their place in his real esteem, and those who worshipped him from afar will find no appreciable lessening of the proper heroic distance between themselves and the object of their devotion. At the end, it is as if one had grown familiar with the study at Craigie House, had heard the poet talk of his past and his books with a discreet suppression of names not already public by virtue of their owner's repute, and had listened to extracts from the journals and correspondence, while all the time the doors leading out of the library are kept closed. The editor—and he is indeed only an editor—has adopted that modern substitute for autobiography which consists in a selection and arrangement of papers written by the man himself and connected by the slightest thread of narrative. He says in his preface that this method is one by which "the reader would best learn how a man of letters spends his time and what occupies his thoughts." This plan has been rigidly adhered to, and consequently the work is essentially Longfellow's diary, expanded and illustrated in parts by letters, and exhibits to the public the surface of events and thoughts in the life of a poet, in the literary and social environment of Boston, who was one of the most cultivated members of the group that gave distinction to the period.

The editor himself describes this life as that of a man of letters; and whether or not he meant to distinguish sharply between the phases of Longfellow's career as poet and as scholar, the effect of the mode of biography chosen is to present its subject as a scholar who wrote poetry rather than as a poet primarily and always. In nearly all accounts of men in whose lives the world takes interest there are some salient points, some deeds or works or incidents which have attracted attention to the individual; but in telling the story in detail the biographer often finds difficulty in managing those intervals in which his hero's days did not differ from those of ordinary mortals. It is in such portions that the much lamented "disillusion" usually makes itself known. In Longfellow's case the writing of a series of poems has drawn the curiosity of men toward his personality, and if one would get at the true record of his poetic life, that would be the biography for which men would care most; but that is a very secret matter, and hard both to discover and to disclose. Moods visited him and he wrote; but between these, and filling up the intervals of his poetic life, was a life of letters, and it is this life of which his diary was a transcript. This was easy both to record and to publish. Longfellow himself tells us what he thought of its relative importance in his real history: "How brief this chronicle is, even of my outward life. And of my inner life, not a word. If one were only sure that one's journal would never be seen by any one, and never get into print, how different the case would be! But death picks the locks of all portfolios and throws the contents into the street for the public to scramble after." Waiving all question as to the degree of privacy to which a poet's life is entitled, let us take it at once on this best authority that the diary which is spread before us is not the true record of a poet's soul, but the jottings of what happened to him in the body, the cities he saw, the men and women he met, the scenes of natural beauty and childish festival he witnessed, the society he dined and talked with, the books he read or wrote, and such of his thoughts, sentiments, and moods as he was not unwilling that the public should "scramble after." The letters, both of his own inditing and from others, which supplement the diary, will not affect the matter, since they belong to the same outer region of life.

It has generally been believed that Longfellow's life was, in its human relations and its social and material surroundings, very charming; in these volumes this opinion is sustained by page after page of detail. Whether as host or guest, as son, father, or citizen, as stranger or as bosom friend, the element of urbanity pervaded his character. One finds it only too easy to quote instances in which his refined amiableness gave beauty to trivial or even mean and intrinsically ugly incidents. This social phase of the biography presents our cultivation in the intercourse of life with the greatest perfectness which it has yet found in any literary record; the diary, in this regard, becomes at once an indispensable part of the *memoirs* of manners. So much is true of it in relation to the entire coterie (and it was not a very small band) of which Longfellow was one of the most finished members; but beyond this, some of the individuals whom he habitually mentions gain in agreeableness by what he has to say of them. To take the most notable instance, it is certainly impossible to lay down the volumes without a much pleasanter impression of Charles Sumner's nature than the public has thus far entertained. Longfellow was not blind to the grandiose quality in his friend, but he writes of him so warmly, and displays his attachment in so many ways, and insists so often upon the affectionate, humane, and simple heart of his Herculean orator, that the statuesque memory of the Senator loses something of the chill which has belonged to it; and the glimpses one gets of Sumner during his frequent visits to Craigie House display him in an attractive guise. On the other hand, Sumner's friendship seems to have reacted on Longfellow, to develop in him an interest in politics not natural to him, and to quicken his patriotism and enlarge his life with public sympathies. The vigor and decision of Longfellow's remarks upon the state of the country, the clear and certain tone whenever that conflict of "the North wind against the Southern pestilence" is spoken of, free him from the doubt which has been sometimes indulged, that he secluded himself from the great cause of his day more than befitted a complete man. There is evidence enough in these pages to show how intense and constant was his aversion to the violence of politics, but in spite of that he entered into the spirit of the time, and from an early period had his heart in the right place. That this was in some degree due to his intimacy with Sumner also seems plain; and thus the withdrawal of the veil of privacy from their friendship is a gain to the memory of both.

The social feature in Longfellow's life is, perhaps, the leading trait of this work, and its most immortal part; its charm is to be felt, as the editor justly says, only by the perusal of a multitude of details as they follow day by day in the record of the poet's own hand. Scarcely second to this, however, is his friendship and association with books. From early years his genius was fed from this source; and the fortunate accident of time, which made his graduation at Bowdoin College coincident with a desire on the part of the trustees to found a chair of modern languages, determined his fate as a poet who should lean much on books. The travels and studies which were undertaken to fit himself for the prospective professorship may be said to have controlled his career. He returned with an admirable literary culture, which his later post at Harvard helped to perfect. His reading from that time was in Continental rather than English literature, and his poetry showed its influence. It is true that he derived many poetic impressions directly through the eye in the course of his journeys abroad, but for the most part he obtained them through the foreign romantic poets and the primitive imagination of the northern bards. Had he been in closer contact with poetic motives in life itself, he might have been touched with passion; but as he felt them at second-hand, as it were, he could not lift his mood higher than the region of sentiment in that considerable portion of his work which deals with mediævalism, or with the contemporary picturesqueness which still survives in the ruins of the Gothic past. In those parts of his poetry where the literary influence is less obvious, it is no less potent. He was a poet who was developed by books, and not by experience; even when he draws from life itself, his cunning is bookish. This is the impression already given by his works, and his biography makes it deeper. It is the "man of letters" whose history is given to us. The poetic temperament, nevertheless, is very frequently to be observed. The susceptibility of the organization to slight changes in the surroundings; the restlessness, the weariness, the fret of the spirit; the delight in receiving the impression, and the reluctance to work it over into expression; the joy in the vision that comes at the rare moment, and the shrinking from the labor of the spell that bids it stay forever and be seen of all eyes—these and the other common qualities of temperament which are often as keen in those who have no faculty of language, can be noticed throughout all his long life. Longfellow's personality is revealed in these passages, but this is merely the light and shadow of life's surface; the poetic nature is deeper than that. Probably the point of view under which he is viewed in his own diary is the correct one, as it is the common one among critics. His art, taste, and treatment present the qualities of culture; and the forms of which the theme is immediately from life about him are just those which cause him to be called "the poet of the affections." Outside of home-life, books were his inspiration; in other words, generally he was sustained in the poetic mood by the beauty and virtue of which he read.

Some light is thrown upon Longfellow's methods of composition. He wrote with singular ease; indeed, we recollect no poet of equal rank who is known to have been blessed with like facility. The shorter poems, and particularly the "psalms," as they are half-humorously entitled, came to him without effort, sometimes "by whole stanzas and not by lines," as he says, and they required little correction—usually, it seems, only the strengthening of a phrase, but no complete recasting. Similarly with the long poems, when his subject was once settled on and the work begun, he apparently ran on "trippingly," and was satisfied with the corrected first draft. This shows admirable mastery as well as speed,

while it suggests that the feelings of the poet were not excited to any great energy. One notes, too, that his subjects for shorter poems were frequently selected and the poems written later; a practice which generally indicates the forcing of a poet's talents. Another characteristic, which is rich in suggestions to an analyzer of literary men, is the habit he exhibits of setting down in his diary striking figures of rhetoric heard in sermons or elsewhere, not for the sake of the thought, but of the form. Sometimes one comes upon a landscape sketched in a few exquisite lines, but such entries do not seem to be notes for future work. On the whole, the young poet will not learn much about the craft from these volumes; so far as anything can be inferred from such slight material, equability marked his poetic life as invariably as it did his social intercourse.

Thus this biography in nowise contradicts or modifies the popular estimate which was long ago arrived at in respect to the poet. It merely sustains and amplifies the opinion that has been so often expressed. We have not been surprised by the gift of the intimate and unguessed record of a noble soul—one of those memories which are shrines of the ideal life; but we have what was to be expected, a full and delightful history of the external aspects of a lettered life in a refined society, as it was led by a man who fulfilled his duties in the varied relations of his sphere in a way that made his days beautiful and his memory a humanizing influence upon all who have any perception of the sources of its charm. Our polite literature gains greatly by this, more than by any work which has been published for some time in this country. Nevertheless these volumes are neither a complete account nor a thorough study of Longfellow's life. They occupy in his works a similar place to Hawthorne's note-books. Autobiography is of necessity an imperfect view of its writer's individuality; it is usually invaluable, it is often agreeable, but it is always insufficient. Other memoirs must supplement this by showing how he seemed to the eyes of others, and the scholar who seeks the genesis of his poems must establish the logical connection between the life and the works. Of his personality we are not likely to know more—one suspects there was really little more to know; but of the quality of his genius, in the light thrown on it by his private life, a good deal is yet to be written.

THE COÖPERATIVE HISTORY OF AMERICA.

Narrative and Critical History of America, edited by Justin Winsor. Vol. II. Spanish explorations and settlements in America from the fifteenth to the seventeenth century. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1886.

WITH the first instalment of this work in our hands, a work long expected with an interest inspired by the success of the coöperative method under the same guidance in the 'Memorial History of Boston,' we naturally review in thought the work done in modern times by other hands upon the history of this continent. It is a high standard that has been set by the labors of Robertson, Humboldt, Prescott, Kohl, Parkman, and Bancroft, and yet the 'Narrative and Critical History of America' must be pronounced in scope and method the greatest contribution that has been made to the literature of our history. Not that it can compete in beauty of artistic workmanship with much that has preceded it: it makes no effort so to do. Though not devoid of literary excellence, it is first and foremost a scientific work, as truly such as is Helmholtz's 'Lehre der Tonempfindungen.' Strange as it may sound to those whose memory goes back to the date of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, its only rival is that valuable and ponderous series now issuing from the laboratory of Hubert Howe Bancroft on the Pacific Slope. One of these books will probably henceforward suggest the other, as the trick of a feature will sometimes recall a totally dissimilar physiognomy. Both owe their origin to the specializing tendency of the present, which makes coöperation first possible, then necessary; and the fact of coöperation, though not the distinguishing feature of Mr. Winsor's work, is the first to attract attention. Here the likeness begins and ends—nay, coöperation even has taken on a different guise in the East and West. The Californian editor, in a land where worth of personality is supposed to be most fully appreciated, carefully, systematically suppresses the individuality of his assistants; Mr. Winsor's plan is based upon a most scrupulous accrediting to each co-worker his every line and word.

If we may not justly adapt to the new history the sentence wherein Sir William Jones defined the work of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, and write, "The bounds of its investigation will be the geographical limits of America, and within those limits its inquiries will be extended to whatever is performed by man or produced by nature," we may safely say that in scope it is unapproached. It deals with the two Americas, from the earliest period to which surmise can reach, to the generation that tells the tale. Of the eight stout volumes we are told to expect, those at present published, the second, third, and fourth, relate the discoveries and settlements of the Spanish, English, and French; the later volumes will continue the narrative, while the first will handle the aboriginal history of the continent, as well as the strange, fascinating story of the pre-Columbian discoveries, and that dim—we had almost said telepathic—half-knowledge of the existence of a western world which haunts all the earlier centuries of history. This volume will be among the last to appear, in order that full use may be made of the present study of our native ethnology and archæology, when every year is giving what, before the war, a decade failed to give.

It is not the scheme of authorship—the striving to pick out for each era and topic the one man who knows most about it—it is not its unrivalled scope, that gives this work its enormous and permanent value. The method of construction insisted upon in the felicitous title, '*Narrative and Critical* History of America'; the coupling with each narrative chapter a chapter descriptive at length of the sources of information upon which the narrative was based, and of their comparative value—this is the feature of the book. The nature of the ordinary "history" is well known: the author, having collected his material and selected his point of view, writes his text well or ill according to his kind; to this he appends, perhaps, notes explanatory and otherwise, and references to his authorities, which he quotes by designations often inaccurate and not seldom unintelligible; sometimes, to our rejoicing, he devotes a couple of pages to an account of the authorities, and of his diligence in examining them. Such work grows less common, but a reminiscence of it lends zest to our appreciation of a scientific method. Surely all scholars who like to know the ground whereon they walk, will welcome the application of such a method upon such a scale.

The second volume, which lies before us, deals with the explorations and settlements of the Spaniards from the fifteenth to the seventeenth century. It opens with the voyage of Columbus and closes with that of Magellan. In turning the pages there appears to be about as much critical matter in small type as narrative matter in larger type. Another thing strikes us at the first examination: editorship, as Mr. Winsor understands it, is no child's play. Of the 617 pages in the volumes (exclusive of the index) some 340 are from his pen, and very many of the others bear traces of his care. He has written the chapters upon Columbus and Cortes, and the critical chapter on Vespucci, and about all the cartographical matter. The other writers and their subjects are as follows: Sydney Howard Gay takes Vespucci, and Doctor Edward Channing the other early followers of Columbus; Dr. John G. Shea writes of Ancient Florida, of Ponce de Leon, De Soto, and the tragedy of Fort Caroline; the Rev. George E. Ellis sympathetically recounts the life of Las Casas; Prof. H. W. Haynes, of the Archæological Institute, follows the early explorations of New Mexico; the Conquest of Peru is described by Clements Markham, and the Rev. E. E. Hale lends a new charm to Magellan's voyage. Such a roll of names guarantees thoroughness and care in workmanship, and no one who goes to the book will be insensible of it. As we have already said, history is here treated scientifically, not artistically; the critical part has overbalanced the narrative. The general reader must approach the book with his loins girt up. He will be constantly reminded that the pursuit of truth is no longer compatible with a journey upon that broad and easy way which we all like now and then, despite its dolorous goal. No sooner is he suited to one author than he will be thrown violently out of the saddle by a critical chapter or bibliographical note, and when he has climbed in again it is only to find that he must adapt himself to a different pace. We are not cavilling; we merely wish to explain that this history is not to be read as one of Prescott's is read, and was not meant to be. The literary merit of the separate narratives is overcome by the lack of artistic adjustment pre-ordained in the conception of the plan. To regret this would be, as George Eliot has said, to demand that not this book but another should have been written.

Throughout the volume the object has evidently been to epitomize the results of what has been done before, rather than to enter upon new lines of investigation. Thus the first chapter condenses all that has been written about Columbus down to the latest phase of the discussion regarding his last resting-place, and gives an account of the mingled light and darkness which Harrisse has just thrown upon his history; but the writer has been careful to refrain from deciding doubtful questions, and is conservative in his utterances, though sharing the estimate of Columbus's character which every rebellious reference to the sources renders more probable. In dealing with Vespucci, too, neither Mr. Gay nor the editor throws any new light on the mysterious first voyage, but we are left with the belief that we have all the light there is. An impression of novelty there undoubtedly is in Mr. Shea's article, but we suspect it to lie rather in the point of view than in the facts. His heart is warm towards the Spaniards, and one will hardly recognize, as it comes from his persuasive pen, the story of the vengeance of Dominique de Gourgues which so thrilled us in Mr. Parkman's telling. Dr. Shea corrects a common injustice in pointing out good reasons for believing that the expedition of Ayllon in 1521 along the northern coast to Virginia was very particularly not intended to be a slave voyage.

It was well to devote a chapter to the "Protector of the Indians," for we heartily agree with Dr. Ellis that the dare-deviltry of the conquerors did often bewitch our earlier writers from a proper portrayal of the effect of the conquest upon the natives. Nor is the scientific method of dealing with such matters much better than the Carlylesque. Dr. Dewey wrote (and Dr. Ellis

quotes): "History should teach men to estimate character; it should be a teacher of morals, and I think it should teach us to *shudder* at the names of Cortes and Pizarro." If it does not, it is not because it teaches us to look on the sufferings of lower races as on an interesting vivisection, full of valuable results, but because it teaches that one mortal may not venture to shudder at the acts of another mortal.

The account of the exploration of New Mexico and particularly that of the expedition of Coronado in 1539–1541 to the Grand Cañon of the Colorado, the Zuñi pueblos, and the plains of Kansas, will prove one of the most attractive chapters, for the subject has not as yet crept into general literature, and the identification of localities recently achieved adds greatly to its interest. Worthy of note by all who have to deal with tradition is the fact that Mr. Cushing finds to-day, among the store of Zuñi legends, one of the killing of the black Mexican, whom he identifies as the negro who in 1539 preceded Fray Marcos to Cibola. Even more interesting would it be to know the exact tenor of that legend. Dr. Shea observes that in the summer of 1541 the forces of Coronado and De Soto were within a few days' march of one another, and this impresses one anew with the wide range which exploration had reached in that year. It was 1541, too, that saw Orellana float down the Amazon to the Atlantic, and Valdivia invade Chili. On page 503, in the chronology quoted from Duro, Coronado's expedition is inserted once under 1531 and again correctly. A reference to page 500, where the error is explained, would have been in place.

It is difficult to speak of the bibliographical and critical work without seeming too laudatory. Were the book intended for readers only, it might be justly urged that a clear conception of the subject has sometimes been sacrificed to luxuriance of detail, and it may happen that the seeker after a reference will be in doubt where to turn; but as a rule fulness and clearness are both attained. To give an idea of the character of the work we briefly analyze the critical chapter on Cortes and his companions. After a few pages descriptive of the sources which have been made public since Prescott wrote, we come to thirty pages of notes classified thus: A. The letters of Cortes, each described separately with its editions and translations. B. Three contemporary writers (Gomara, Bernal Diaz, Sahagun). C. Other early accounts. D. Native writers. E. Earlier historians (Acosta, etc.). F. Modern historians (Solis, Robertson, Clavigero, Prescott, Wilson). G. Yucatan. H. Bibliography of Mexico. Such detail as this is not always necessary, and no one desiring a guide can go wrong who follows the methods of Mr. Channing, Dr. Shea, or Prof. Haynes.

Cartography plays a very important part in this book. Nowhere else is such a mass of information on the subject brought together. When the series is complete, the work which Dr. Kohl was defrauded of doing for this Government will have been done in a manner which his resources would not have permitted. In this volume there are articles on the earliest maps of the Spanish and Portuguese, on the early cartography of the Gulf of Mexico, on the discovery of the Pacific Coast, tracing the rise and fall of the insularity of Lower California, and the history of the Straits of Anian, and on the Amazon and the mythical Lake Parima. The cartography has also been kept in view by the contributors to an unusual extent.

The volume is bountifully illustrated, and in the best sense of the word, for every one of the nearly three hundred cuts illuminates the text, and not merely exhibits the skill and mental capacity of the artist. In this respect the 'Narrative and Critical History' reminds us of Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte,' although it has no folding-plates, and in facsimiles does not attempt to reproduce paper and external form. The cuts include portraits, signatures, title-pages, etc., and over a hundred maps. Almost all are extracted from ancient books, and their origin is indicated.

In spite of general good make-up, one is sometimes forced to sigh for a paginal date and a less rigid system of headlines. The cuts and maps have been included in the general index, but a chronological list of the maps reproduced is lacking, though it would be of great value. We hope that it is intended to present such a list for the complete work. Nothing is left to be desired in mechanical execution, though the volume is somewhat heavy. The page is pleasant to look upon and easy to read, and the illustrations have that combined clearness and delicacy which does honor to both editor and printers.

RECENT FICTION.

What's Mine's Mine. A Novel. By George Macdonald. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Mauleverer's Millions. A Yorkshire Romance. By T. Wemyss Reid, Harper's Handy Series.

Fortune's Wheel. A Novel. By Alex. Innes Shand. Harper's Handy Series.

Adam Hepburn's Vow: A Tale of Kirk and Covenant. By Annie S. Swan. Cassell & Co.

Snow-Bound at Eagle's. By Bret Harte. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

"MR. MACDONALD writes with a higher purpose than transient amusement," says the *Athenæum;* yet in some of his novels he has not found it impossible to write with a high purpose and still give a certain portion of transient amusement to his readers. Nor are the two things entirely incompatible; there may be dull and amusing morality as well as moral and immoral amusement. But morality is one thing and amusement another, and the sooner one finds this out and lays it to heart the better off he will be in any walk of life, and especially if he is given to novel-writing. In 'What's Mine's Mine' Mr. Macdonald has altogether given over being amusing, and if some reader take it up remembering 'Sir Gibbie,' he will in all probability be disappointed. The machinery of the story does not work without a hitch every now and then; the characters are overdrawn for the sake of contrast, and the "higher purpose"—which seems to be the teaching of a pleasant Christian pantheism—is about the only purpose of the book. The final enrichment of the poor laird of Glenruadh, from the oil found on his American possessions, is one of those gratuitous incidents that go far toward spoiling the effect of an example that would otherwise have been meritorious. It has too much of the reward-of-virtue spirit in it, and the laird's nobleness in giving up his land for the sake of establishing his people in Canada is forgotten as soon as sudden wealth enables him to buy it back. Mr. Macdonald is welcome to his use of "factitude" and to such antitheses as "his truth elicited what there was of hers; the true being drew to the surface what there was of true in the being that was not true."

'Mauleverer's Millions' is a novel of quite another sort — one of the constantly increasing number of imitations of 'Called Back.' "A Yorkshire Romance" on the title-page is misleading, for the story is merely sensational. Some ingenuity is expected in these plots, which usually open with the hero and mysterious heroine falling in love at first sight, and Mr. Reid has managed to have more or less of it in the story of Mauleverer's millions. There is the orthodox trial of the heroine for murder, with the usual scene at court. The important evidence which clears her, however, instead of being produced on the last day of the trial, is kept back until after she is convicted, and then produced to secure her pardon. Mr. Reid, one may be sure, wrote his tale with no higher purpose than transient amusement; yet, just as in Mr. Macdonald's novel, there is a minor incident at the very end concerning money. Mauleverer's millions are given up by his heirs because he had made, but never executed, a will leaving them to charitable institutions.

We have not had the ill-fortune in a long while to read so poor a novel as 'Fortune's Wheel,' about which there is absolutely nothing to commend. It is a poor story, poorly told, tediously padded out to an unconscionable length, and filled with a pretentious spirit that is not the least meretricious of its many bad qualities. To one of any depth or sincerity whatever, nothing can well be more exasperating than the false ideas of life and success that are produced by such histories as that of Jack Venable's financial enterprises and Ralph Leslie's easily-acquired fame as a poet, which are as unreal in their way as 'Vivian Grey,' and are only the worse for their air of possibility. It is bad enough for life in every-day England and Scotland to be painted in such untrue colors; but when the trite incident of the captive maiden, rescued from savages by the devoted lover, recalls our dime-novel days—with wild Malays replacing the fiery Apache braves—it is time to protest.

It is not often nowadays that a writer attempts the historical novel. When one sees a first chapter headed "The Travellers," and beginning, "Toward the end of a bleak gray February afternoon, in the year 1638," one is apt to read on, remembering the delight which such an opening once promised. And with an unconscious protest, perhaps, against the realists and their stories of one's next-door neighbors, Smith and Brown, one generally reads on to the end. But we must admit, nevertheless, though we still read Scott and Dumas, that if supply and demand have anything to do with making good novels, historical novels are gone out of fashion. As for 'Adam Hepburn's Vow,' it is a disappointment, for the tale of kirk and covenant there is little more than an uninteresting account of one or two outrages committed by the English dragoons upon field-meetings, with an occasional mention of Claverhouse, Montrose, or Sharp to give the color of the time. There is but little either in the way of plot or incident to awaken the reader's concern. Adam Hepburn dramatically swears never to sheathe his sword until he has destroyed as many dragoons as his wife had years when she was killed by a careless bullet meant for a dog at her feet. The savage pleasure he took in keeping his oath, and his sorrow at Bothwell Bridge because he was taken prisoner while one of the twenty-eight dragoons he had sworn to kill was still alive, make the explanation of his desperate courage to one of his comrades rather amusing. His companion, "though void of any touch of sentiment, stranger as he was to the finer feelings of human nature, felt himself deeply moved."

It is a great relief, after these four English novels, with their thousand or more pages of tedium, exasperation, and disappointment, to take up the Little-Classic volume which contains Bret Harte's latest novelette, 'Snow-Bound at Eagle's.' The story is too good to be told except by the book itself. The grotesque of life in the mountains in the stage-coach days is kept well under control, though the temptation to overdo it must have been strong. Yet Bret Harte does not neglect his opportunities, and the expressive slang of the colonels, captains, and judges, the nonchalance of the "old-timers" when a coach is robbed, as well as the wonderful scenery of the Sierras, all have their due weight in making

the story pleasant and taking. The unconscious metamorphosis of John Hale from the precise, law-abiding Bostonian to the comical figure presented before his wife after a week's hunt for the highwaymen—when Mrs. Hale objects to his hat, to his trousers being rolled up over his boots, and to the familiar bearing which had been assumed towards him by the colonels and captains—is delicious. As a rule, the slang is of the soil

WHEELER'S GREEK ACCENT.

Der griechische Nominal-Accent. Von Benjamin I. Wheeler, Dr. Phil. Strassburg: Trübner. 1885.

THE hackneyed quotation from Voltaire—"L'étymologie est une science dans laquelle les voyelles ne sont rien, et les consonnes peu de chose"—indicates very well the general direction that the would-be science had to take to rid itself of merited reproach. First came the consonant system. The main facts concerning the relations of the mutes were discovered and established by the labors of Grimm, Bopp, Curtius, and Schleicher. Then came the next important phase in the development of the science, the elaborate investigation of the history of the vowel system. Here the achievements of Brugmann and his school mark a new epoch. But it soon appeared that neither system could be fruitfully studied without reference to the other. This became very evident in the last decade. The phenomena of palatalization were then subjected to rigorous investigation, and the mutual interdependence of the vowel system and the consonant system was speedily recognized.

But this was not all: the fact of the dependence of both systems upon the Indo-European accentual system was also brought to light. Verner showed that a most important class of "exceptions" to Grimm's law of the permutation of consonants were themselves all conformable to a law conditioned by original differences of accent. Brugmann and Osthoff went further, and showed how these same conditions of accent have affected the coloring of the entire Indo-European vowel system. In the present phase of the discipline of comparative grammar, therefore, nothing could be better calculated to accomplish a real advance in our knowledge of the subject in general than careful and detailed investigations of its several chapters from the point of view of the accent-phenomena. To one of these chapters, accordingly, Dr. Wheeler, formerly a pupil of Osthoff, and now an instructor at Harvard, has addressed himself.

The historical study of the Indo-European system of accent is essentially comparative, and finds its material chiefly in the facts of the Sanskrit, Greek, and Germanic. Among these languages, the Sanskrit holds the first place by virtue of its remarkable conservation of the leading features of the primitive system of word and sentence accent More or less widely at variance with this system are the facts of the Greek. The accent of the latter is, as the school-books teach, under the domain of the "law of the three syllables." To discover and set forth the precise nature of this "recessive accent," to categorize and find the laws of the Greek divergencies from the historically primitive accent, and to deduce and formulate from the facts of enclisis some of the principles which underlie the Greek sentence-accent—these are the problems here taken in hand.

The author seeks to prove that the *original* phenomena of the recessive accent are due to a pervading phonetic law, whose palpable result was that *a* (not *the*) tone-stress fell on the third or fourth mora from the end of a word, or of a group of words constituting a phonetic word-unit. Wheeler differs essentially from his predecessors in regarding, for example, the accent of πεντεκαίδεκα, not as having jumped in some mysterious way from its original place on the first syllable (for the word means 'ten-*n*-five') to the third, but rather as the secondary and sole surviving one of two coexisting accents, πέντεκαίδεκα. There was a period in the history of the Greek language when two accents often existed in approximate equilibrium in the same word, the one being the original Indo-European accent and the other the secondary accent developed under the specifically Greek law of the three morae: thus, in ἄνεπίθετος, the *a* has the old accent, and the *ι* has the secondary. The secondary ousted the original accent in words or word-groups whose three or four last morae were originally accentless. Interesting survivals of these coexisting accents are seen in groups like ἄνθρωπόντινα, which is phonetically one word.

The principal part of the investigation is devoted to the laws governing the relations of the specifically Greek word-accent to the Indo-European word-accent. These are as follows: 1. Monosyllabic forms, and dissyllabic forms with short ultima, *i. e.*, forms which do not admit a secondary accent, keep the old accent; thus, πούς, ποδός. 2. If the old accent was further back than the secondary, only the latter remains. 3. If the old accent was in the same place as the secondary, it remains. 4. Primitive oxytones with dactylic ending become in Greek paroxytone. 5. Where the old accent was nearer the end of the word than the secondary, the result was now in favor of the one and now of the other, for reasons which are sometimes to be found out and sometimes not. The fourth principle is treated with great fulness of detail and illustration—see, for examples, page 62; and appended to it is a new and interesting view of the anastrophe. This the author regards as a real anastrophe, and puts the phrase σοφίας πέρι, for σοφίας περί, in the same category of dactylic endings with μητροκτόνος, for μητροκτονός.

The phenomena of Greek accent are here treated as living realities, and, so far as feasible, with the same spirit and method as is our own mother tongue in the admirable little book of Sweet, noticed in No. 1066 of the *Nation*. On the other hand, the author seems to have made a careful study of the traditions of his subject, if we may judge by his ample quotations from the Alexandrine grammarians. Apropos of the recent discussions of the word in the *Academy*, we note that he prints consistently *disyllabisch*, not *diss-*. His command of material for comparison from the related languages is extensive and his use of it judicious. It is to be regretted that he has not put together the titles of the abundant literature which he cites, as a convenient bibliographical list of the subject. If an American may be permitted to judge his own countryman in such a matter, we should say that the author's German was thoroughly idiomatic, and here and there, if anything, a little too German for perfect lucidity; but then the book is not "parlor philology." The use of the volume for reference is made easy by an ample index of some two thousand entries, and by a good analytical table of contents. Dr. Wheeler has made a solid contribution to science, and his book is a credit to Young America in Germany. We wish him continued success in the studies so auspiciously begun.

The Mexican Guide. By Thomas A. Janvier. With two maps. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886.

ONE is slightly repelled by the apparent assumption in the title given this book. Perhaps, however, the use of the definite article is a sort of echo from the author's studies in the Spanish of his authorities, where it does not have the exclusive air which English gives it. At any rate, the name is not strictly accurate, since this new 'Guide' is not as complete as some that have gone before it. Mr. Janvier has not left the beaten paths. He has not followed Mr. Conkling to Oaxaca and Guerrero, to Durango and Guadalajara and Guaymas, nor Mr. Bishop to Acapulco and Manzanillo and San Blas. To be sure, he has given all that ninety-nine out of a hundred tourists to Mexico would need, and yet he might have avoided the danger of misleading the one hundredth, who would want more, by adopting a less pretentious title.

Once over this feeling of resenting what seems to be an undue claim of superiority and completeness, there is little but hearty praise to be given to Mr. Janvier's work. He has succeeded in producing a happy combination of Baedeker and Murray, uniting the practical helpfulness of the former with the latter's tendency to supply artistic and historical details. There might seem, at times, to be a little too much of the last, as in the full accounts given of the various religious foundations, yet this is all so new (in English) and so good that it can readily be pardoned. In accuracy, in experienced suggestions, in genial and shrewd appreciation of the people and the country, 'The Mexican Guide,' within the limits noted, seems to us to be almost beyond criticism. Especially pleasant is it to note Mr. Janvier's high estimate of the artistic resources of Mexico, her churches, monuments and scenery, her people, their costumes, and homes. This, of course, was to have been expected at the hands of "Ivory Black." When Mr. Church comes to give us the results of his sketching trips in Mexico, to be added to what Mrs. Foote and Mr. Bishop and, now, Mr. Janvier have written, we shall understand more of the picturesque charm which attaches, in so high a degree, to Mexico. One novel and admirable feature of the 'Guide' is the alphabetized list of streets of the city of Mexico, with references to the accompanying map to indicate the region of the city in which each street is to be found. The need of such a thing arises from the senseless custom of changing the name of a street with every block. It is always a cause of wonder to one using the hackney coaches, to see the unhesitating way in which the drivers will dash off with you unerringly to any one of the more than 650 streets (blocks) of the city. We fear that they will lose some custom in consequence of this new list and map.

In the way of suggestion for revision, which Mr. Janvier, in his preface, invites, we have little to offer. It ought, perhaps, to be mentioned that the railway connection between Vera Cruz and Jalapa (p. 70) is by horse-cars; although this may be sufficiently implied in the statement made on page 72, that it takes a full day to cover the sixty miles. Instead of saying (p. 31), "In proportion to its population the city of Mexico has almost as many newspapers as New York," it would be nearer the truth to say that the number is absolutely as great, if reference is had, as it would seem, to daily newspapers. It is not strictly accurate to say that the rate of domestic postage is "ten cents for each half ounce or fraction thereof" (p. 32). That rate is increased to 15, 20, and 25 cents, according to distance. The population of the city of Mexico is confessedly something that no one knows, yet Mr. Janvier in putting it at 300,000 is some 50,000 in excess of the best estimates. Our author does not appear to be fully informed as to the wretched sanitary condition of the city. He speaks, it is true, of the "thoroughly and radically bad system of drainage," and is aware that typhoid fever is one of the surprising pests of a city at an elevation of over 7,000 feet. But if he had seen the report of the Board of Health for 1885 he would

have discovered that pulmonary diseases and intestinal diseases carried off, each, five times as many victims as typhoid. In fact, if Vera Cruz deserves to be classed, as it is by Mr. Janvier, among "the most unhealthy cities of the world" (p. 70), Mexico belongs there, too, as its death-rate for 1885 exceeded, if anything, that of Vera Cruz. The frightful mortality in the capital appears to be due to overcrowding, lack of efficient hygienic supervision, a system of drainage which would be a farce if it were not a tragedy, the wretched homes of the poor, and, finally, the diminishing area of the neighboring lakes, according to the principle noted by Darwin, as long ago as his *Beagle* days, that a small swamp seems to be more fatally miasmatic than a large one.

Bird-Ways. By Olive Thorne Miller. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885. 16mo, pp. 227.

It is evident that the author of this book is an ardent admirer of Michelet, but this in no way detracts from the merit of her work. In part, her studies were made from birds that were guests rather than captives: they were allowed in common the freedom of the large room in which they were kept (the study and bedroom of the author), and at the same time were provided with separate private apartments, their cages. Other birds were made to tell their stories from the trees and boxes. There is a great deal about the ways of birds in this little book. It does not pretend to be scientific, yet all who read its delightful pages will be impressed with its truthfulness—the best of science. The limited number of observations, and the abnormal conditions under which many of them were made, naturally provoke a critical examination of the conclusions reached. Among them, however, the number one would mark as in much need of confirmation is comparatively small. Woven into the text are notes on the various characters, traits, and habits—the joking, mischief, insolence, timidity, curiosity, obstinacy, selfishness, anger, quarrelling, talking, scolding, singing, sneezing, coughing, snoring, fainting, wooing, building, training, marriages, divorces, marriages of convenience, murders, etc.; and they are aptly followed by the chapter, "These Are Your Brothers." For those who interest themselves in Nature and her children the book is filled with entertainment and profit. All who love birds will heartily enjoy it.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Armitt, Annie. In Shallow Waters: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
A Stroll with Keats. Illustrated by Frances Clifford Brown. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Ayres, A. The Essentials of Elocution. Funk & Wagnalls.
Baynes, Rev. R. Easter Song: A Poem. Illustrated. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $5.
Blow, Susan E. A Study of Dante. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Boisgobey, F. du. The Matapan Affair. Rand, McNally & Co. 35 cents.
Boyd, Rev. A. K. H. A Characteristic of Modern Life. Five Essays by the Author of 'The Recreations of a Country Parson.' A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 40 cents.
Burnham, B. F., and Celeste, S. The Life of Lives: Being Records of Jesus. 2d ed. Boston: Cleaves, Macdonald & Co.
Code of Nomenclature and Check-List of North American Birds. American Ornithologists' Union. $3.
Collins, Mabel. Lord Vandecourt's Daughter: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Conn, Dr. H. W. Evolution of To-Day: The Progress of a Quarter of a Century. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Cooke, Rose Terry. The Sphinx's Children, and Other People's. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Crawford, F. M. A Tale of a Lonely Parish. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Davidson, J. T. Forewarned—Forearmed. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Delaborde, H. Gérard Edelinck. Paris: J. Rouam.
Delpit, A. Mademoiselle de Bressier. F. W. Christern.
Dowling, G. T. The Wreckers: A Social Study. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.
Faber, W. F. Thoughts for Thought. Westfield, N. Y.: A. E. Rose.
Flesch, Julia A. Ashes of Hopes: A Novel. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Frey, A. R. William Shakespeare and Alleged Spanish Prototypes. N. Y. Shakspere Society.
Goulbourn, Rev. E. M. Holy Week in Norwich Cathedral: Seven Lectures. E. & J. B. Young.
Gray, Prof. J. C. The Rule Against Perpetuities. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Grinnell, C. E. The Law of Deceit. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Hall, A. D. Anselma: or, In Spite of All. Rand, McNally & Co. 35 cents.
Henderson, I. The Prelate: A Novel. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
High, J. L. Treatise on the Law of Receivers. 2d ed. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
James, H. The Bostonians: A Novel. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Jones, E. R. The Life and Speeches of Joseph Cowen, M. P. London: Sampson Low & Co.
Keltie, J. S. The Statesman's Year-Book. 1886. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Lang, A. Books and Bookmen. George J. Coombes. $2.
Legouvé, E. Soixante ans de Souvenirs. Boston: Schoenhof.
Little, Rev. C. E. Historical Lights: Six Thousand Quotations from Standard Histories and Biographies. Funk & Wagnalls. $5.
Lyte, Prof. E. O. Grammar and Composition for Common Schools. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Luska, Sidney. Mrs. Peixada. Cassell & Co.
Marshall, Emma. No. XIII.; or the Story of the Lost Vestal. Cassell & Co. $1.
Merrill, G. Studies in Comparative Jurisprudence and the Conflict of Laws. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
McCarthy, J. H. Our Sensation Novel. Cassell & Co.; also, Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
McWhinney, T. M. Reason and Revelation Hand in Hand. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.50.
Michel, A. François Boucher. Paris: J. Rouam.
Morley, J. Diderot and the Encyclopædists. Macmillan & Co. 2 vols. $3.
Packard, Prof. L. R. Studies in Greek Thought. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Parker, J. The People's Bible: Discourses upon Holy Scripture. Vol. III. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Perkins, Mrs. Sarah M. Helen: or, Will She Save Him? Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
Poems of Goethe. Consisting of His Ballads, and Songs, and Miscellaneous Selections. Done into English Verse by William Gibson. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Preston, Rev. T. S. The Watch on Calvary: Meditations on the Seven Last Words of Our Dying Redeemer. Robert Coddington.
Robinson, Edward. Harmony of the Four Gospels in English. Revised ed. M. B. Kiddle, D.D. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Rohé, Prof. G. H. Eczema. Baltimore: Thomas & Evans.

Fine Arts.

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY EXHIBITION.

The sixty-first annual exhibition, now open to the public, is one of the least interesting we have ever seen within the walls, being poorly furnished with works of any sort of sustained effort, and about equally indigent in happy impromptus or lucky sketches. The latter, the efforts of the men who make a short leap at a subject and leave it, are the most workmanlike and satisfactory, and, in a discordant show, form exceptional resting-places, where one can at least repose on something definite.

Thus, Walter Shirlaw's "Jealousy," which is simply a dash at the gates of a certain school, and for which Makart worked while Shirlaw was sleeping, has at least the energy of proved effort and recognizable rhetoric. The moody woman biting her fingers is thrown upon the canvas all of a piece, her clothes and crockery are painted by well-tried recipes in broadest touches, and she hits the accent with acceptance for all to whom the accent is not jarring. There is not much truth to nature in Mr. Shirlaw's studio method; a faithful idolater in exile, he carries out his worship of Runic gods most piously the furthest he gets from the seat of his *cultus*. That he can paint a real Munich picture at this distance of time and of geography is a touching and almost a creditable fact; he at least works like a workman among a crowd of painters who work like old maids. David Neal, in a style of painting not absolutely dissimilar, shows a lady between two ages, whose sharp face supports with much courage an undertaker's tray of heavy black feathers, and who stands against a damask curtain. The face is modelled with thoughtful knowledge of forms and a sly feeling for character, while the technic reveals that success in striking a note which seems almost too easy, and looks like some inevitable formula of a cook-book. Near this last picture, Stephen Hills Parker sends from Paris a portrait of not dissimilar technic, a spirited Jewish-looking dowager who runs to black in hair and costume, and whose effigy shows that assured delivery of paint for paint's sake which seems to smack again of Munich, and to show that rule-and-line technic is not for a single school, but for all lands. Professor John Weir has a girl's head, almost in profile, with a captivating, Bernhardt-like versatility of expression; its moods seem to change as you look, and all is well but the harsh, inflexible hair. The cadet brother, Alden Weir, contributes a difficult study of a young woman in shadow, showing that flesh so shaded is not opaque, but dimly luminous; her environment of twilight is sombre and vibrating, and she only needs the gods' best gift of beauty to be impressive and fascinating.

The genre pictures and illustrations are in oppressive abundance, and in many cases show a sad medley of ignorant intentions. One of the more positive and clear-motived is C. Y. Turner's "Queen of Montauk," a desolate, trudging Indian woman in a lonely landscape; the style of modelling is sculptural, harsh, and appropriate, and the picture does not lack force. The same artist's wedding procession from "Miles Standish" is far more tame, the bride and the bull she rides having a perfect fraternity of expression, and the bridegroom being supremely fatuous, while the remote figures are on exactly the same plane of distance as those in the foreground. Robert Koehler's socialistic painting, "The Strike," some twelve feet across, is simply a newspaper illustration, without knowledge of the figure, knowledge of landscape, or other equipment for so ponderous an undertaking. Gilbert Gaul's military picture is no doubt a boon to military men; but subjects of this sort are treated with such incomparable superiority in other lands that we are constrained to refuse admitting this among works of art at all, and to relegate it also to the ranks of pictorial journalism.

One of the best genre pictures is "In the Plaster Shop," by G. R. Barse, jr. The contrast between the chalky populace of the room and the solitary flesh-and-blood spectator is piquant and well defined. This subject is not a novelty, the motive having been well wrought out in a successful Luxembourg canvas and in others, but Mr. Barse has added a live member to the group. Mr. Fitz's "A Moment's Respite," showing an old woman about to peel a dish of apples, is an intelligent and skilful piece of naturalism, a blood-relation of the fine school of Dutch art with similar domestic topic. Hovenden's negro boy, shooting out his tongue in a desperate challenge to his copy-book, is a workmanlike and graphic study. When the same artist elects to illustrate Kingsley's "Harbor Bar," he sadly proves that knowledge of drawing and form does not help one to dignity of sentiment, and that Bastien-Lepage's Joan of Arc does not willingly give away her grace and beauty even to the flattery of imitation.

Beckwith's country nurse with a babe in her arms is one of his least successful works, his bright decision of modelling here giving place to woodenness and indefiniteness; only one hand is fairly shown, which is a heresy in pictures with a single principal figure, and that hand is an infant's, quite a masterpiece of slurred and contemptuous design. Maynard's infant picture, of a resolute and determined little maid in a beehive hat, with tumbling blonde hair and light complexion, is a success in fair flesh and positive character, both so hard to get in the soft clay of child portraiture. Dielman's refined head of a young lady in broad black hat and well-sketched black costume we were tempted to mention along with the Munich plaster sketches of Neal and Shirlaw, but reflected that this would do injustice to its elegance and cosmopolitanism; it is of a delicacy that effaces the barriers of the schools, and makes a standard of its own.

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The Week.

THE vote in the House a week ago against Mr. Bland's bill for the free coinage of silver, and the vote against suspension of the present coinage, have substantially defined the fiscal and monetary situation for a year to come. It is evident that there is a balance of power in Congress, consisting of members really "unfriendly to silver," but who are compelled by the sentiment or prejudice of their constituents to vote against any cessation of the coinage. They perceive, as clearly as anybody can, that the existing law is unphilosophical, useless, and worse than useless, being in fact a wasteful expenditure of $2,000,000 per month for a kind of property not wanted. They have learned this by experience, observation, and discussion, and they would be ready to cast their votes for a suspension of the coinage if they believed that they could safely do so. While they cannot do this at the present time, they can vote on the side issues of the coinage question in such way as to frustrate the intentions of the "friends of silver," and to save the country from the misfortunes of a change in the monetary standard.

What we have to face, therefore, is the continued purchase of $2,000,000 worth of silver bullion per month, and the stamping of the same with the figure of a buzzard and the consoling legend, "In God we Trust." The resulting coins will continue to pile themselves up in the Treasury. No Secretary will touch them, except, of course, so far as may be necessary to transfer them from one vault to another. Nor is it likely that any Congress will compel him to do so. The question of the paying out of silver is one of the side issues upon which the balance of power in Congress may be cast either way without much danger to the individual Congressman. It is not probable that a bill directing the Secretary of the Treasury to pay out silver would get any greater number of votes than Mr. Bland's bill for free coinage received. It is very certain that such a bill would be vetoed, and that it could not be passed over a veto. The course of events is likely to be monotonous for some time to come, consisting of the silent working of the mint and the useless heaping up of silver dollars. Can this go on forever without bringing about a change in the monetary standard? This question cannot be answered *ex cathedra*. If the public revenues exceed the public expenditures by $2,000,000 per month, and if there is no coercive legislation to force the hand of the Secretary of the Treasury, we do not see why the present coinage may not continue indefinitely, without any worse result than a waste of $24,000,000 per annum of the public resources, or rather of the difference between the purchase price and the selling price of that amount of bullion. It is now probable that the coinage will continue until the majority of the people in the South and West get tired of paying this tax, or rather until they come to see that it is a tax and that it can never be anything else. But they will find out the truth some time. Meanwhile there is a chance that Mr. Bland himself may get tired of the present law, which he never favored, and which he has always been trying to supersede by free coinage, and that he may expose its unphilosophical character. It is much to be desired that he should do so, because he would be listened to by the "friends of silver" everywhere. That the present condition should be permanent is politically impossible, whether commercially possible or not. We think that the changes from this time forward must be favorable to the gold standard, and that the decisive vote against free coinage is the first sign of the turning tide.

The bloody collision between deputy sheriffs and the mob at East St. Louis on Friday, in which several men and one woman were killed, is only what was to have been expected any day for the past fortnight. The despatches attempt to apportion the responsibility for the slaughter among the deputy sheriffs who fired the fatal shots, and to fasten the chief blame upon one of them, who is represented to be a cowboy of the dime-novel school. But this is a waste of words. The man really responsible for the loss of life is Richard J. Oglesby, Governor of Illinois, in which State East St. Louis is situated, just as the man responsible for the similar loss of lives at Fort Worth the other day was John Ireland, Governor of Texas. These men, as chief executive officers of their States, were bound by their oaths to dispel mobs and maintain order. Yet they deliberately and persistently refused to do their duty, and by their inaction encouraged ignorant and desperate men to suppose that the power of the State might be defied with impunity. For days before the collision at Fort Worth it had been notorious that the civil authorities of the town needed the support of the commonwealth to protect men who were engaged in the peaceable attempt to keep open railroad communication, and yet the Democratic Governor of Texas neglected to order out the military until the killing had occurred. For days it has been notorious that the small force of civil officials at East St. Louis could not properly protect property and maintain order, yet the Republican Governor of Illinois left these few deputy sheriffs to cope with a mob which was growing more desperate every day. The sheriff of the county may have selected poor material for deputies, but the fact needs to be emphasized, for the benefit of other Executives who may be placed in similar circumstances, that the one man primarily responsible for the East St. Louis killings is the Governor of Illinois, who, knowing by personal observation what duty demanded of him, refused to exercise the power of the State to end the anarchy which has for weeks existed with his connivance.

The investigation into "the disturbed conditions now existing in the relations between railroad corporations engaged in inter-State commerce and their employees in the States of Illinois, Missouri, Kansas, Arkansas, and Texas," moved by Mr. Morrison and adopted by the House, is manifestly nothing but a tub to the whale. There are no disturbed conditions in the relations existing between the Missouri Pacific Railway and its employees. The only disturbance existing is between certain persons who voluntarily ceased to be employees of that company and the officers of the law. If Congress intends to investigate that disagreement, well and good. It is within the scope of its powers to regulate commerce between the States, and if it finds such commerce obstructed, it may remove the obstructions. It may be within the scope of its powers to inquire into the proceedings of a secret society which sets itself up as a branch of Government, which is not the executive, or the legislative, or the judicial branch, but which claims powers belonging to all three. When it finds out what the pretensions of this fourth branch of government are, it may properly express an opinion as to the foundation of its claims, and tell us whether they are reconcilable with the Constitution of the United States. Beyond this it cannot go, as all the members who voted for the resolution well know. The Knights of Labor in the Southwest have worked themselves into the belief that they are a Power, with whom treaties are to be made by other Powers. All their talk runs to the conclusion that, until they are satisfied, there is a disturbance of the comity of states. Even the Executive Board sent out to St. Louis by Mr. Powderly share in this delusion. Much of their talk, which to the average citizen looks like a congeries of unaccountable lies, becomes intelligible if they consider themselves a fourth estate in the affairs of government, struggling for "recognition" by the other accredited authorities of the land.

One of the curious things in the talk of the representatives of the strikers in the Southwest is that they invariably maintain that the strikers commit no acts of violence to persons or property, that the stopping of trains, "killing" of engines, tearing up of tracks, and disarrangement of switches and threatening or assaulting of guards, are all the work of wicked outsiders. It makes little difference, however, who does the actual violence, if violence be the constant accompaniment of every strike and the first condition of its success. People who deliberately and knowingly give wicked men a chance to commit wickedness, are just as bad as if they were wicked themselves. As a matter of fact, no large strike of unskilled or slightly skilled labor in this country would succeed for two days in stopping any kind of business, but for the prompt appearance of wicked outsiders to kick and cuff and maim and murder the persons who take the place of the strikers, and to break or burn or in some manner damage the machinery, or utensils, or stock in trade of the employers. The whole strike system, as at present con-

ducted, is, in fact, based on fraud and violence, and the feeble requests of the Master Workman and the Secretary to the strikers to be good and gentle and rely on justice and moral suasion, are sickening the public.

Plans for boycotting Jay Gould are said to be on foot in the councils of the local organization of the Knights of Labor. It was commonly understood that the strike on the Missouri-Pacific Railroad was a boycott of Gould on the largest possible scale, and that it had turned out a failure. If there are any other resources in the armory of Knighthood by which Gould can be reached, it would be interesting to know what they are. The proceeding would at least divide public attention with the boycott of Mrs. Gray. It might even rehabilitate Gould to some extent in public estimation. The way of getting at him will need to be first devised, and this will be a matter of no small difficulty, seeing that he keeps a private yacht and can load it up with provisions and run out to sea in case he finds himself cut off by the butcher and baker and candlestick-maker in the city. We advise the local Knights not to make themselves ridiculous by dividing their forces between a Missouri boycott and a New York boycott. Let them rather concentrate their efforts in sustaining Martin Irons and his followers in their heroic abstention from labor in the Southwest. Every dollar contributed to the support of idle men on the line of the Missouri-Pacific Railway will fill Gould with dismay, while he will laugh in his sleeve at all attempts to cut off his private bread and butter in New York.

The latest phenomenon in the "labor question" is the closing of a silk mill in Paterson employing 1,200 hands. A cigarmaker from Albany, holding some sort of position among the Knights of Labor, went down there a few days ago, and insisted on having important changes made in the management of the dye-house. Being denied, he "snapped his fingers," as he passed through the factory, and thereupon every man and boy in it quit work. None of them knew why the cigarmaker snapped his fingers, and they say now it was tyrannical of him to do so, but they quitted work just the same. The local Assembly has since waited on the proprietor, Mr. Strange, to say it was all a mistake and ask him to take the strikers back; but on ascertaining that the cigarmaker had not been expelled or even censured for snapping his fingers, he refused to do so, and will not reopen the mill as long as his business is at the mercy of wandering cigarmakers. There is a comic side to nearly everything, and the comic side of this is that a body of men who can be made to abandon their means of livelihood on receiving a sign from an unknown man, complain bitterly of "the tyranny of capital." In this city the drivers and conductors on the Fourth Avenue Railroad after having settled all their differences with their own employers, struck again, without knowing why, on having two fingers held up to them by a man who walked along the track. And yet these men are American citizens, and look down on the Russians and Prussians and I-talians.

The discussion in the Senate last week over the proposed amendment to the Army Bill allowing the employment as officers in the Federal army of men who served in the Confederate army, reads like a leaf out of some old history. Among the men on the Republican side of the Senate sat one of the chief of the Confederate brigadiers, the trusted lieutenant of Robert E. Lee, engaged in making laws for the nation which he sought to destroy. With this spectacle before him the ancient Conger of Michigan, a relic of the bloody-shirt era which everybody else sees has past, had the assurance to get up and make a long speech, urging that it would be disloyal to allow some unknown Confederate soldier to earn by his merits a place in the Federal army, while one of the most famous Confederate generals sits in the Federal Congress and helps to frame the laws which the army may be called upon to enforce! It is seldom that we have a chance to speak well of Mahone, and we are therefore glad to say that he showed consistency and sense in voting to make no distinction between the "Confederate brigadier" and the Confederate private. More noteworthy than this is the fact that two other Republicans, who were on the Union side during the war, voted with the ex-rebel Republican and the Democrats for the proposed amendment. When men like Jones, of Nevada, and Don Cameron, of Pennsylvania, show independence enough to take such a stand, bloody-shirt orators of the Conger school must recognize that their occupation is gone.

The President's appointment of Senator Jackson, of Tennessee, to fill the vacancy in the United States Circuit Judgeship caused by Judge Baxter's death, is highly commended by candid men of all parties. Like his selection of Mr. Merrick for the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia last year, it shows that Mr. Cleveland can be trusted to discharge this most responsible branch of the Executive's duty with a conscientious purpose to do the best thing for the country. The assurance that new judicial offices would be filled in this spirit ought to stir up members of both parties in each branch of Congress to the passage of some bill for the relief of the overworked Supreme Court of the United States, either by an addition to the present bench or by the creation of a new intermediate court.

The Forty-ninth Congress has earned a long credit-mark by passing the bill providing for the erection of a National Library building at Washington. The plans which have been adopted contemplate a structure about 460 feet in length and 310 feet in depth, and the most eminent European architects commend the scheme as likely to produce the finest building, for the purpose in view, to be found anywhere in the world. The building will be placed a square east of the Capitol, and will add another to the growing attractions of the city, while its erection will end the long-standing scandal of the present grossly inadequate arrangements for housing the vast library already collected.

When Congressman Willis, of Kentucky, some three weeks ago, decided to take the Blair bill away from the Committee on Education, he picked out the Labor Committee as one which could be trusted to report it back to the House favorably without the slightest hesitation. But the members of the Labor Committee no sooner began to examine the matter than they were impressed with the fatal objections to the scheme, and a majority of the Committee is found to be opposed to the project. The opponents of the bill have always maintained that a careful consideration was the only thing needed to secure its rejection, and every new development in its history shows that they were right.

The passage of the Mexican Pension Bill by the House is a discouraging sign that good sense stands little chance in that body in a contest with demagogism. The measure proposes to give $8 a month to every man who was enlisted in the United States army during the war with Mexico, whether he saw any active service or not, whether he was wounded or not, whether he is to-day a millionaire or a tramp; and to the widow of any such man. It is, in short, in the form in which it was presented, an utterly indefensible measure, and yet only 69 Representatives recorded themselves against it, to 157 in its favor. High praise must be awarded the few Southern members who voted against it, for it is the one possible pension measure which promises to do anything for their section, a large share of the United States army in that war having come from what is now called "the solid South." We are glad to see that on the short "roll of honor" which records the members with independence enough to vote their convictions, are so many New York names.

It is a great pity that the Committee on Rules had not reported back that proposed change, which authorizes the addition as an amendment to any pension bill of a clause imposing the extra taxes which the bill will require. The money which it is proposed to toss about in this haphazard way is money which must be raised by taxation, and by new taxation. This is the fact which ought to be pushed home every time by the opponents of every scheme for extravagant appropriations, since nothing can be more fatal to even the most plausible project. As Congressman Tucker, of Virginia, told a correspondent the other day, in speaking of the $77,000,000 Educational Bill: "If the money which it is proposed to appropriate had to be raised by direct taxation, there would not be a vote in the House for the measure." The real strength of all these pension jobs is the impression which has been so sedulously cultivated that there is a "vast surplus" in the Treasury, which may be drawn upon for any purpose without any taxpayer's being a cent worse off. It cannot be too often repeated that there is no surplus at all for the next fiscal year, opening with the 1st of July, 1886, for which Congress is now making appropriations. On the contrary, Secretary Manning has shown that the estimated expenditures of the Government for that fiscal year exceed the estimated re-

venues by $24,589,552, and that was before the passage last month of the bill increasing the rate of widows' pensions and calling for $6,000,000 more a year, which increases the estimated deficit for the fiscal year 1886-87 above $30,000,000.

The fact that several Democrats in the Senate voted on Saturday with the Republicans for the bill to admit into the Union Washington Territory, after the northern "pan-handle" of Idaho has been united with it, indicates that there may be a chance for the measure in the lower branch of Congress. Public sentiment would sustain such action. The Territory has already sufficient population and assurance of future growth to justify its erection into a State, and the manly fashion in which its people put down the anti-Chinese rioters a few weeks ago shows that it is no longer a frontier settlement, but a well-ordered community. The House should, however, insist upon a change in the name of the Territory before it becomes a State. It would be a grave mistake to perpetuate the confusion caused by retaining the present title, and the mistake would be the more inexcusable when so ideal a substitute as Tacoma is at hand.

The special-delivery service of the postal department does not grow in popularity. On the contrary, the number of letters carried in the mails under this stamp has grown smaller every month since the system was started, and the total for February was only 65,159, against 86,123 in November. There is nothing strange about this, for the service has little to recommend it. Anybody who really demands celerity is pretty sure to prefer the telegraph or the messenger service, and the possible field is thus very restricted. Then, too, the system causes no little inconvenience to recipients of letters. A letter bearing this stamp, if received at the office at any moment before midnight, must be delivered that night, and the result is that people are waked out of their sleep at half-past 12 or 1 o'clock to receive letters which would be brought around by breakfast-time at the first carrier's round, and which they do not care about getting before that time. The amount of midnight profanity caused by this special-delivery business in the course of a year is by no means inconsiderable.

Thursday was so-called Fast Day in Massachusetts, and the incongruity between the name and the thing was never more marked. For the overwhelming majority of the population the occasion is a holiday, pure and simple, while its observance in a religious way grows more perfunctory every year. That it has become an anachronism, and has no strength except the *vis inertiæ* possessed by every tradition, is strikingly demonstrated by these comments of the Boston *Congregationalist:*

"Thursday of this week is Fast Day in Massachusetts, and Governor Robinson has issued a proclamation, as usual, recommending its observance. So long as it is set apart annually thus, it certainly is desirable that Christian people refrain from treating it as a mere holiday, like the Fourth of July. The question whether it would not be wiser to abandon its observance—except in cases of special and recognized importance, such as occurred now and then during the war of the Rebellion—continues to be discussed actively. A few object to its appointment on the ground that the State should not determine religious occasions, and others because of its treatment by such multitudes as a day of actual jollification. The desire of many for a business holiday about this time is met by the proposition to make a legal holiday of April 19, the anniversary of the battle of Lexington."

The *Congregationalist* is the recognized organ of the denomination whose name it bears—a denomination which only two generations since was still virtually the established State Church of Massachusetts. Yet the *Congregationalist* utters no word of protest against the talk about abolishing Fast Day, but tacitly endorses the proposition to substitute for the obsolescent religious occasion a genuine popular holiday. It is evidently only a question of a short time when this change will be made.

Good sense is so seldom shown in the nomenclature of States and towns that any exhibition of this quality merits general commendation. Horseheads had been, from its earliest settlement, the name of a village in Chemung County, half-a-dozen miles north of the city of Elmira. It perpetuated the memory of an interesting historical event—the slaughter by General Sullivan's forces of their horses, on their return from the expedition against the Six Nations, as the remainder of the journey back to civilization was made by water. The name was distinctive, historical, unique; in short, it possessed every claim to preservation. About a year ago, however, somebody conceived the idea that the title was "not sufficiently high-toned," and managed to get it changed to the meaningless North Elmira. But, after taking time to think the matter over, the people of the village have repented of their folly in hastily consenting to the alteration, and they have just secured the restoration of the familiar old name.

The prospects of Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule Bill seem to be slightly improving within the last day or two, the first burst of rage and surprise among its opponents being over, and the figure cut by the revolting Liberals having proved on the whole poor. Nobody in the opposition has suffered more than Chamberlain. His attack on Gladstone was inexcusably fierce and bitter, even if it had been strong. But the reference to Gladstone's opinions about the prospects of the Southern Confederacy had all the marks of a demagogue's trick. He drew the inference, amid Tory cheers, that Gladstone's having made a mistake on a question of foreign politics concerning which his information must at best have been exceedingly slight and vague, created a presumption of some force that he was also mistaken about a question of home politics with which he had been familiar for fifty years, and to the study of which he had given his best powers. It is impossible to suppose that any man in Chamberlain's position can resort to a device of this sort toward a colleague without permanent injury to his reputation and influence.

The Greek war fever continues to trouble the kingdom and the diplomatic world. The Minister of War has visited the northern defences, and promised a speedy call to the field of battle if the claims of Hellenic honor are not satisfied. The warnings of the great Powers remain unheeded in Athens. Coercion is threatened, but not unanimously, Russia ostentatiously refusing all participation in it. Greece has won the special favor of the Czar by arming against Bulgaria simultaneously with Servia, without being, like that kingdom, a protégé of Austria-Hungary. On this favor and the known, though diplomatically disguised, repugnance of both the English and French Governments to the use of force in favor of Ottoman sway, against a Christian people aspiring to national integrity, the Greeks reckon in their patriotic excitement. Yet they may easily overestimate the value of that repugnance. Not only is their old friend Mr. Gladstone very uncertain of to-morrow's possession of power, but he may, however reluctantly, himself carry out the threats of coercion already made, with the same startling deviation from cherished principles and predilections which he has shown in Afghanistan, in South Africa, in Egypt and the Sudan, and in Burmah. And France cannot afford to separate her action from that of England and make common cause with Russia as long as the influence of Germany is emphatically exercised on the anti-Russian side. The occupation of the Piræus by a hostile fleet, with all that it implies, may be executed under the auspices of Mr. Gladstone and M. Freycinet as effectively and injuriously as it was executed under those of Lord Palmerston and Napoleon III. during the Crimean War.

On the other hand, Greece is encouraged by the recollection of favorable issues in similar complications. Like the House of Savoy in our time, she has repeatedly made territorial acquisitions without achieving them with the sword of victory. Clamors and agitations, with threats of warlike risings, sufficed to induce the British Government to give up the protectorate of the Ionian Isles, and surrender them to her, in 1863. She threatened the invasion of Thessaly and Epirus, without drawing the sword, in 1876 and 1877; she did not dare to strike a blow even after the fall of Plevna, but continued to menace, obtained a vague promise of cession in an article of the Berlin Treaty, armed and blustered, extorted conference after conference during the Turco-Montenegrin frontier difficulties, and finally, in 1881, wrung from the fears and exhaustion of Turkey the cession of the greater part of the coveted two provinces. She hopes to extort the rest now, by perseveringly acting in the same way, though at an immense financial sacrifice. Besides, after having gone so far on the war-path, the Delyannis Cabinet can retreat with honor and safety only before the combined power of Europe, and it thus consciously challenges warlike coercion. In fact, not only the Delyannis Administration is exposed to a sudden collapse, but the throne of George I. himself may be swept away by the popular indignation at a cowardly lowering of the national banner. Was not the alleged neglect of warlike duty, in 1854 and after, the main cause of the downfall of the throne of Otho I. in 1862? It is, however, clear that the obstinacy of the Greek Government is at this juncture too inopportune, too dangerous to the peace of Europe to be long tolerated by the western and central Powers.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

WEDNESDAY, April 7, to TUESDAY, April 13, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Republican majority in the Senate have made another concession to the Executive in dealing with appointments. Certain nominations were sent to the Senate to fill the places of suspended officials. Under the ruling of the majority these nominations were held up. In the meantime the terms of some of the Republican incumbents have expired, thereby creating vacancies. Instead of confirming the nominations before them, such nominations were, at the suggestion of Republican Senators, withdrawn and the same persons renominated, with the understanding that no objection will be urged against them.

The President has withdrawn from the Senate the nomination of Orlando W. Powers, of Michigan, to be an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the Territory of Utah, against whose character much has been said.

The President on Monday nominated Senator Howell E. Jackson, of Tennessee, to be Circuit Judge of the United States for the Sixth District, to succeed the late Judge Baxter. He was immediately confirmed. His term would have expired in 1887.

In the Senate on Wednesday on the debate on the bill to increase the army to 30,000, Mr. Gibson (Dem., La.) moved an amendment which would repeal the law forbidding the employment as officers in the Union Army of any man who served in the Confederate Army. He held that the law was unconstitutional, as it was class legislation, and that there was no longer any reason for such a statute. Mr. Gibson's motion was lost by a vote of 24 yeas to 25 nays, Cameron of Pennsylvania, Jones of Nevada, and Mahone of Virginia voting with the Democrats in the affirmative. The Army Bill was then defeated by 19 to 31, the following Republicans voting nay with the Democrats: Bowen of Colorado, Chace of Rhode Island, Conger, Hale, Ingalls, Jones of Nevada, Plumb, Sherman, Teller, Van Wyck, and Wilson of Iowa.

The Senate on Thursday passed the bill granting to the Kansas and Arkansas Railroad Company a right of way for a railroad through the Indian Territory—yeas 36, nays 8.

On Thursday the Senate passed the House bill to provide for the erection of a building on Capitol Hill for a Congressional library.

The Senate on Tuesday began debate on the question of abolishing secret executive sessions. Senator Platt, of Connecticut, favored that action in a vigorous speech.

When the Free-Coinage Silver Bill came to a vote in the House of Representatives on Thursday afternoon, Mr. Dibble (Dem., S. C.) offered an amendment providing that unless, through concurrent action of the nations of Europe with the United States, silver be remonetized prior to July 1, 1889, then and thereafter so much of the act of February 28, 1878, as authorizes and directs the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase silver bullion and cause the same to be coined, shall be suspended until further action by Congress. This was defeated—yeas 84, nays 201. The Free-Coinage Bill was then defeated—yeas 126, nays 163. Of the 163 votes cast against the bill, 70 were cast by Democrats and 93 by Republicans. Of the 126 votes cast for the bill, 97 were cast by Democrats and 29 by Republicans.

The House on Monday voted to appoint a committee to investigate the strike in the Southwest.

The House Committee on Territories has, by a vote of 6 to 5, agreed to report favorably a bill to provide for the organization of the Indian Territory and the public land strip into the Territory of Oklahoma.

Joseph Pulitzer has resigned the position of Representative in Congress from the Ninth District of New York, for the reason that he is not able to attend to its duties and to his business as an editor at the same time.

The Secretary of the Interior has revoked the order of Commissioner Sparks, of the General Land Office, of April 3, 1885, suspending final action upon entries upon the public lands.

The Chinese Minister at Washington has made formal complaint to the Secretary of State in regard to the treatment of his successor at San Francisco at the hands of the United States customs officials. The United States officers at San Francisco deny that there was any discourtesy.

General Miles has succeeded General Crook in command of the Department of Arizona. General Miles says he will continue the pursuit of the hostile Apaches until they are killled or captured.

A mob of 1,000 strikers on Wednesday visited the railroad yards in East St. Louis, Ill., and drove all men from work. At the Chicago and Alton yards they were driven back by deputy marshals armed with rifles. There was no fighting.

A crowd of strikers formed at the Relay depot in East St. Louis on Friday, and advanced in the direction of the railroad yards to stop work by the new men now employed there. They were met by a small guard of deputies, who ordered them to disperse. The mob refused, and made a rush for the yards, when the deputies levelled their Winchesters and fired, killing seven of the crowd, including one woman. The strikers throughout the city became very much incensed, and at 10 o'clock on Friday night began burning railroad property by way of retaliation. The Louisville and Nashville, and the Cairo Short Line freight yards were visited and about fifty cars were burned, with scale houses and a lumber yard. Roundhouses and shops were partly saved. The total loss was about $50,000. Governor Oglesby at last ordered the militia to the scene of trouble, and nine companies were on duty on Saturday. They preserved order throughout the day.

The Gould system railway strike on Tuesday seemed to be dying out. Freight was moving freely from St. Louis and East St, Louis. No disorders were anywhere reported.

In the Rhode Island election on Wednesday, Governor Wetmore and all the rest of the Republican ticket were elected except Attorney-General Colt. The latter was defeated by Edwin Metcalf, candidate of the Democrats and Prohibitionists. His majority was 1,620. The Constitutional Amendment prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors was carried by a decisive majority. The result was a surprise to the Republicans, and was brought about by dissatisfaction with the way in which Mr. Colt's renomination had been forced on the party, and by the Prohibition vote.

The Field Code was reported favorably in the New York Assembly on Thursday by the Judiciary Committee.

Interest in the Broadway Railway scandal of this city was increased on Friday when it became known that ex-Alderman Miller had been arrested in Florida. This was intensified when about noon President James B. Richmond, of the Broadway Road, was also arrested charged with bribery. The excitement reached its height on Tuesday, when ex-Aldermen Wendel, Duffy, Sheils, O'Neil, Fullgraff, Cleary, McCabe, McQuade, Farley, and Sayles, all of whom were members of the Board of Aldermen of 1884, were arrested and taken to Police Headquarters. Later in the day ex-Alderman Finck was also arrested. Fifteen ex-Aldermen in all are now under arrest on the charge of bribery. Twelve of them were formally indicted by the Grand Jury on Tuesday.

Thomas Anthony Thacher, LL. D., Professor in Yale College of the Latin Language and Literature, was found dead in bed of heart disease on Wednesday. He was seventy-one years of age. He was graduated at Yale in 1835, and with some interruptions has been connected with that college since 1838. Professor Thacher was a prolific writer. His 'De Officiis' of Cicero and 'Madvig's Latin Grammar' are widely known.

Mr. John Welsh, Minister to England during President Hayes's Administration, died in Philadelphia on Saturday aged eighty-one.

Thaddeus Fairbanks, the inventor of the platform scales, died at St. Johnsbury, Vt., on Monday, aged ninety years. He was a very wealthy and a very liberal giver, educational buildings alone at St. Johnsbury having received from him over $200,000.

FOREIGN.

The scenes in and around the House of Commons on Thursday, the day set for Mr. Gladstone's great speech, surpassed any similar event within the memory of living men. The doors were opened for members of Parliament at 6 o'clock in the morning, and they immediately began to secure advantageous seats. The Parnellites massed themselves opposite Mr. Gladstone's seat. In a very short time the House was filled, and the members were prepared to wait all day for the eventful speech. Outside, the crowds were tremendous, and covered all the space down to Westminster Bridge, and extended pretty well up Parliament Street toward Whitehall. Irish and Liberal political clubs without number were there prepared to give the Premier a great reception. Mr. Gladstone went in an open carriage from his house in Downing Street to the Parliament Building. The enthusiasm of the people all the way from the door of his house to the Commons entrance was spontaneous and thrilling. It vented itself at the beginning of the journey in a roar of applause, and when the whole immense multitude caught the signal, one tremendous, long-sustained cheer was sent up, the like of which was seldom if ever before heard in London, and which was plainly audible in the House. The cheering continued long after Mr. Gladstone had entered the Parliament buildings. Inside the building his reception was equally cordial. He entered at 4:30 P. M. As soon as the cheering had ceased Mr. Gladstone rose and moved for permission to introduce a bill to amend previous legislation, and to make provision for the future government of Ireland.

Mr. Gladstone spoke for three hours and twenty-five minutes, and achieved a splendid personal triumph. It is only possible to give in a brief paragraph a few of the significant features of his scheme for home rule. It provided, he said, for an independent Irish Parliament, the duration of which is not to exceed five years. The functions which it was proposed to withdraw from the cognizance of the legislative body were three: everything which related to the Crown; all that which belonged to the defence, the army, the navy, the entire organization of the armed force, and our foreign and colonial relations. It would not be competent to pass laws for the establishment or endowment of any particular religion. The bill proposed to introduce two orders who would sit and deliberate together, with the right of voting separately on any occasion and on the demand of either body, which should be able to interpose a veto upon any measure for a limited time, either until the dissolution or for three years. The orders would be constituted as follows: First, there were the twenty-eight representative peers, who could not continue to sit in the House of Lords after the representatives of the Irish people left the House of Commons. They would have the option of sitting as a portion of the first order in the Irish Parliament, with the power of sitting for life. He proposed that with the twenty-eight peers now in the House of Lords there should sit seventy-five representatives elected by the Irish people. With regard to the powers of election, the

constituency would be composed of occupiers of the value of £25 and upward, and they would be elected for ten years. The property qualification of these representatives would be £200 annual value, or a capital of £4,000. Mr. Gladstone then said he proposed that the 101 Irish members in the House of Commons should be members of the Irish Parliament, and while the first order of the legislative body would consist of 103 members, the second order would consist of 206.

It was proposed to retain the Viceroy, but he would not be the representative of a party or quit office with the outgoing Government. The Queen would be empowered to delegate to him any prerogatives she now enjoyed or would enjoy. The religious disability now existing, which makes Roman Catholics ineligible to the office, would be removed. The constabulary would remain under the present terms of service and under their present authority. The charge for the constabulary was now £1,500,000 per annum, and the speaker felt confident the charge would be reduced, but for the present he proposed to relieve the Irish legislative body of all expenditures for the constabulary in excess of £1,000,000 per annum. The proportion of the imperial burdens which he had to propose that Ireland should bear was as one to fourteen. He then entered into an elaborate calculation of the total income and expenditure of Ireland, in the course of which he stated that the total charge to Ireland as an imperial contribution he put at £3,242,000 per annum. He estimated the total expenditure of Ireland, including a payment as a sinking fund for the Irish portion of the national debt, at £7,946,000 per annum. Against that there was a total income of £8,350,000, or a surplus to the Government of £404,000.

The peroration of Mr. Gladstone's speech was most eloquent and impressive. Mr. George Otto Trevelyan, who had resigned his position as Secretary for Scotland, then proceeded to explain his reasons for that course, and, as an alternative scheme, said he would propose that the execution of the law and the maintenance of order should be maintained in the hands of the central government. Then he would propose the creation of certain local bodies which should be composed of members freely elected. These bodies should be intrusted with and held responsible for many of the subordinate functions of government, such as providing for education, superintending the details of local government, providing for the relief of the poor, and so forth.

Mr. Parnell then delivered an eloquent address, praising Mr. Gladstone's scheme, and incidentally justifying the course of Americans and Irish-Americans toward Ireland. The bill, he said, nevertheless contained blots which the Irish representatives would do their best to remove. One of these was to be found in the financial proposals of the bill, which he regarded as very unfavorable to Ireland, especially in regard to the Irish tribute to the imperial exchequer. He also complained of the proposition relative to the two orders intended to constitute the Irish Parliament, on the ground that the first order, consisting of peers not subject to the influence of the popular vote, would have the power of hanging up measures demanded by the people and their representatives for two or three years. On the whole, however, apart from these defects, he believed the measure would be cheerfully accepted by the Irish people and their representatives as a satisfactory solution of the long-standing dispute between the two countries, and as tending to prosperity and peace in Ireland and to satisfaction in England.

In the House of Commons on Friday night Mr. Chamberlain rose to explain why he had resigned from the Cabinet. He began by introducing certain features of the land-purchase scheme, and was immediately interrupted by Mr. Gladstone, who said that her Majesty's Government had not given him permission to reveal the land proposals. An angry discussion ensued, which greatly disconcerted Mr. Chamberlain. In his speech, which was coldly received, he took four principal objections to Mr. Gladstone's scheme for governing Ireland. The first was to the proposal to exclude the Irish members from Westminster. His second objection was to renouncing, as proposed, the exercise of the right of imperial taxation. In the third place he objected to the surrender of the appointments of judges and magistrates, and, finally, he objected to the supreme authority given to the Irish Parliament in matters not specially excluded from its authority. He would propose to deprive landlords of the power to evict for six months, guaranteeing them six months' rent, the land being security for the sum advanced. During this period a peace commission, composed of members of every section represented in Parliament, could conduct an exhaustive inquiry into the land question. Besides this, he looked for a solution of the home-rule matter in the direction of federation. He was not, he declared, pedantically pledged to his former proposals for a national council.

The Marquis of Hartington made a notable speech, which was moderate in its opposition, but determined. In the course of it he said if the scheme was good for Ireland, it was good equally for Scotland and Wales. If the latter demanded domestic legislatures of their own, and the demand was conceded, the result would be that there would be a house of Parliament with every Scotch and Welsh member excluded, acting as an imperial legislature for the whole United Kingdom. If the people of England and Scotland thought injustice was being done to the minority in Ireland, that minority would not appeal to them in vain, and he feared that in that way this bill, introduced in the interests of peace, was likely to occasion more serious disturbances than any that had yet arisen. "We cannot," he said, "escape from responsibility by the delegation to another body of executive power, which we know would be used by it in a manner we should condemn." Mr. John Morley also spoke, vigorously defending Mr. Gladstone's policy. The debate was then adjourned.

In the House of Commons on Monday night Lord Randolph Churchill resumed the debate on the home-rule scheme. He said that after long consideration he had come to the conclusion that the scheme involved such a complicated and inextricable mass of contradictions that if anybody besides Mr. Gladstone had proposed it, it never would have been taken seriously. He had vainly searched all the authorities, ancient and modern, for a precedent for Mr. Gladstone's two orders which were to compose the proposed Irish Parliament. The first order was intended specially to represent property, and it was worthy of attention that the great leader of the great Liberal party had chosen such an antiquated and discarded machine as the property qualification for the electorate of this first order. The second order was also elective. Both orders were to sit together, and one order could veto any measure brought in by the other. The real principle of the bill, he said, was simply repeal of the Union. On the question of Ulster he asked if an Irish Government could pay its way if Ulster were withdrawn. That the English Government could not make up its mind in regard to Ulster proved the almost insoluble character of the home-rule project. The Premier justified his proposals on the ground that there were eighty-six home rulers in the House. But why should the voices of eighty-six Irish members prevail over the voices of the 584 other members? History showed the rise and decline of former Irish parties. So the Parnellites, formidable to-day, were in danger of disunion to-morrow. Lord Randolph's speech lacked his usual aggressiveness and caused disappointment. Mr. Russell, the Attorney-General, made a labored reply. Mr. Bradlaugh and others spoke.

On Tuesday night Sir William Vernon Harcourt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, made a forcible speech in defence of the Government measure, dwelling on the want of unity among its opponents, and uttering a warning against an aristocratic desertion from the Liberal ranks on account of it. Mr. Goschen also spoke effectively on the other side, rehearsing with much vehemence the difficulties in the way, but proposing nothing except a system of government through local and municipal bodies in Ireland. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach followed, not very weightily. Mr. Gladstone's summary reply was very spirited and telling, and intimated that the removal of the Irish delegation from Westminster was not a vital part of his scheme. Leave to introduce the bill was then granted without a division.

Lord Wolseley, in a speech in London on Saturday night, said that the English Empire had been built and preserved through the valor and endurance of its soldiers and sailors, directed by able statesmen. Hitherto it had been their lot to defend their country against foreign foes, but now they were called upon by the people of England to do duty in trampling under foot enemies more serious, because they were enemies within the civil boundaries. He called upon the English nation to say, "Stand off!" to any one, whoever he might be, who should dare to try to break or dismember the empire, thereby ruthlessly destroying it. The speech was received with deafening cheers.

A sensation was caused on Monday in London by the sudden right-about-face of the *Daily News*, the Ministerial organ, and the only London journal hitherto supporting Mr. Gladstone's home-rule scheme. It said editorially: "We are constrained to admit our conviction that the country is not yet ripe for home rule in Ireland. We regard Mr. Gladstone's scheme as one of the most consummate pieces of constructive statesmanship presented even by the author of a series of Irish land acts which have delivered Ireland from the incubus of an alien church. But we do not conceal our belief that though the measure may pass its first or second reading, it cannot, unless a remarkable change takes place in public opinion, become a law at this session."

The lower house of the Prussian Landtag on Wednesday, by a vote of 214 to 120, adopted the bill expropriating the land of the Poles in Posen, and colonizing the province with Germans.

Prince Alexandria, of Bulgaria, telegraphed to the Porte on Thursday his formal acceptance of the protocol limiting his Governorship of Eastern Rumelia to five years.

The Porte has sent to the Powers a circular declaring that as Bulgaria has settled its dispute with them, it becomes necessary to put a stop to the bellicose conduct of Greece, as it is compelling Turkey to support an enormous military outlay.

The Greek Chamber of Deputies has passed a vote of confidence in the Government by 129 to 83. The crowd outside greeted the result with enthusiasm, showing the strength of the war sentiment.

Just after the train carrying the Czar and Czarina to the Crimea had passed Tcharkoff on Wednesday, four men, who acted in a suspicious manner, were arrested on the railroad track at that place. It is supposed that they had been engaged in a plot to blow up the train.

The intended journey of the Czar to Nova Tcherkask to present his son to the Cossacks as their chief, has been prevented by the discovery of a dynamite plot to assassinate the imperial party. A Cossack officer and his brother have been arrested. They are believed to be Nihilist agents.

A third member of the party of wolf-bitten Russians who came to Paris to be treated by M. Pasteur, has died. Like the other two, he showed symptoms of hydrophobia.

The Italian Ministry of Signor Depretis, formed June 29, 1885, has resigned.

MR. GLADSTONE'S TRIUMPH.

It is not too much to say that Mr. Gladstone was on Thursday the leading figure in the greatest incident in Parliamentary history. There were scenes in the Long Parliament which, seen through the light of subsequent events, surpassed it in tragic interest, but in no legislative assembly either in Great Britain or America has there ever been so great a purely Parliamentary occasion. Neither could any dramatist, by the highest exercise of his talent and skill, have prepared for his dénouement with half the completeness and impressiveness with which the ordinary course of British politics prepared for Mr. Gladstone's entry on the stage a week ago. Everything that had been happening in England and Ireland during the last fifty years seemed to have contributed something to create the pomp and pride and circumstance which surrounded the last act in a great career. Everybody who was present must have felt that he had witnessed the greatest example the world is likely to see of the art of persuasion applied to the work of government—that is, oratory rendering its best service. For, unlike most orators in our time, Mr. Gladstone had neither to announce the resolve of a great party, nor to charm the ears of weary or idle people with picturesque imagery or rounded periods. He had to win over a nation to a sacrifice which nearly every quality to which it owes its greatness makes exceedingly hard; to satisfy a whole people that even a partial measure of Irish independence does not mean the dismemberment of the empire on which generation after generation has expended so much blood, and money, and genius, and valor.

That he has succeeded it would be premature to-day to assert. But he has done all that oratory in the service of the most remarkable constructive power the modern world has seen can do. The effect of his speech was heightened by the blunder of allowing Mr. Trevelyan to follow him as his first critic with a "plan" of his own; Mr. Trevelyan, being a gentle, amiable man, of no capacity whatever as a legislator, with but little as an orator, and still somewhat damaged by his failure as Irish Secretary. Opposition which opened in such a way seems almost doomed to disaster. It would have been wiser to follow the example of Pitt in moving the adjournment of the House after Sheridan's speech on the Begum charge in the Warren Hastings case, on the ground that calm discussion was impossible while the influence of such eloquence was still fresh. The one person to speak was Mr. Parnell, and he had but to say, and he said it, that the Irish accepted Mr. Gladstone's scheme, to make its final success all but certain. We say final success, because it is impossible to suppose that such a popular greeting as Mr. Gladstone has had, and such a speech as he has made can be disposed of or made null and void and of no effect by anything this Parliament, or indeed any Parliament, can now say or do. They both stand, and will continue to stand, as momentous and impressive endorsements of the Irish position. No man can successfully maintain hereafter before the English public that the Irish demands are unreasonable or even dangerous. Their claims have been brought within the domain of practical politics by the endorsement of the greatest lawgiver of our time, and they are certain now to remain there until they are satisfied. English timidity, which is now the main obstacle to their satisfaction, will vanish through familiarity with them, and the "leap in the dark," from which Conservatives now recoil, will be taken finally with as good a heart as the former one in 1867, when the suffrage was extended. The opposition to it, in fact, rests now on nothing better, as Mr. Gladstone pointed out in one of the finest and shrewdest passages in his speech, than "a basis of despair." Its opponents have really nothing to urge against it, in view of what has happened in various other countries of the modern world, than the theory that "an Irishman is a *lusus naturæ*; that justice, common sense, moderation, national prosperity have no meaning for him; that all that he can understand and all that he can appreciate is strife, perpetual dissension." This is really the argument of Froude and Goldwin Smith and some other literary politicians, but it, of course, can only be urged on practical politicians as a *jeu d'esprit*.

The part of the plan which is exciting most hostility, strange to say, appears to be the exclusion of the Irish from seats in the Imperial Parliament. The Irish are glad to go, but they find, probably to their surprise, now that their going seems near at hand, that the Conservatives and Whigs want them to stay, and that their staying would reassure a good many doubting Liberals. That is to say, the proposed total withdrawal of the Irish from all participation in the work of legislation at Westminster gives the scheme the air of a complete separation which the British public finds startling. On this point Mr. Gladstone, it is now said, is prepared to make modifications; that is, he is prepared to retain some Irish representation at Westminster to vote on the imperial appropriations and other matters of joint concern. This appears to be all the more necessary if, as he also proposes, the Irish customs are to remain in the hands of the English Government. Their proceeds, it is true, are to be applied to Irish purposes, but as long as the Irish do not control them or share in control of them, the scheme is open to the charge, which Lord Randolph Churchill makes, of being taxation without representation.

The importance of the scheme to this country is only second to its importance to England and Ireland. We do not need to call our readers' attention to the debauching influence on American politics of this prolonged and bitter strife between England and Ireland. In asking the 2,000,000 of men and women of Irish birth who are now in this country to withdraw their attention and interest from that strife, on taking up their abode here, and busy themselves in their duties as American citizens, Americans have not been asking more than the Constitution of the United States and the best interests of the country called for; but they have been asking more than human nature could ever give. No people similarly circumstanced would probably act any better under the circumstances, barring the dynamite, than the Irish Americans have done. Nor was it fair, as we pointed out two or three years ago, when the dynamite was a burning question, to throw on this Government the sole burden and responsibility of keeping within the limits of order and humanity and law the vast mass of Irish discontent and hatred cast on our shores. As long as Ireland was governed in absolute indifference to or in defiance of Irish opinion and feeling, this Government was more or less paralyzed in any attempt to prevent Irish plottings on these shores against English peace and dignity. But, worse than this, it was impossible also to prevent Irish questions from forcing their way into American politics, and exerting a most demoralizing influence both on our elections and our legislation. Demagogues in and out of Congress have been getting every year more and more into the habit of pushing their own ends by denunciations of England and the encouragement of hostility to her, in order to catch the Irish vote. In 1884 there is little question that James G. Blaine would have been overwhelmingly defeated in this State but for his success in securing the support of the Irish, who deal with all American questions from the Irish standpoint. They voted for Blaine because they believed, and he meant them to believe, that if he was President, he would inaugurate in the administration of foreign affairs a policy of hostility and annoyance to Great Britain. Should Gladstone fail now in his great attempt to heal Irish discontent, we shall probably witness the same sort of phenomenon in 1888. Should he succeed, he will do almost as much for the purification of our politics as for that of the politics of his own country.

CONGRESS AND THE UNION PACIFIC RAILWAY.

The House Committee on Pacific Railroads have under consideration a resolution ordering an investigation of the affairs of the Union Pacific Railway Company, with a view to discovering whether that corporation has not, by means of dishonest bookkeeping, falsified accounts, and various fraudulent transactions, cheated the Government of large sums which properly belong to the sinking fund established by the Thurman Act. The resolution was introduced by Mr. Henley of California, but is said to have been drawn by an ex-clerk in the office of the Railroad Commissioner, who was found to be using his official position for stock-jobbing purposes and was dismissed in consequence. The terms in which it is drawn, the time and the manner of its introduction, leave no doubt as to its object. It is simply to affect the stock in the interests of speculators. Though not generally known elsewhere, it is notorious in Washington, that certain well-known bear operators in the stocks of the Pacific roads keep a permanent lobby at the capital, whose sole occupation it is to devise schemes to weaken the credit and depress the stock of these corporations by threatened legislation or action of the departments. The original plan of the operators, upon the accession of the present Administration, was to secure the appointment of two of their agents as Government Direc-

tors of the Union Pacific. This failing, they succeeded in getting one of them into a confidential position in the Commissioner's office, where there were abundant opportunities for usefulness. His career was cut short by his too great zeal and too little discretion.

The lobby are now working the Railroad Committee of the House, and the Henley resolution is one of its instrumentalities. The method of attacking the credit of the company by ordering an investigation is somewhat ingenious. A funding bill is now pending in the Senate by the terms of which the relations between the Government and the Pacific roads are established upon a permanent basis, upon a plan of fixed semi-annual payments, which will extinguish the debt at the end of eighty years. It increases the present security for the subsidy debt by including all the company's property in its branch lines in the mortgage, and provides that the whole debt shall become due and payable upon default of a semi-annual payment. It has been reported favorably by the Judiciary Committee of the Senate. Its general plan is favored by the Interior Department, and it is understood that a sub-committee of the House Committee on Pacific Railroads is preparing a similar bill. The passage of such a bill would make an end of all the vexed questions concerning "net earnings" arising under the Thurman Act, would do away with the hardship now borne by the companies of being compelled to invest their surplus in a sinking fund producing a little over 2 per cent., and, what is perhaps more important, would remove from needy Congressmen the temptation to speculate in stocks whose prices are so easily affected by legislation.

It is to arrest the progress of this bill that the stock jobbers propose an investigation. The suggestion naturally commends itself to the Congressional mind. It means for the investigators free railroad transportation to the Pacific Coast, and plenty of entertainment. The railroad companies cannot object to being investigated without exposing themselves to suspicion. But the public is not a fool after all. It discerns the purpose of these schemes pretty clearly. The ostensible object of the investigation is to find out whether the Union Pacific is not, by some crookedness of bookkeeping, or technical subterfuge, avoiding its obligations to the Government. Briefly stated, it is the old question of definition of "net earnings"; what are proper deductions to be made from the gross earnings before provision is made for the sinking fund? Now the sinking fund referred to is a confessed failure. Its modification or repeal has been urged over and over by the Railroad Commissioners, Government Directors, and Secretaries of the Treasury and of the Interior. Under the provisions of the Thurman Act the Company gets but a fraction over 2 per cent. for investments on sinking-fund account. It has now over six millions in the fund returning but 2 1-5 per cent. per annum. The demand of the stock jobbers is that the lines be more strictly drawn in the construction of "net earnings" so that more of the Company's surplus shall be diverted to this fund. To what end? To secure the Government debt? Not at all. Why not make an end of all these disputes over "net earnings" by establishing fixed payments extending over a period of years, adapting the requirements to the Company's ability to pay, but strengthening the Government's security for its debt?

This we understand to be the aim and the scope of the funding bill now pending in the Senate. This is what a committee of second-mortgage bondholders, situated as the Government is situated, would do. The payments under the existing law are of uncertain amount, and are embarrassing to the debtor company. The Thurman Act is unscientific. It ought to be superseded by something which shall yield a fixed and known sum to the Government, and shall leave the company free after making these payments to employ its resources as other companies employ theirs, in making needed improvements and extensions of its lines.

THE ILLEGALITY OF BOYCOTTING.

PUBLIC interest in the boycott upon Mrs. Gray's bakery continues to grow. The most noticeable feature of it is the increasing desire to have the instigators of the boycott brought to punishment. It has been pointed out that this could be done through the District Attorney's office, since the boycotters were clearly liable to fine and imprisonment for conspiracy, libel, and blackmail. The law is very clear in making a combination of this kind a conspiracy. A very interesting decision in point was given by the Supreme Court of this State in 1835. Some journeyman shoemakers in Geneva, Ontario County, formed a combination for the purpose of preventing any journeyman shoemakers in that village from making a certain kind of coarse boots for a less price than $1 a pair. Any member of this association who made boots for a less price was to pay a penalty of $10, and all members were pledged to refuse to work for any master shoemaker paying a less price. A shoemaker named Pennock made a pair of boots for an employer named Lum for 75 cents, whereupon all of Lum's workmen left him and refused to return to work until he discharged Pennock, and promised not to employ him again. The District Attorney of Ontario County had several of the members of the Shoemakers' Association indicted for conspiracy to do an act of injury to trade, and, upon a demurrer to the indictment, it was held good by the Supreme Court of the State.

The opinion in the case was given by Chief-Justice Savage, in which he held that a conspiracy of journeyman workmen of any trade or handicraft to raise wages, by entering into combinations to coerce journeymen or master workmen employed in the same trade or business to conform to rules established by such combination for the purpose of regulating the price of labor, and carrying such rules into effect by overt acts, was "an act injurious to trade or commerce," within the meaning of the Revised Statutes, and as such a misdemeanor. The Chief Justice used the following language in the course of his opinion:

"All combinations, therefore, to effect such an object are injurious not only to the individual particularly oppressed, but to the public at large. In the present case an industrious man was driven out of employment by the unlawful measures pursued by the defendants, and an injury done to the community, by diminishing the quantity of productive labor and of internal trade. In so far as the individual sustains an injury, the remedy by indictment is taken away by our revised statutes, and the sufferer is left to his action on the case; but in so far as the public are concerned, in the embarrassment to trade by the discouragement of industry, the defendants are liable to punishment by indictment. If combinations of this description are lawful in Geneva, they are so in every other place. If the bootmakers may say that boots shall not be made for less than $1 per pair, it is optional with them to say that $10 or even $50 shall be paid, and no man can wear a pair of boots without giving such price as the journeyman bootmakers may choose to require. This I apprehend would be a monopoly of the most odious kind. The journeyman mechanics might, by fixing their own wages, regulate the price of all manufactured articles, and the community be enormously taxed. Should the journeyman bakers refuse to work, unless for enormous wages which the master bakers could not afford to pay, and should they compel all the journeymen in the city to stop work, the whole population must be without bread . . . Truth is, that industry requires no such means to support it. Competition is the life of trade. If the defendants cannot make coarse boots for less than $1 per pair, let them refuse to do so; but let them not directly or indirectly undertake to say that others shall not do the work for a less price. It may be that Pennock, from greater industry or greater skill, made more profit by making boots at seventy-five cents per pair than the defendants at $1. He had a right to work for what he pleased. His employer had a right to employ him for such price as they could agree upon. The interference of the defendants was unlawful; its tendency is not only to individual oppression but to public inconvenience and embarrassment."

A few years after this decision the same question came before the Court of Common Pleas, and an elaborate opinion was written by Chief-Justice Daly, in which he differed from the Supreme Court upon the question of the mere association of workmen to increase wages being a misdemeanor, and, after a most elaborate and learned investigation of the law on the subject, stated as the result of his examination "that it is lawful for any number of journeymen or master workmen to agree, on the one part that they will not work below certain rates, or on the other that they will not pay a certain price; but that an association or combination for the purpose of compelling journeymen or employers to conform to any rule, regulation, or agreement fixing the rate of wages to which they are not parties, by the imposition of penalties, by agreeing to quit the service of an employer who employs a journeyman below certain rates, unless the journeyman pays the penalty imposed by the combination, or by menaces, threats, or intimidations, violence, or other unlawful means, is a conspiracy for which the parties entering into it may be indicted."

This view of the law was practically adopted by the Legislature of 1870, when an act was passed providing that the provisions of the statutes regarding conspiracy "shall not be construed in any court in this State to restrict or prohibit the orderly and peaceable assembling or coöperation of persons employed in any profession, trade, or handicraft for the purpose of securing an advance in the rate of wages or compensation, or for the maintenance of such rate." The principle

as thus modified has been uniformly maintained by the courts in several cases, and the general doctrine established that any agreement or conspiracy to commit an act injurious to trade is illegal. Upon the enactment of the Penal Code in 1881 the definition of conspiracy was enlarged, and a new provision was inserted declaring it a misdemeanor for two or more persons to conspire—

"5. To prevent another from exercising a lawful trade or calling, or doing any other lawful act, by force, threats, intimidation, or by interfering or threatening to interfere with tools, implements, or property belonging to or used by another, or with the use or employment thereof."

The provisions of the statute of 1870, in regard to peaceable and orderly combinations, quoted by us above, were at the same time added to the Penal Code, where they stand as section 170. Together they make the law so clear that there can be no misunderstanding it. There is not the slightest doubt that the use of the boycott as an aid in a strike is a conspiracy against trade, and punishable by fine and imprisonment. Mrs. Gray's case has excited widespread interest and indignation because the victim is a woman; but otherwise the boycott upon her bakery does not differ from that used in thousands of other cases. Her case is likely to be of great value in arousing public indignation against boycotts of all kinds, and in awakening the officers of the law to their duty of promptly bringing the perpetrators of them to punishment.

BIRD SLAUGHTER.

Some seven years ago there appeared in Paris at a ball of the *demi-monde* a woman wearing on her head-dress a dead bird. The bird had artificial eyes, and its wings and tail were spread out so as to give it a life-like appearance. It was a small, stuffed bird, not a bird-skin stretched on wires. Its introduction as an ornament in fashionable bad society was not received with much favor at first, although the wearer succeeded in attracting attention to herself by the singularity of her adornment. This was all that she desired or intended to accomplish by fastening a bird's corpse to her head-gear. She had not the smallest expectation that she would be imitated, even by her immediate companions, still less that the whole world of fashionable good society in France, England, and America would "fall into line" at her heels. Probably her only thought was that the oddity of her costume would serve as a striking advertisement, like "S. T., 1860, X.," and cause her to be talked of among the males and females of her kind.

Strange indeed are the caprices of fashion. Seven years have passed by, and we find the eccentricity of a woman of the town become the craze of millinery—so great and deadly a craze that State Legislatures are considering bills to prevent the extinction of our song birds, and of all birds not too large to be worn on the bonnets of women and children. Nothing more revolting to good taste can be imagined than the "remains" of an animal fresh from the dissection of a taxidermist as an ornament to a woman's forehead. The very suggestion ought to excite horror and disgust, as well as pity for the slaughtered songsters of the grove. But the instincts of refined taste and the promptings of humane feeling are alike crushed by the Juggernaut of fashion. The appeals of naturalists and the sarcasms of the press are alike unavailing to suppress or even lessen the massacre of the innocents. The destruction goes on at a rate limited only by the number of birds within reach of the sportsmen's guns and nets. Seventy thousand corpses of the white curlew were delivered in New York in four months' time. They have almost disappeared from our coasts. Linnets, bluebirds, orioles, woodpeckers, snowbirds, song-sparrows, indeed everything that has feathers and is not too large a load to be carried on one's head, is coming to the shambles of millinery. As the smaller varieties become scarce the larger ones are taken and cut in pieces, their heads going to one style of head-dress and their wings and tails to another. But no one can tell how large a bird can be worn on a woman's head by walking on Fifth Avenue. It is necessary to take a ride in a Second Avenue car to get the full effect of the prevailing fashion. There one may see on the headgear of poorer classes, and especially of colored women, every species of the feathered kingdom smaller than a prairie chicken or a canvasback duck, and every color of the rainbow.

The public are beginning to realize that there is danger of the total destruction of small birds to satisfy the demands of an odious trade founded upon a worse than barbarous fashion. The barbarian carries dead animals on his person as charms against the powers of darkness, but not for purposes of adornment. If any daring traveller had found among the bushmen of Australia, or the savages of Africa, a people wearing dead humming birds for earrings or dead rats for necklaces, the discovery would have stirred commercial and philanthropic zeal among civilized nations to supply them with suitable beads and brass ornaments to take the place of such heathenish attire. Yet the composing of a circlet for a young girl's brow from the heads of twenty bobolinks, woodpeckers, wrens, kingfishers, and other decapitated beauties of the forest and the seashore—a sight beheld by a correspondent of the *Evening Post* at the Academy of Design last week—is hardly to be distinguished in point of good taste from the wearing of humming-birds as pendants to the ear or small rodents to adorn the neck. In this case it is evident that the object was to get as many different insignia of bird slaughter crowded into one place as possible.

There is a bill pending at Albany to prohibit the killing of certain species of harmless birds. It ought to prohibit not only the killing but the traffic in birds of this class, and authorize the seizure and destruction of the same after a reasonable time sufficient to give all people warning, and to enable those who have money invested in them to get rid of their stock. Our game laws prohibit the killing of certain kinds of birds at certain seasons, and in order to make the prohibition effectual they prohibit the having of them at such times. Possession of the prohibited thing is itself a misdemeanor, and rightly so. The object of these laws is to preserve the species from extinction, so that the generations who come after us shall not be deprived of a valuable birthright through our negligence. Societies of ladies have been formed in England to discourage the practice of wearing birds on the head. Mrs. Celia Thaxter proposes, in the *Evening Transcript*, that a similar society be formed in Boston. But it may be doubted whether a fashion, however opposed to good taste, can be frowned down. If our birds are to be saved, public authority must come to the assistance of private effort. Societies for the suppression of bird slaughter will be useful and effectual, however, in aid of the law, or to promote its enactment and enforcement.

A FRENCH MEMOIR OF OUR COLONIAL HISTORY.

The National Library of Paris has lately received a curious acquisition in a manuscript work entitled 'Voyage au Canada dans le Nord de l'Amérique Septentrionale fait depuis l'an 1751 à 1761, par T. C. B.' The author, when very young and at his wits' end for a living, took an opportunity which was offered him of going to Canada, and there enlisted in the *troupes de la marine*, which composed the standing military force of the colony. As his education was much above his new position, he sometimes acted as secretary to his commanding officer, and was at length made storekeeper at Fort Duquesne, where, as he ingenuously remarks, there were good opportunities of making money without much risk. It was a time when the storekeeper of a military outpost in Canada rarely failed to make a modest competence at the expense of the King. "T. C. B." found himself at the end of the war in possession of something more than 80,000 francs, nearly all of which melted into nothing through the depreciation of Canadian paper money.

His book would be more valuable if it were less ambitious. He says that he made notes of what he saw in Canada, from which, many years afterwards, he wrote his story; but these notes must have been of the most imperfect kind. An exact copy of the whole work is before me. It forms 428 pages of manuscript, including a preface, an index, and a long treatise on the Indians. In short, it is a book prepared for the press, though it was never printed. "T. C. B." would have done well if he had contented himself with relating his own experience, instead of undertaking to recount the whole course of the war. He did not write his book till thirty or forty years after his return to France, and his memory, in spite of the notes which he says that he kept, often plays him strange tricks. Thus, he puts the defeat of Braddock in 1756 and the removal of the Acadians in 1754, though they both occurred in 1755; and he makes the capture of Fort William Henry and the defeat of Abercrombie occur in the same summer. His account of the Indians and his long descriptions of the animals of the country are very inexact. According to him, the Canadian porcupine darts its quills at all comers, while the *carcajou*, or wolverine, has a tail several times longer than its body.

During the winter of 1758 and 1759 he returned to Quebec with pockets full of paper money from his lucrative service at Fort Duquesne, and engaged himself in marriage to a young woman of the city, hired a house, furnished it at the cost of 10,000 francs, and somewhat prematurely installed in it his intended bride and mother-in-law; after which he changed his mind and broke off the match, assigning no reason to his readers

or to his betrothed, whose disappointed parent gave him great trouble before he could dispossess her of the house and furniture. Resuming his military life, he was captured in the summer of 1760 and sent prisoner to New York. His account of that place and what befell him there is interesting and curious. Being sent to France with other prisoners, he rejoined his family, and, at length, growing old, put his story upon record, apparently about the end of the last century. As historical evidence the value of his work is small. Even in the events of which he was himself a part his memory is often at fault, and where he tells of what he did not see, his story is worthless. Even in his own reminiscences men and events are sometimes confused by the lapse of time.

His first military experience was on the expedition sent by the Marquis Duquesne in 1753 to occupy the Upper Ohio. He accompanied the party, however, no further than Presquile, having been sent with a detachment to Detroit and Lake Huron. In the next year he was one of the party that drove Ensign Ward from the forks of the Ohio and built Fort Duquesne. He was at this place when Jumonville was killed and his men captured by Washington, but he adds very little to what is known of that affair, except some particulars about the Canadian who escaped the fate of the rest. He was also one of the force under Villiers who defeated Washington at Fort Necessity. His account answers pretty well to the French contemporary reports, none of which, however, give the number of Indians who accompanied the expedition. This "T. C. B." puts at three hundred, which, if true, makes the total French force upwards of nine hundred, against about three hundred and fifty under Washington.

He gives a horribly minute account of the torture of English prisoners by the Indians at Fort Duquesne in the summer of 1755. He was present at the scene, which seems to have left an indelible impression upon him. He not only puts the defeat of Braddock in the wrong year, but his account of it is extremely short and unsatisfactory, adding nothing to what is already known, though he says that he took part in it. He seems impartial in his mistakes, which sometimes tell against his own countrymen. Thus, he declares that at the battle of Lake George the whole French force was killed or taken, while in fact the greater part escaped. His ambition to make a book has led him to sacrifice rare opportunities of leaving behind him a record of personal observations which might have been of great interest and value. He apologizes for having so much to say about what he himself saw and did, but his real fault is in adding anything else.

F. Parkman.

THE STRIKE IN THE SOUTHWEST.

St. Louis, April 1, 1886.

The strike which has now been prevailing in the Southwest system of railroads, commonly called the Gould system, for nearly four weeks, has brought to the surface so many features of economic, social, and governmental import, that a critical review may not be out of place. The public has been fairly well informed of the incipiency and progress of this remarkable upheaval; but the coloring given to it by the press, and by associated and private despatches in different sections of the country, has had a tendency to hide from the outside public many of the local features to which attention must be given in order to understand its origin, rise, and inevitable consequences.

To begin with, the country should understand that this was not a strike. It had neither the meaning nor the dignity attached to that word. Webster defines the word strike to mean, "to quit work in order to compel an increase or prevent a reduction of wages." Neither of these elements had anything to do with this quasi-revolutionary movement. It was a *boycott*, pure and unadulterated, with no element of a reasonable or even alleged cause for a strike, on the above accepted definition, in it.

The public generally accepts the term of boycott to be a sort of a good-natured and not unlawful method of applying the screws to a refractory employer. Such may have been the intention of the originators of this method, but, as at present applied, it forbodes incalculable mischief. It partakes more of the nature of the "lettres de cachet," the papal bulls of excommunication, the Vehmgericht, or the Spanish Inquisition; it is, in fact, a revival of the cruel and relentless practices of the Middle Ages.

When a boycott is decreed, it is directed against every man, woman, or child, against every firm, corporation, or individual, against everybody who —directly or indirectly, whether for profit or love, whether his life or his health or that of his wife and children depended on it, whether he or they were sick, suffering or starving, whether impelled thereto by ties of friendship, of gratitude, or humanity—helped, aided, worked for, or in any way assisted the person, corporation, or institution which had incurred the displeasure of and been declared to be under the ban by a chartered lodge; and to abide by this order when given, all Knights of Labor are solemnly sworn.

Tracing the history of this strike, it will be seen that this was the course it took. A railroad in Texas discharged one of its employees. It is irrelevant for our purpose to argue for what reason; it is only relevant to know that he belonged to the order of the Knights of Labor. The Knights demanded his reinstatement, which the managers refused. Thereupon a strike on that line, which covered nearly the entire State of Texas, was ordered. Within twenty-four hours after, it became apparent that this mode of coercion did not bring about the reinstatement of the discharged man, and the bull of excommunication was decreed over another road, the Missouri-Pacific. Ostensibly the laws were to be respected, but in fact no law was to stand in the way of preventing the excommunicated road from being operated; and violence, destruction, and panic were to, and did, follow in the wake of the Knights' secret order.

St. Louis being the key of the situation, and the chief offices of the road as well as of the Knights being located here, this city became the main point of attack. It is needless to describe the open acts of violence that were committed—they are matters of history; but the secret and invisible acts of terrorism are not. The thousands of employees who were serving the company, directly or indirectly, from the best paid artisan down to the day-laborer and the poor women who scrub the cars, were waited upon by a "committee" and "requested" to stop work instanter. Generally they were served with a written notice, reading as follows:

"You are requested not to . . . work in the shop . . . repair tracks . . . take out an engine, etc., etc., from and after — o'cl. this day. By order of the
{ Seal of Knights of Labor. } Executive Committee."

It will be observed that the word "requested" only is used, designedly for the purpose of serving as a cloak to the boast that the Knights never used violence; but there is a terrible meaning attached to the word "request," which every laboring and working man in the country now understands. It means that whoever does not heed that request may consider himself outlawed; that when going to or returning from his work he will be hooted, hissed, and spat upon; that he will be beaten, his wife and children insulted, his tradesmen forbidden to sell him goods, his landlord ordered to oust him from his home. All his social relations will be cut off, and he will become the Ahasuerus of his tribe. No wonder that the most loyal and the stoutest among them give up their manhood rather than incur the consequences of such demoniac persecutions.

To continue my history: The Missouri-Pacific boycott not producing the desired result, it was extended over the St. Louis bridge, with its vast organization and hundreds of employees, and later on over East St. Louis and the dozen railroad lines terminating there as the outlets of some of the most important trunk lines. The strikers there outvied the St. Louis mob. Under the guidance of the Knights all avenues of trade and industry were closed. The St. Louis Transfer Company, which owns several hundred teams, had to suspend operations. Its teamsters were "requested" to quit, and quit they did. They were all loyal to their employers, were poor, needy, hard-working men, and they met afterwards among themselves and published a protest in the papers against this unwarranted interference, but they dared not to ignore the "request." Other teams, belonging to private parties, endeavoring to haul goods to and from East St. Louis, were ordered back, and nothing was permitted to be touched. Railroads trying to move trains had their engines killed and disabled and their trainmen beaten and insulted. Perishable goods had to be left to rot and spoil. Thousands of tons of coal from Illinois, on which St. Louis depends for its supply, were standing in the railroad yards, but not a bushel was permitted to be moved. Presently the coal famine made itself felt in St. Louis. One factory after another had to let its fires go out. The great flour industries of St. Louis had stopped some time before, because they could get no grain in and could ship no flour out. Thousands of employees, mostly of the poorest class, had to be discharged. The price of coal rose from the average of seven cents per bushel or $5.50 per ton to fifty cents or $40 per ton. Provisions rose enormously. The army of teamsters who make their living by hauling goods to and from East St. Louis not only were forced into idleness, but had to pay enormous prices for feed for their horses who were idle in the stables. How the poor fared may be imagined.

The East St. Louis strike was confessedly ordered without cause or grievance. The Chairman of the Assembly of Knights which ordered it, Sullivan by name, openly stated that it was done only "to help their brethren" in Missouri.

It would draw this letter to undue length to dwell upon the vain efforts of the railroads and the public to obtain protection or enforcement of the law from either the city authorities of East St. Louis, the Sheriff of the county, or the Governor of the State. Suffice it to say that the apathy of the officers in connection with the approaching April elections had an unmistakable significance.

But let us return to Missouri. During all this time, while these acts of violence were going on, not a word was said about wages, not a single grievance was presented. It is true that the leader, Irons, issued a pronunciamiento, red-hot and flaming, in which the bloated bondholders, the millionaires, the stock-watering and Wall-Street gamblers were denounced as being at the bottom of the strike, and incidentally saying that the Missouri-Pacific should pay its bridge mechanics and its shop apprentices higher wages; but this was issued two weeks after the strike—it was "post hoc" and not "propter hoc."

Many of the men ordered out were of the best-paid, the best-contented employees, had their own homes and brought up their families in a

respectable way. They belonged to the best type of the industrial class. I know many of them who are gentlemanly, intelligent, and good citizens. They joined the order of Knights of Labor at its early inception, when its aims and methods were such as every well-wisher of humanity could endorse. They are of the type which Mr. Powderly represents. Now they feel and see with dismay that it has grown beyond controllable limits, hydra-headed, with venom in its fangs. But they see no escape outside of revolt, and revolt means boycott, and boycott means the consequences which I have outlined above.

Finally, when the leaders saw that they had no ground to stand upon, they proclaimed that all they wanted was "recognition." In plain English, it meant that they should be recognized as a state within the State, as a power subject to no control and to no established tribunal, as the dictator to decree, for reasons satisfactory only to themselves, that the people shall neither buy from nor sell to, neither trade nor contract nor have any commercial or other intercourse with, anybody who has incurred their displeasure or ignored their demands. The calamitous results to the individual, to the community, to innocent thousands, to the people of the States, nay, to the entire nation, count for nothing, so that their power to avenge the real or alleged wrong to an individual or the alleged violation of their orders is "recognized." That such a recognition means the surrender of manhood, of all liberty of action, of all democracy; that it must be a barrier to all civilization and progress, never enters the minds of these fanatics.

I will not attempt in this letter to present a history of this tremendous movement, its labor side and its railroad side. In fact, the end is not yet. I have only endeavored truthfully to portray its results and its possibilities, in order that your readers may know what may be in store for them, anywhere and everywhere, and at any time, and that they may take warning. This issue will have to be met by the people of the country sooner or later, and it may be a blessing to those not affected by the events of the last few weeks, that its monstrosity has been uncovered. Nor is there meant to be in this warning any offence or opposition to organized labor. The Inquisition was no more of the essence of the Catholic religion, or the burning of witches of the Protestant religion, than the enormous practices and doctrines of the Knights which I have described are of the essence of protected labor.

THE TRIAL OF THE PEASANT REBELS.

VENICE, March 27, 1886.

"NOT guilty," say the jury; "Not guilty," shout the people stived like herrings in the court; "Not guilty," repeat the anxious crowd without, passing the glad news from bridge to bridge, from gondola to gondola, till it echoes from the lagoon to the Lido, while the telegraph carries it from the tombs of the martyrs in San Michele to those of Belfiore, and Mantua responds, "Viva Venezia! Viva la libertà! Viva la fratellanza! Welcome home to our innocent and calumniated peasants!" This is the result of the attempt made by the Government to secure a verdict against the peasants of whose "rebellion" I wrote to you in February, by translating them from their natural judges in the Mantuan province to the assizes in Venice. In this hope, manacled and escorted by carbineers and a strong body of police, nineteen citizens, ill and emaciated by a year's previous confinement, were transported from Brescia to the prison palace three centuries old, in nothing changed since Byron

"—stood in Venice on the Bridge of Sighs,"

looking here to the Ducal Palace, there to the palace of the prisons. The vaunted progress of the nineteenth century has not changed a bar or a stone in the old prisons of the *Serenissima;* only the *Pozzi*, on a level with the water, and the *Piombi*, under the roof, are no longer used. Nothing has been altered in the dark, damp cells, deprived of light and air; and whereas in Mantua the prisoners were allowed an hour's walk each day, here they have been denied this privilege, permitted only to the condemned, because all communication between these supposed delinquents was forbidden. Each day since the 16th of February, when the trial commenced, they have been transported in the old prison gondola from the Riva degli Schiavoni to the Court of the Assizes, where, in a strong iron cage guarded by carbineers, seventeen have been exposed to the public gaze; two, admitted to bail, left outside, and free.

The counsel for the accused, resolving itself into the "college for the defence," is composed of advocates from the principal cities of northern Italy, members of Parliament, professors of the universities of Pavia, of Siena, and the greatest of all Italian jurisconsults and pleaders, Ceneri, the Professor of Law in the University of Bologna. The President, Cavaliere Scariensi, and the Judges, De Poli and Grasselli, and the Public Minister, have from first to last maintained strict impartiality. Without browbeating or pressure, the defenders have elicited from willing and unwilling witnesses such stories of misery and suffering endured, of oppression unresisted, of deliberate cruelty inflicted and unavenged, as Ireland cannot outrival, and by the same process they have proved most of the accused to be patriots who have exposed their lives for their country, citizens who have upheld and even administered law and maintained order in their respective communes. Siliprandi, for example, has been through all the campaigns for Italian independence from 1848 to 1870, gaining six medals for military valor, and is now a retired captain with a pension derived from the medals. Sartori served in the army, was an artillery officer up to 1870, is knight of the *Corona d'Italia.* None of the accused have ever been condemned by a criminal court, but several of them for press offences. All the accusations formulated against them of conspiracy against property and proprietors, of fomenting strikes, of intimidating such of the peasants as declined to sign a demand for fixed wages, have fallen to the ground. The "inflammatory publications" are proved to be "honest and moral in their tendencies," such as the 'Doveri degli Uomini' of Mazzini, and 'La Storia del Contadino,' a really well-written historical narrative of the Italian peasantry from the days of Rome to our own time, while the "statutes of the Anarchical Society of Viadana" would be rejected by any peasants out of Italy as drawn up in the interest of proprietors. Most of the articles written by Siliprandi end with the words *Calm* and *Solidarity;* most of the letters sequestrated are appeals to members of Parliament and well-wishers to the working classes, such as Professor Bovio, Senator Guerrieri Gonzago, inviting them to come and "enlighten the peasants as to the best methods of ameliorating their wretched condition."

More than once the college of defence voted thanks to the president for the ample liberty of speech allowed to the accused during the interrogations. An inspector of the police bore witness to the excellent character of several of the accused; other policemen admitted that they had arrested numbers of persons without any mandate; some even confessed that they had entrapped the men and then imprisoned them by surprise. If we except some well-known landed proprietors, who affirmed without any proof that the peasants were leaguing to get the land into their own hands, no single accusation has been proved. Deputy Panizza, a Mantuan, at one time parish doctor of three districts, affirmed that the proprietors, while exhausting the physical strength of the peasants by exacting twelve and fourteen hours' work in the broiling sun, denied them sufficient even of the coarsest food, or the money wherewith to purchase it, to restore their exhausted frames. He denied the existence of any secret conspiracy, and affirmed that the rumors spread by the papers of vineyards cut down, of incendiary fires, were utterly false. Deputy Fabbrici, also of Mantua, declared that the wages of the peasants were insufficient to keep them alive; that this justified their combining to secure an increase, but that in the organization of the society no idea of sedition entered. Cadenazzi, also a Mantuan deputy, a noted advocate and a man of order, had examined all the tariffs proposed; some were absurdly low, others were exaggerated, but no disorders had occurred. Not a single fact alleged could be proved, he added. The *Gazzetta di Mantova*, in announcing with terror that the socialist deputy, Costa, was coming to organize a rebellion of the peasants, had confounded him with Costa the sculptor, who was coming to Mantua to concert with the municipality for a monument to Garibaldi! An immense sensation was created by the deposition of Dr. Achille Sacchi, Garibaldi's "fighting doctor," now director of the Mantuan asylum, where by far the greater number of the wretched denizens are peasants gone mad from *pellagra.* His picture of the Mantuan peasantry was sad indeed—the property in the hands of few, *who do not live on the soil*, immense *latifondi;* comparatively few peasant families housed and engaged by the year, hence a superabundance of day laborers so badly remunerated that a robust peasant can scarcely secure food for himself, and when he divides it with wife and children all verge on starvation. *Pellagra*, Dr. Sacchi affirms, is a direct consequence of these causes; in the towns, soup kitchens have done something to diminish this scourge, but the condition of the surrounding peasantry daily deteriorates. In short, by the time that the case for the accusation was closed, it seemed as though the proprietors and not the peasants were on trial.

The arrests in the commencement were 200. Gradually, throughout the year, relay after relay were set at liberty, until, as we have seen, the prisoners dwindled down to 19. When, after thirty-seven days, the public minister harangued the jury, it became more than ever apparent that he had no case to lay before them. He himself absolved the "Society of Viadana," denounced as a promoter of disorder; paid tribute to the patriotic merits of Siliprandi, but feared "that he had substituted the red flag for that under which he had fought his country's battles"; professed his *belief* that to the constitution of the society of the peasants must be attributed the discontent of the Mantuan provinces; dwelt fully on the assertion of the great landed proprietor, D'Arco, that Mantua was on the verge of civil war; withdrew all accusations against six of the accused, and finished up with an appeal to the impartiality of the jury. The counsel of defence divided their labors admirably. Prof. Ceneri's eloquent discourse was "an act of accusation" against the Government. He dwelt forcibly on the abuses of the police, connived at by the magistrates—mandates of arrest being left in blank for the police to fill up with what names they chose; on the insult and maltreatment of respectable citizens, the refusal of doctors to the prisoners when sick, the atrocious persecutions against the families of the arrested. "Truly, he said, we are worthy missionaries of civilization to the Africans! One by one he disposed of the general accusations, then one by one proved the lawful deeds and virtuous intentions of the accused,

He affirmed that strikes are no longer punishable by law, that the condition of the Mantuan peasants justified and justifies such strikes, and, certain that the jury would absolve his "estimable friends" the accused, he sat down amid deafening applause which the president strove in vain to quell.

While I write, the liberated victims, borne in triumph by the populace, who occupied the entire space between the court of the assizes and the Ponte di Rialto, pale, trembling, and dazed by the air and light which for the last year has been denied them, grateful for the affectionate sympathy shown to them by the Venetians, are preparing to return to Mantua, to their desolate families, and, alas! in many cases to their barren hearths. Has any Government ever received a severer sentence or a more deserved castigation? Nor is this the first since I last wrote to you; the "republicans" whose trial had just then commenced, though they had declared that Italy had been brought to such a pass of slavery, corruption, immorality, and misery that they had set themselves to bring about a republic, were also absolved by a Roman jury. On the other hand, Cotta Ramusino (the friend of Depretis), the fraudulent bankrupt absolved by corrupt judges, was, on a new trial claimed by the sufferers, condemned to five years' imprisonment and a heavy fine.

At the present moment a rumor is afloat that Leo XIII. intends to withdraw the veto: "Neither electors or elected," at least for the old sub-Alpine provinces, and for Lombardy and Venice ceded by Austria to Italy by treaty. If this be so, the Catholics in the other provinces will take French leave, and though, as I have said before, the Catholics for the greater part do now vote under the rose, and their voting as a body will not greatly increase the aggregate number of electors by sending up Catholic Conservatives to Parliament, they would create a party round which non-Catholic Conservatives would rally, and for once we should see a Conservative party and a Liberal Opposition. The Liberals must then have a programme of their own, and in this case there may be yet a chance for representative institutions in Italy. Nothing, in my opinion, could be worse for the country than a political-social revolution with finances in their present state, commercial and industrial depression, agrarian misery and discontent, whose manifestation will be increased by the verdict of to-day, deepening daily. In England and America and now in France discontent comes to the surface and appears even greater than it is; here it is suppressed, stifled, and earthed over; hence it takes daily deeper and wider hold of the soil; should it burst out suddenly and at different points the conflagration will be fearful. We have barely escaped a general strike of the railway servants, and even this, I fear, is postponed rather than subdued.

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

SIR HENRY MAINE AND THE PATRIARCHAL THEORY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The review of Sir Henry Maine's 'Popular Government' in last week's *Nation* called to mind the regret which I felt—and, I think, a good many others also—when it was first announced that he had in preparation a book on a subject so remote from that in connection with which his earlier reputation was made. This was not at all because 'Popular Government' or 'Democracy' is not a theme of contemporary human interest, or because it is not helpful to have his views on this as well as on the other things about which he has written. But in the first place, his earlier works have developed a popular interest in the study of primitive institutions which it seems his duty to satisfy and direct. And in the second place, there is so much need for a scientific restatement of the patriarchal theory that one would be glad to have its author sum up his side of the case, now, when there has been at least enough testimony produced against him to make it clear that an intelligent jury will not give him a verdict without leaving their seats.

There is nothing presumptuous, I am satisfied, in saying that the criticism made by the various disciples of the anthropological school is, in a fair view, destructive of the picture which one gets of the development of primitive society from reading the 'Ancient Law' and the 'Early History of Institutions.' This, of course, is no new discovery, but the well-founded opinion, I take it, of every careful student of sociology. The influence of the "patriarchal theory" on contemporary thought, however, has been too profound to warrant hasty conclusions as to its general worth from what may be nothing more than a fault of presentation. The patriarchal theory has surely a permanent place in science, if not in the form under which Sir Henry Maine has already given it to us, then in some other form. But the duty of showing that it is elastic enough to readjust itself against the attacks which are made on it, rests with its advocates. I cannot find that Sir Henry Maine himself has attempted this. Where he has undertaken a reply to the strictures of his critics, as in some of the chapters of the volume on 'Early Law and Custom,' he has contented himself with presenting the difficulties which stand in the way of accepting the generalizations offered as a substitute for his own. This, however, is not a hard task. The most enthusiastic follower of McLennan or Morgan will hesitate to claim that their speculations have the highest constructive value. They help to supply the material for an ultimate theory of the development of society rather than a satisfactory theory itself. But at the same time they bring to clear view problem after problem which cannot be solved by any formula printed in the works of Sir Henry Maine.

Now there naturally suggest themselves to every one who studies the subject with any interest, various modifications or limitations of the patriarchal theory which will bring it into the current of this other thought. I, for example, have at times counted it quite likely that the theory shall be ultimately acknowledged to have no application at all to sociology, but to belong exclusively to the history of law. Here it may be treated as a belief, having all the influence on the development of Roman law of a fact, just as various theological delusions have shaped human thought and conduct in spite of their intrinsic worthlessness. This, of course, is a very radical view, but it suggests the extreme necessity which exists for one in authority to advance something less destructive. The logical result of the sort of warfare thus far waged between the two schools is to put the mind of the student in a position of uncertainty which is very proper in discussions about the beginnings of things. If this condition of intelligent agnosticism were general, one would have no reason to be apprehensive. But the singular fascination of Sir Henry Maine's literary style has given his views a currency which seems to me extremely inimical to scientific thinking. This appears both in deliberate written rehearsals of his ideas and in popular thought on the questions which he has discussed.

Professor Hearn, for example, in his work on the 'Aryan Household,' undertakes, in behalf of the patriarchal theory, to eliminate some of the difficulties suggested by the anthropological school. He proposes to this end to consider in his book the structure of an Aryan family only, without regard to the family organization as seen in other races. The reason for this exclusion is obvious. No small part of the problems incapable of solution, as we have said, by the method of Sir Henry Maine come from the history of peoples lower in the social scale than were any of the Indo-European races when we first have knowledge of them. There is nothing at all open to criticism in this proposition of Professor Hearn's. As he himself puts it, there is enough in the story of the Aryan household to fill a volume without any mention of the households of other races. One can, even in these days, write a Latin grammar without at the same time writing a comparative grammar. But it surely would be quite out of the question for the Latin grammarian who had no knowledge of Greek and Sanskrit, or who avowedly excluded them from consideration, to undertake confident generalizations in Latin historical syntax. And if he did attempt such generalizations, it would only be by chance if they failed in many cases of being monstrous. But it is a precisely parallel course which this disciple of Sir Henry Maine takes. He deliberately omits from his data whatever would belie his conclusions, and then declares with confidence that the *gens* in its historical origin was not a subdivision of the Horde nor an artificial union of families, but a natural aggregation of kinsmen held together by the ties of blood and such other bonds as were taken to be evidences of relationship in primitive society. I do not here dispute at all the accuracy of this definition. The clan may or may not have been based on kinship. But I claim that it is utterly unscientific to leave unexplored the annals of many peoples which are filled with facts apparently inconsistent with this view, and to found such a generalization on the social history of only a few races, and those, too, in a comparatively advanced stage of civilization.

But this sovereign disregard for the value of rebutting evidence is of course still more characteristic of the average unprofessional advocate of the patriarchal theory. I actually heard a scholar of no small attainments seriously state, not long since, that modern science had not brought to light a social custom which did not help to establish the truth of the notion that the typical clan was a natural union of kinsmen; and, by way of illustration, he showed how difficult it was for McLennan or Morgan to account at all for the origin of exogamy, but how simple was the explanation if you assumed that the clan was in the beginning a family. Its members then, of course, took wives, not from among their sisters, but from among the members of neighboring families. When all these families enlarged into clans, their members, without reason, continued the custom of their fathers, and the strange rule of marriage without the clan was made as imperative as that of marriage without the family had been. This seems to me a delicious example of history run mad—a remarkable revival of the etiological-myth method of Blackstone, long since abandoned. Nor is there anything unfair in holding the patriarchal theory at least partially responsible for such aberrations. Its advocates have to resort to some sort of juggling when they undertake to reconcile it, in its present shape, with the revelations of careful sociological investigation.

Ambrose Tighe.

St. Paul, Minn., April 3, 1886.

ACCURACY OF TRANSLATION AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The praises bestowed the other day in the *Nation* on Mrs. Ward's translation of Amiel's

'Journal' induce me to point out a few of the exceptions which may be taken to such favorable criticism, though I should agree with your reviewer so far as to think this translation better than most translations.

Setting aside consideration of the quality of *expansion*—to which Mrs. Ward confesses in her preface, and which most of us must think a mistake—it may be observed that there is frequently a lack of *exquisiteness* in the rendering of the thought: its shades are not conveyed. An illustration, with comments, will better define my meaning than any amount of assertion; and a very unimportant passage, which I have by accident just been led to compare with the original, may serve my purpose as well as any:

"Nuit superbe. Firmament étoilé, causerie de Jupiter et de Phébé en face de mes fenêtres. Effets grandioses de ténèbres et de rayons dans mon préau calviniste. Une sonate remontait du gouffre noir comme une prière de repentir s'échappant du lieu des supplices. Le pittoresque se fondait en poésie, et l'admiration en emotion."

"A superb night—a starry sky—Jupiter and Phebe holding converse before my windows. Grandiose effects of light and shade over the court-yard. A sonata rose from the black gulf of shadow like a repentant prayer wafted from purgatory. The picturesque was lost in poetry and admiration in feeling."

Now, sentence by sentence: first, why change the original punctuation? Next, "holding converse" is not the equivalent of "causerie," which has a little delicate touch of humor in it. Gods, indeed, would "hold converse," but Jupiter and Phebe that night before his windows were (one might say) "gossiping together." Or, if that be too bold, were they not at least "*idly* conversing"? My next criticism may seem a hypercriticism, but I think it not so. "Ténèbres" is not identical with "ombre," nor "rayons" with "lumière"; and I should be much inclined here to speak of "patches of blackness and shafts of light" over—the courtyard, says Mrs. Ward!!—"in my Calvinistic meadow," wrote Amiel, thereby conveying a thousand suggestions in a phrase. One sees the little grassy field, illuminated with moonlight and rendered unfamiliar by strange shadows, metamorphosed into "grandiosity," yet still "Calvinistic," still in the neighborhood of Geneva, still a droll place for Jupiter and Phebe to loiter in. How much of all this could one get at through Mrs. Ward? To continue: "the black gulf" is precisely as intelligible to an English reader as "le gouffre noir" to a French one—neither more nor less; why add "of shadow"? "S'échappant du lieu des supplices" ("escaping from the place of torments") is terribly weakened in "wafted from purgatory." If Amiel's thought could have been expressed by "purgatory," he himself would have said "le purgatoire"; and if "wafted" had been what he meant, he certainly would *not* have said "s'échappant." Again, he said "the picturesque melted into" (became one with, not "was *lost* in") "poetry, and admiration into emotion" (not "feeling" merely, which is but the cause of emotion. "Émotion" is the English *emotion: feeling* is in French "sentiment").

Very many of Mrs. Ward's pages are open to this sort of fault-finding; but it is not with any sense of special grievance against her that I say this. Rather her work rises enough above the average to be worthy of very careful and thoughtful criticism—of a kind to make evident the low standard now prevailing among translators. There is never an *artist* among them. If only, then, they would content themselves with giving us an honest *photograph!* But they all "touch up" the "negative," and resemblance then—how much is there?

A Lover of Trustworthy Work.

WALDSTEIN'S ART OF PHIDIAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If you can spare me a little of your valuable space, I should like to express the pleasure I have had in reading your admirable review of Prof. Waldstein's book on the 'Art of Phidias.' Mr. Waldstein is, without doubt, a man of ready and acute perceptions and of a vivid imagination: his inductions are plausible and his generalizations are brilliant, but some of them seem to rest on such meagre foundations that we all must ask for greater caution. You are perfectly right in your treatment of the question of the frieze: it was knowingly put where it could not be well seen, in just the same spirit as the back of the Ilyssus was modelled as carefully as the front, though no human eye should behold it.

But for one thing we should be profoundly grateful to Mr. Waldstein, and that is for calling the seated figures of the Pediment "The Sea and the Land." It is exactly what they are; and how perfectly they express the idea. It is extraordinary that when this had been pointed out it was not at once adopted. The figures are in such attitudes as never would have been chosen except to express something definite and characteristic, and they are not characteristic of any of the personages whose names have been hitherto attached to them. But how perfectly do they express the Sea lying in the lap of the Land—the Land bending over the Sea! These wonderful forms are given a new meaning, and, if possible, an even more attractive beauty than before.—Yours truly,

Geo. C. Lambdin.

Philadelphia, April 5, 1886.

WORK FOR THE KNIGHTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Knights of Labor are wide of the mark in supposing that their action in any way seriously affects Jay Gould. Many families may be pinched, many a scanty score of earnings be exhausted, many local or even national interests may suffer, but Mr. Gould will be in none of these. On the contrary, he needs no better leverage than the present attitude of the strikers gives him. If all the employees on a system of roads can be depended upon to "go out" if one of their number is unjustly discharged, the managers can make more money by causing strikes than by working their roads. They have only to "sell short," unjustly discharge some workman, and provoke a strike, allowing the wrong to be righted and the work to go on only when they have "covered their shorts." A splendid scheme for the unscrupulous capitalist, but does it bring the laborer any proportionate good? The shrewdness that has brought Mr. Gould through so many struggles with organized ability, backed by capital, is little likely to fail him now.

Only one thing can mitigate the evil already incurred, or furnish a safeguard against the accumulation of wealth by dishonest means. No clear-headed laboring man inveighs against wealth fairly acquired. To do so is to cry out against that storage of power which every day shows him is necessary for all great works. It is to condemn in others what he himself, if a prudent man, is trying to do—accumulate his savings. It is wealth dishonestly obtained that hurts the laboring man as it hurts the whole community. It is the immunity and reward given to dishonesty and fraud on a grand scale which presses heavily on the country. If, leaving to peaceful settlement all direct differences between employer and employed, organized labor would turn its attention to securing good government, we should see such changes in the country as no other agency can work. At present Democrats and Republicans struggle for the mastery, and a few thousand dollars from some rich man or corporation easily turn the scale and always debase the office. If the efforts of all labor organizations, independently of party, could be directed to securing just judges, and legislators with intellect and courage and integrity, not only would capital cease to furnish a grievance, but a thousand other abuses and annoyances would disappear. In no other way does a crusade against a manifest wrong seem likely to avail. Here it will surely succeed. B.

THE FRENCH SPOLIATION CLAIMS OF 1831.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Prof. Alexander Johnston's justly valued 'History of the United States' makes a rather remarkable misstatement, to which it seems to me that attention may properly be called.

In speaking of the strained relations with France ensuing upon the treaty of 1831, the author in substance asserts that the claims against France allowed in that treaty originated during the troubles prior to 1801, and that the money paid for their liquidation is still retained by the United States (p. 224).

These statements are quite erroneous, and result from a singular misapprehension on the part of the historian. The claims of 1800 were settled by the Conventions of 1801 and 1803, and the American claimants do still fruitlessly seek relief from their Government. But the claims adjusted in 1831 arose from 1806 to 1811, during the operation of the Berlin and Milan decrees of the Emperor Napoleon; and the money paid by France, some five millions of dollars, was promptly paid over to the creditors when received by the United States.

I will only refer to Charles Sumner's report, 'French Spoliation Claims' (page 39), to the treaties with France and the Treasury documents of 1837. (*Vide* Niles, vol. lii, title, "French Indemnity.") C. M. M.

Madison, Wis., April 7, 1886.

Notes.

A work of obviously great public utility, not confined to the legal profession, is Mr. Frederic J. Stimson's 'American Statute Law,' about to be issued by Charles C. Soule, Boston. It is a systematic comparison and statement "of the laws of all the States on every subject pertaining to the persons and property of citizens." Its value to legislators can hardly be overrated. The prospectus says: "It is surprising to find how few changes are made in substantive law by the annual or biennial legislatures. It has taken a year to pass this volume through the press, and yet the addenda rendered necessary by the new session-laws published during that period cover only two octavo pages." A biennial supplement is contemplated.

The New Church Board of Publication in this city issue a prospectus of the first edition in English of Swedenborg's 'De Anima,' translated and edited by Frank Sewall, A.M.

The full title of the autobiography of C. M. Clay which we announced last week reads: 'The History of his Thirty Years of Contention for Constitutional Liberty and Equal Rights under the Law of All the People of America, as Presented in the Memoirs, Writings, and Speeches of Cassius Marcellus Clay, of Kentucky,' etc. (Cincinnati: J. Fletcher Brennan & Co.). The materials for entertainment and instruction in Mr. Clay's remarkable career are such as ought to make a highly interesting work.

Part of Mr. Clay's reminiscences will be ministerial—from Russia. J. B. Lippincott Co.

have in press 'Consular Reminiscences,' by G. Henry Horstmann, late United States Consul at Munich and at Nuremberg. Also, 'Transactions and Changes in the Society of Friends,' by Joshua Maule.

Henry Holt & Co. will publish shortly 'The Romance of the Moon,' sixteen pen-and-ink drawings by Mr. J. A. Mitchell, artist-editor of *Life*.

An American edition of George Rae's 'Country Banker: His Clients, Cares, and Work'; and the 'Boat Sailer's Manual,' by Lieut. Edward F. Qualtrough, of the Navy, are promised by Charles Scribner's Sons.

'Thackeray as an Artist,' by James Schönberg, with seven characteristic illustrations after Thackeray, both colored and uncolored, is in the press of William Evarts Benjamin, 744 Broadway.

Roberts Bros. will publish shortly 'Glimpses of Three Coasts,' by the late Helen Hunt Jackson; 'Prince Otto,' by Robert Louis Stevenson; Lord Ronald Gower's 'Last Days of Marie Antoinette,' and 'Golden Mediocrity,' a novel by Mrs. Eugénie Hamerton, wife of the well-known art critic.

D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, announce 'A New Departure for Girls,' by Margaret Sidney; and 'With Reed and Lyre,' by Clinton Scollard.

The late Henry Stevens, according to the *Athenæum*, had in press at the time of his death 'Recollections of Mr. James Lenox, of New York.' It will still be printed, with portraits of author and subject, by Mr. H. N. Stevens, who succeeds to his father's business.

McCarty's 'Annual Statistician' for 1886 (San Francisco: L. P. McCarty; New York: F. E. Grant), though containing only a few more pages than last year's issue, appears to be a good deal larger, since it is printed on heavier paper. The style of binding is different and handsomer, and altogether the volume presents a much improved appearance. The contents are of the same general character as heretofore, the edition of 1886 quite maintaining the high reputation of the 'Statistician' as a useful and convenient book of reference. The returns of population in those States which in 1885 took a State census are fuller and more complete than those contained in the other annuals. In nine States there were enumerations in 1870, 1875, 1880, and 1885. These were Iowa, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan (in 1874 and 1884), Minnesota, Nebraska, New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin. In 1880 these nine States had a little less than one-fifth the population of the country. Between 1870 and 1875 the rate of increase was 18.65 per cent., from 1875 to 1880 it was 21.39 per cent., and from 1880 to 1885 18.28 per cent. So far as these States may be taken as a fair sample of the whole country, it would appear that the aggregate population is growing a little more slowly than during the last decade.

One of the most curious volumes of the census of 1880 is that just issued from the Government Printing Office, viz., 'The United States Mining Laws,' compiled under the direction of Clarence King. The State and Territorial Laws occupy but 243 pages out of nearly 700. The rest are occupied with local mining laws and regulations, a "mine" of instruction as to the way in which the rude and heterogeneous communities drawn together by the precious-metal fever found a *modus vivendi*. The local nomenclature is highly amusing, and is conveniently displayed in the index. Big Bug Mining District, Drytown, Con Cow, Poppysquash, Sebastipool, Hungry Creek, Little Humbug Creek, Lower Humbug, Shirttail, Consolidated Ten Mile, Helltown, Jack Rabbit, Devil's Gate and Chinatown, Jackass and Poor Man's Creek, Rising Sun, Rough and Ready, are some of the oddest. Greeley Flat, Grizzly Flat, and Sucker Flat occur, but Bret Harte's Poker Flat is unrecorded. The transcripts from the minutes of miners' meetings bring one very close to the organization of primitive society on the Pacific Slope.

If M. Clédat's edition of the 'Chanson de Roland' (Paris: Garnier; Boston: Schoenhof) did not present itself as a book for schools, an *édition classique*, it might deserve high praise. The editor offers an entirely new text. He holds that the song of Roland is of *French* not of Norman or Anglo-Norman origin, and in accordance with this theory he changes the hitherto received versions so as to make of the poem as pure a specimen as he can give of the old *Langue d'oïl*, of the dialect of the Île de France. Thus *empereire* become *emperédre; Carles, castel, Blancandrin* becomes *Charles, chastel, Blanchandrin*; *ad ested* is changed to *at estet*, etc. The result is a curious, and to a student of old French a very interesting, reconstruction or rather transposition of the old poem, but not at all the 'Chanson de Roland' as it should be presented to a beginner. There is an instructive preface, in which, however, the editor presupposes too little acquaintance with Latin. The glossary at the end is excellent. Everything is well explained, with numerous allusions to modern French. It is the best partial vocabulary of the *Langue d'oïl* that has yet been made, although a few of the etymologies might be contested; but owing to its elementary character there is nothing better that could be recommended to a beginner.

Viewed both as a French traveller and a writer, the author of 'L'Empire Russe en 1885' (Paris: Dreyfous; New York: F. W. Christern), M. G. Combes de Lestrade (or C. Combes de Lestrade, or Combes de l'Estrade, or Combes Lestrade; for we find all these forms on the covers and first pages of the volume), is a real phenomenon. He passed only a very short time—possibly a few months—in the great empire to which he devotes his book. He had "forgotten the once known Leroy-Beaulieu and Mackenzie Wallace," and gives us more sweeping and striking generalizations than either of those authors, after many years of the closest study, ever dared to broach on the same subject. A part of his generalizations he seems to have drawn from talk with fair representatives of that wonderful being, "la femme russe," in fair Paris, and a part from intuitive sources. All the book lacks is detail, evidence of observation, good sense, wit, style, and grammar. The following are its first sentences: "Cet ouvrage est sans prétentions. Une seule peut-être: c'est d'être vrai et encore. . . . Ce serait un si grand mérite.—Disons d'être consciencieux. J'ai laissé à la frontière tous mes sentiments républicains. . . ." And these are the last: "Deux Russes, Skobeleff et Gortschakoff, deux Français, Gambetta et Chanzy, sont morts trop tôt. Leur souvenir survit, leur paroles subsistent. Nous les prenons, ces paroles, nous les crions, et elles deviendront le chant de guerre qui nous mènera au combat." This ardent anti-German sentiment may palliate in French eyes many a slip of diction and punctuation; but the sins are too many.

Since commenting on the members of the Goethe Gesellschaft (*Nation* No. 1084) a revised list has come to hand which brings their number in America up to 17, a better "shine" than England's. New York State furnishes 7; Ohio, Wisconsin, and Massachusetts 2 each; Illinois, Connecticut, Missouri, and Virginia 1 each. (Ithaca and New York city number 3 each; Boston none, unless Wellesley College should be credited to Boston.) Nine names suggest American, 8 German extraction, and 8 members are college professors. A copy, by the way, of the first report of the managers will be sent on application to B. Westermann & Co., in this city.

Nine new instalments of the abridged 'Allgemeine Weltgeschichte' of Flathe, Hertzberg, Justi, Philippson, etc. (Westermann & Co.) embrace the thirty-seventh. They conclude the history of Rome down to the division of the Empire in 395, and review the whole course of it in a chronological table. The illustrations continue plentiful, fresh, and of the best quality, most of the engravings of buildings and of statuary being from photographs. Some colored plates are admirable.

From the same firm we have parts 6-10 of the 'Geschichte der deutschen Kunst,' which drive a three-in-hand of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture (by Janitschek, Bode, and Dohme respectively), with a fine array of woodcuts and chromolithographs.

Of the 'Allgemeine Naturkunde' (Westermann) parts 18-24 are on our table, wholly devoted to man, his development, nourishment, etc. (by Dr. Johannes Ranke), and rich in the most authentic representations in black and white and in color.

The third volume of the fourth edition of 'Meyers' Konversations Lexikon' (Westermann) is now completed, closing with the name Chimbote. The geographical articles are, as usual, full and up to date, Bulgaria furnishing an example. Notable among the maps are those of Brandenburg, Brunswick (duchy and city), Bremen, Chemnitz, Budapest; the firebrand provinces Bosnia and Herzegovina, with Montenegro and parts of Servia and Albania, from Belgrade to Dulcigno. From the article Book Trade we learn that the unfinished work of the late Dr. Friedrich Kapp, on the German book trade, is in the press. Great American names are not numerous in the portion of alphabet covered by these instalments, but the omission of Aaron Burr is a failure of proportion only magnified by the insertion of "Artemus Ward." Fame is again illustrated by the fact that this lesser Browne and John Brown are each designated as "bekannter"; and while the bibliography of the humorist is carefully indicated, not a single reference is given for the hero of Harper's Ferry. Mr. G. W. Cable is admitted to the ranks. The large space allowed to Byron is significant of his lingering hold on the Continental imagination. His five columns contrast with the three given to Calvin and Cervantes, or the two to Burke and Carlyle, respectively.

The larger Brockhaus (L. W. Schmidt), in its thirteenth edition, touches *Raum* in Part 188. Poland, Portugal, and Prussia are the leading political articles. The list of planets is to be remarked. The chief maps are one of the European rainfall, another of the South Polar region, and a third of East and West Prussia. There is a beautiful colored plate of edible mushrooms. The editor has overlooked in his Poe bibliography the latest and best life, by Mr. G. E. Woodberry.

The lesser Brockhaus in its forty-fifth number ends with Northumberland. Here we have the poisonous mushrooms in their true colors, and maps of Spain and Portugal and of Switzerland —the latter too fine for the unaided eye.

The German and English collections of short tales published every three weeks by L. Schick, Chicago, and known as the "Collection Schick" and the "Overland Library," already require a shelf to themselves. Paul Heyse, K. E. Franzos, G. Droz, Rudolf and Paul Lindau, J. Rodenberg, E. Eckstein, W. Jensen, Sacher-Masoch, Turgeneff, Fanny Lewald, are some of the authors represented in one or both collections. When in both, the learner and the teacher of German sometimes have the same story in the two languages—a practical convenience. The argument in favor of the use of Roman type is reinforced by the contrast in legibility between the German and the English series.

Prof. Willard Fiske has printed at Florence for his own convenience a 'Hand-book of Petrarch Editions in the Florentine Public Libraries.' A

list of special Petrarch bibliographies concludes this *brochure* of 12 pp. 8vo, in which one remarks the small proportion of works obelized to show that they are not contained in Mr. Fiske's own extraordinary collection.

The clerical press in Rome has made a great outcry against the municipality for its destruction of the ancient monuments in its endeavor to extirpate the squalor and pestilence of certain quarters. This has been incautiously caught up in Germany by Herman Grimm and Gregorovius, in the *Rundschau* and the *Allgemeine Zeitung*. The *Popolo Romano* and *Italie* have made effective replies, both in direct negation, and in showing what the boasted conservatism of the Papacy did in allowing these monuments to be encumbered and built over for base uses. A large part of the labor of the city government has been expended in undoing this very neglect. Grimm's article, however, is translated in full in a supplement to the Roman *Rassegna* of March 21.

A Committee of the American Society for Psychical Research on Apparitions and Haunted Houses consists of Josiah Royce, T. W. Higginson, and F. E. Abbot, Cambridge, Mass.; Morton Prince, M.D., John C. Ropes (No. 40 State Street), and Roland Thaxter (No. 98 Pinckney Street), Boston; and Woodward Hudson, Concord, Mass. They desire authentic communications concerning the apparitions of absent or deceased persons; and any member of the Committee will, on application, send a circular of instructions as to the kind of evidence desired—*i. e.*, as to what points should be certified.

New circulars of the Egypt Exploration Fund, with particulars concerning the labors past and future in the Delta region, may now be had on application to the Rev. W. C. Winslow, No. 429 Beacon Street, Boston, who, as honorary treasurer of the fund for the United States, will be glad to receive contributions towards the above object.

—No. 12 of Mr. J. H. Hickcox's Monthly Catalogue of United States Government Publications (906 M St., W., Washington, D. C.) completes the first volume; and not with the customary alphabetical list alone for the current session of Congress up to January 1, 1886, but with an index to the volume. For the first time, therefore, in the history of the country its public documents are grouped, classified, and made accessible. This simple statement conveys all that need be said to the intelligent, yet it is discouraging to learn that Mr. Hickcox's admirable and self-denying labors have not met with adequate support, even from the public libraries. He will go on, however, both continuing and improving his work. The truth is, that he is really the Government's servant, and should be officially recognized as such. The task he has undertaken properly devolves on the Government, and were a place found for Mr. Hickcox in one of the departments (say in the Bureau of Education), with an adequate salary, it would be an economy, since his Catalogue furnishes an indispensable basis for the control of our extravagant and wasteful publishing. In time there might grow out of this a proper system of selling the products of the Government Printing Office.

—The autobiography of literary men is interesting because it satisfies a justifiable popular curiosity in regard to those persons who achieve eminence and become public characters, or because it affords valuable lessons to the young who may be ambitious to try a similar career. Whether the department which *Lippincott's* for April opens, under the title of "Our Experience Meetings," is likely to prove useful in either way, is doubtful; but the first instalment does not rise above the level of personal gossip by the writers about themselves. The reporters will find their occupation gone if this sort of thing is to go on and the Court Circular of Scribbledom is to be written by the lions of the day. The authors who march serenely to the magazine confessional this month are Julian Hawthorne, Edgar Fawcett, and Joel Chandler Harris. The hour of their formal biographies is still distant, and at present they can confide only the history of their start, and their attitude toward the profession. Mr. Hawthorne was early warned off by his father, and took up the pen to support his family because he found it a means of getting ready money; he writes lightly, not to say cynically, and regards the matter as a kind of joke. Mr. Harris flatly denies that he is a literary man, more than hints that he would not be if he could, and looks on his rabbit stories as a freak of an otherwise well-regulated journalistic genius. But no budding poet ever took himself more seriously than Edgar Fawcett: he tells of his novels, etc., in the copy-books of his childhood, and of his later poems and novels; he declares himself well satisfied with results, both literary and pecuniary; poetry is his "most authentic gift," but he can do a novel with cleverness, and he may give us another drama, though the time for American drama, he suggests, has perhaps not arrived. He is evidently troubled by the "acid" critics who are "ignorant of so-called aristocratic New York doings"; and the sentences with which from time to time he switches these gad-flies off from his Pegasus are delightfully confidential. But really ought not some one to intimate that autobiography in men under forty is probably an impertinence?

—The *Century*, besides its usual variety of fiction, travel, and poetry, has two articles on public questions. One, on the all-absorbing topic of arbitration in the disputes of industry, is of considerable value merely by its clear and brief exposition of the modes of the foreign tribunals, especially the French, which have been long established and can be studied in their actual working. The method of arbitration is not a new idea, but, on the contrary, is just one of those matters about which we may profitably try to learn from "abroad." The sketch of Sir Titus Salt's labor village is effectively drawn, and makes a telling conclusion to a plea which errs only by its breadth. Rev. Washington Gladden, in another article, attempts to show that a reform in education is the pressing need; he would have it made by introducing industrial training and moral instruction, and he defends both on the ground of Christianity. The topics are old, but are treated in a fresh and forcible way. In regard to "moral instruction," it is most doubtful whether the question can be put on the ground of practical debate before a text-book is offered which shall remove the distrust of many as to whether morals can be presented to the young in a purely secular and prudential form; and at the same time the second question would be tested, as to whether the advocates of the reform would really be satisfied by a scientific compendium in which morals should be separated from the religious motives of conduct. It is to be noted that Mr. Gladden does not think direct religious instruction desirable under present circumstances.

—The early New England worthies figure largely in volume 6 (Bot-Bro.) of Leslie Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan): John Brereton, Gosnold's companion in the voyage to Cape Cod and shortlived settlement in Buzzard's Bay in 1602 (not 1603, as here); Elder Brewster, of the *Mayflower*, and his companion, William Bradford; and Anne Bradstreet, poetess and the ancestor of poets in Dana and Holmes, reckoning also Channing among her posterity. William Bradford, the printer, is found between the same covers. All the foregoing belong rather to the New than to the Old World. Among military and naval notables associated with this country are Braddock; the more fortunate Indian fighter, Henry Bouquet; General Brock, the victor over General Hull; Sir Philip Broke, whose *Shannon* captured the *Chesapeake* in our waters: and the two brothers, natives of Rhode Island, Captain Edward Pelham Brenton, R. N., and Vice-Admiral Sir Jaleel Brenton. The actors, Gustavus V. Brooke and John Brougham, belong in part—the latter in great part—to the American stage. Joseph Bramah's cisatlantic relations consisted in having his famous lock picked by the Yankee Hobbs in 1851. One name is missing from the Anglo-American list which well merited a place there, and, if there is to be a supplement to this Dictionary, should certainly not be overlooked again. We mean the Rev. George Bourne, who brought to his adopted country a thorough hatred of slavery, and first on either side of the Atlantic demanded in print its immediate abolition. Pioneers and originators to be remarked in the strictly British portion are Matthew Boulton, partner with Watt in perfecting the steam-engine; George Bradshaw, the inventor of railway guides; Alderman John Boydell, whose illustrated Shakspere was the first great undertaking of the kind by English artists; Lord Brougham, founder of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge; Baron Berners, first translator of Froissart into English; and Henry Boyd, who first turned Dante into English verse (1785). The notice of Brougham is kindly; that of Dr. Bowring more sympathetic. Leslie Stephen's account of Charlotte Brontë comprehends the entire family, and treats at length of the mad Branwell, in order to put at rest the scandals which he propagated. A critical estimate of the author of 'Jane Eyre' is not attempted. Bracton is the chief legal luminary in this volume, his birth-place (like the spelling of his name) being still undetermined. Science is represented by Robert Boyle, a "philosopher" in the older sense of the term; by James Bradley, the astronomer; by Richard Bright, the discoverer of the too familiar disease which bears his name. Anne Bracegirdle and John Braham stand for the dramatic and lyric stage. Thomas Bowdler it was whose Shaksperian expurgations suggested to Gen. Perronet Thompson the term to *bowdlerize*. Lord Mayo's is one of the latest political names we meet with, and fresher still is that of Charles Bray, the friend of George Eliot.

—"A Non-Political Scientist" writes us:

"The article about Huxley in the *Nation* of April 8 is capital; but can't you get the writer to match it by the 'scientific politician,' taking the last words of wisdom of the G. O. M. on the subject of Genesis in the *Nineteenth Century*?"

—The north coast of the South American continent is inhabited by a number of tribes belonging to the so-called Carib family. This race also found scattered to a considerable distance in land, as on the Lower and Middle Orinoco; and in the Goajira peninsula one of the most barbaric Carib tribes has for some time made travelling dangerous or impossible. (See the *Nation*, No. 1077.) There is an isolated tract of mountains, rising up to 6,000 metres, in the northern part of the Colombian States, the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta, around which are gathered several distinct populations of the Carib stock hardly known to this day except by name. Among these we have the Köggaba, the Chimila, probably mixed with the historical Tairones, the Bintakua, and the Guamaka, who live at Marocasa and El Rosario. The presbyter Rafael Celedón, favorably known by his Goajira grammar and dictionary, recently visited the above tribes for scienti-

fic purposes. Though some of them did not receive him amicably, he succeeded in gathering sufficient material to publish a grammar, catechism, and vocabulary of the Köggaba tongue, which in its phonetics recalls at once the Goajira. His work has been published this year by Maisonneuve & Co., Paris, with introduction and text in Spanish. The Vocabulary forms two parts: Spanish-Köggaba and Köggaba-Spanish, each containing about 1,250 vocables. The sixteen concluding pages of the volume are filled with comparative vocabularies of Guamaka (of which Celedón had previously published a short vocabulary), of Chimila, and of Bintakua. Even readers who are not linguists will find themselves deeply interested in the historic and ethnologic introduction. The novelty of the sketches taken in a country so little known and visited is as charming as the graphic delineation of the Indian tribes studied by the author, who presides over an educational establishment at Santa Marta.

—Joseph Victor von Scheffel, whom death relieved from intense sufferings on April 10, was unquestionably the most popular German poet of this generation. His popularity was evinced not only by the extraordinary success of his "Trompeter von Säckingen"—which has passed through seventy-seven editions—but by the great number of disciples and imitators whom his muse called forth, so that his influence on rising German poets is perhaps only inferior to that of Heine. Scheffel revived with astonishing success the interest in the days and lays of the minnesingers which was always supposed to linger in every German breast, but which did not become vital until his own songs wove past and present into a charming reality. And though "working a vein"—a proceeding generally fatal to true poetry—he often touched the heart of Germany as only Uhland's ballads did before him. His "Gaudeamus" and other songs made him the idol of German universities, while the local color which he infused not only into his "Ekkehard" and other pseudo-mediæval poems but also into his antediluvian and prehistoric humor, testified to the range of his scholarly attainments. Like Uhland, Geibel, and Bodenstedt, at once a scholar and a poet of the people, Scheffel was manly and liberal in things poetical, political, and religious. He was one of the most gifted sons of Baden, which occupies so enviable a position among German States, and which, at the approaching jubilee of the Heidelberg University, would have honored him according to his deserts. He had just celebrated his sixtieth birthday amidst the congratulations of all Germany.

—In a recent number of the *Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie und Sprachwissenschaft*, Steinthal, with his usual vigor, decides in favor of Greek against Latin. If the youthful generation is overburdened, and one or the other must go, away with the Latin. What is the good of Latin? he asks. The jurist, if he needs it, can learn it at the university; and not every jurist needs it. The theologian does not need it; least of all, the physician. There is no substitute for Greek. Translations from the Greek are only enjoyable to those who know something of Greek, something of Hellenism. We are all barbarians—the Romans as well as ourselves. There is only one road to humanity, and that leads through Greece, as there is but one road to religion, and that leads through Palestine. This is Wilhelm von Humboldt's creed, and Steinthal repeats it. Steinthal does not undertake to decide for or against the thesis that the Germans have a congeniality with the Greeks. If the congeniality is denied, then the study of Greek is so much the more necessary. Not that every numskull is to study Greek, but the upper ten thousand, the upper hundred thousand, must be impregnated with Greek. One cannot experiment with history, and no one can tell what the higher life of Germany will be like when Greek vanishes. Steinthal believes that there will be a condition of absolute unculture, and that Germany will lose its high rank in physics and chemistry, its primacy in physiology, when the German gymnasium and German philosophy cease to be. If Steinthal had looked back into the history of the Middle Ages, and watched the attitude of the mediæval mind toward the unknown background of such culture as was then possessed, he might have found some experimental evidence for his thesis, which, with all its exaggeration, carries with it a certain lesson. Every element of culture that has become national is indefeasible. The only question is the question of proportion.

SCHUMANN AS MIRRORED IN HIS LETTERS.

Jugendbriefe von Robert Schumann. Nach den Originalen mitgetheilt von Clara Schumann. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel. 1886. Pp. 315.

Clara Schumann, the most gifted woman that has ever chosen music as a profession, and who, at the age of sixty-seven, still continues to be among the most fascinating of pianists, has placed the musical world under additional obligations by issuing this collection of private letters, written by Schumann between the ages of eighteen and thirty (1827–40), partly to her, partly to his mother, and other relatives, friends, and business associates. She was prompted to this act not only by the consciousness that there are many literary gems in the correspondence which should not be lost to the world, but by the thought that more is generally known of Schumann's eccentricities than of his real traits of character. Inasmuch as a wretched script was one of the most conspicuous of these eccentricities, it is fortunate that his wife lived to edit his letters; but even she, though familiar with his handwriting during many years of courtship and marriage, is not infrequently obliged to interpolate a conjectural word. Schumann had a genuine vein of humor, which he reveals in his correspondence as in his compositions and criticisms. He was aware that his manuscript was not a model of caligraphy, but, on being remonstrated with, he passionately declared he could not do any better, promising, however, sarcastically that, as a predestined diplomat, he would keep an amanuensis in future. And on page 245 begins a long letter to Clara which presents a curious appearance. Every twentieth word or so is placed between two vertical lines, regarding which the reader is kept in the dark until he comes to this postscript: "In great haste, owing to business affairs, I add a sort of lexicon of indistinctly written words, which I have placed within brackets. This will probably make the letter appear very picturesque and piquant. The idea is not so bad. Adio, clarissima Cara, cara Clarissima." Then follows the "lexicon" of twenty words, including his own signature.

Although, in a semi-humorous vein, Schumann repeatedly alludes in these letters to the "foregone conclusion" that they will some day be printed, there is hardly any indication that such a thought was ever in his mind while writing them. They are, in fact, full of confidences and confessions, some of which he could not have been very ambitious to see in print; such as his frequent appeals for "more ducats," during his student days, and his sophistically ingenious excuses for needing so much money, placed side by side with his frank admission that he had no talent for economy, and was very fond of cigars, wine, and especially travelling. In one of the most amusing of the letters, he advances twelve reasons why his mother should send him about $200 to enable him to see Switzerland and Italy. As a last, convincing argument he gently hints that it is very easy for a student in Heidelberg to borrow money at 10 per cent. interest. He got the money and enjoyed his Swiss tour, mostly on foot and alone; but in Italy various misfortunes overtook him—he fell ill, his money ran out, and he was only too glad to return to Heidelberg in the same condition as when he had first arrived there, on which occasion the state of his purse compelled him to make the last part of the journey from Leipzig on foot. On this trip he enjoyed that unique emotional thrill of the German, the first sight of the Rhine, with which he was so enchanted that he went to the extreme forward end of the deck, smoking a good cigar given him by an Englishman: "Thus I sat alone all the afternoon, revelling in the wild storm which ploughed through my hair, and composing a poem of praise to the Northeast wind"—for Schumann often indulged in poetic efforts, especially when inspired to flights of fancy by his favorite author, Jean Paul.

At Heidelberg, which he called "ein ganzes Paradies von Natur," he spent one of the happiest years of his life. Student life at this town he thus compares with Leipzig:

> "In and near Heidelberg the student is the most prominent and respected individual, since it is he who supports the town, so that the citizens and Philistines are naturally excessively courteous. I consider it a disadvantage for a young man, especially for a student, to live in a town where the student only and solely rules and flourishes. Repression alone favors the free development of a youth, and the everlasting loafing with students greatly limits many-sidedness of thought, and consequently exerts a bad influence on practical life. This is one great advantage Leipzig has over Heidelberg, which, in fact, a large city always has over a small one. . . . On the other hand, Heidelberg has this advantage, that the grandeur and beauty of the natural scenery prevent the students from spending so much of their time in drinking; for which reason the students here are ten times more sober than in Leipzig."

Schumann himself, as we have said, was fond of a glass of good wine. On his first journey at Prague, he tells us, the Tokay made him happy. And in another place he exclaims, "Every day I should like to drink champagne to excite myself." But, though of a solitary disposition, he did not care to drink alone, for "only in the intimate circle of sympathetic hearts does the vine's blood become transfused into our own, and warm it to enthusiasm." Schumann's special vice was the constant smoking of very strong cigars; nor does he appear to have devoted to gastronomic matters the attention necessary to nourish such an abnormally active brain as his. At one time he lived on potatoes alone for several weeks; at another he saved on his meals to get money for French lessons; and although he took enough interest in a good *menu* to copy it in a letter, he repeatedly laments the time which is uselessly wasted in eating. Such a policy, combined with his smoking habit, doubtless helped to shatter his powers, leading finally to the lunatic asylum and a comparatively early death.

His frequent fits of melancholy may also perhaps be traced in part to these early habits. Though probably unacquainted with Burton, he held that "there is in melancholy sentiments something extremely attractive and even invigorating to the imagination." Attempts were frequently made by his friends to teach him more sociable habits. Thus, at Leipzig, "Dr. Carus's family are anxious to introduce me to innumerable families — 'it would be good for my prospects,' they think, and so do I, and yet I don't get there, and in fact seldom go out at all. Indeed, I am often very leathery, dry, disagreeable, and laugh much inwardly." That his apparent coldness and indifference to his

neighbors and friends were due chiefly to his absorption in his world of ideas, and his consequent want of sympathy with the artificial usages of society, becomes apparent from this confession, written to Clara in 1838:

"I should like to confide to you many other things regarding my character—how people often wonder that I meet the warmest expressions of love with coldness and reserve, and often offend and humiliate precisely those who are most sincerely devoted to me. Often have I queried and reproached myself for this, for inwardly I acknowledge even the most trifling favor, understand every wink, every subtle trait in the heart of another, and yet I so often blunder in what I say and do."

In these melancholy moods nature was his refuge and consolation. He objected to Leipzig, because there were no delights of nature—"everything artificially transformed; no valley, no mountain, where I might revel in my thoughts: no place where I can be alone, except in the bolted room, with the eternal noise and turmoil below." Although he had but a few intimate friends, he was liked by all the students, and even enjoyed the name of "a favorite of the Heidelberg public." One of his intimate friends was Flechsig, but even of him he paradoxically complains that he is too sympathetic: "He never cheers me up; if I am occasionally in a melancholy mood, he ought not to be the same, and he ought to have sufficient humanity to stir me up. That I often need cheering up, I know very well." Yet he was as often in a state of extreme happiness and enjoyment of life and his talents. He even, on occasion, indulged in students' pranks. On his journey to Heidelberg he induced the postillion to let him take the reins: "Thunder! how the horses ran, and how extravagantly happy I was, and how we stopped at every tavern to get fodder, and how I entertained the whole company, and how sorry they all were when I parted from them at Wiesbaden!!" At Frankfort, one morning, he writes: "I felt an extraordinary longing to play on a piano. So I calmly went to the nearest dealer, told him I was the tutor of a young English lord who wished to buy a grand piano, and then I played, to the wonder and delight of the bystanders, for three hours. I promised to return in two days and inform them if the lord wanted the instrument; but on that date I was at Rüdesheim drinking Rüdesheimer." In another place he gives an account of "a scene worthy of Van Dyck, and a most genial evening" he spent with some students at a tavern filled with peasants. They had some grog, and at the request of the peasants one of the students declaimed, and Schumann played. Then a dance was arranged. "The peasants beat time with their feet. We were in high spirits, and danced dizzily among the peasant feet, and finally took a touching farewell of the company by giving all the peasant girls, Minchen, etc., smacking kisses on the lips."

Were women, like men, afflicted with retrospective jealousy, Schumann's widow, in editing these letters, would have received a pang from many other passages revealing Schumann's fondness for the fair sex. He allowed no good-looking woman to pass him on the street without taking the opportunity to cultivate his sense of beauty. After his engagement to Clara he gives her fair warning that he has the "very mischievous habit" of being a great admirer of beautiful women and girls. "They make me positively smirk, and I swim in panegyrics on your sex. Consequently, if at some future time we walk along the streets of Vienna and meet a beauty, and I exclaim, 'Oh, Clara! see this heavenly vision,' or something of the sort, you must not be alarmed nor scold me." He had a number of transient passions before he discovered that Clara was his only true love. There was Nanni, his "guardian angel," who saved him from the perils of the world and hovered before his vision like a saint. "I feel like kneeling before her and adoring her like a Madonna." But Nanni had a dangerous rival in Liddy. Not long, however, for he found Liddy silly, cold as marble, and—fatal defect—she could not sympathize with him regarding Jean Paul. "The exalted image of my ideal disappears when I think of the remarks she made about Jean Paul. Let the dead rest in peace."

Several of his flames are not alluded to in this correspondence. On his travels he appears to have had the habit of noting down in his diary the prevalence and peculiarities of feminine beauty. He complains that from Mainz to Heidelberg he "did not see a single pretty face." Yet as a whole the Rhine maidens seem to have won his admiration:

"What characteristic faces among the lowest classes! On the west shore of the Rhine the girls have very delicate features, indicating amiability rather than intelligence; the noses are mostly Greek, the face very oval and artistically symmetrical, the hair brown; I did not see a single blonde. The complexion is soft, delicate, with more white than red; melancholy rather than sanguine. The Frankfort girls, on the other hand, have in common a sisterly trait—the character of German, manly, sad earnestness which we often find in our quondam free cities, and which toward the east gradually merges into a gentle softness. Characteristic are the faces of all the Frankfort girls: intellectual or beautiful few of them; the noses mostly Greek, often snub-noses; the dialect I did not like."

The English type of beauty appears to have especially won his approval. "When she spoke it sounded like the whispering of angels," he says of an Englishwoman, "as pretty as a picture," whom he met. Elsewhere he says, laconically: "On the 24th I arrived at Mainz with the steamer, in company with twenty to thirty Englishmen and women. Next day the number of English increased to fifty. If I ever marry, it must be an English woman." Some years later, however, with the fickleness of genius, he writes about Ernestine, the daughter of a rich Bohemian Baron, "a delightfully innocent, childish soul, tender and pensive, attached to me and to everything artistic by the most sincere love, extremely musical—in short, just the kind of a girl I could wish to marry." He did get engaged to her, but the following year the engagement was dissolved; and soon after this he discovered that his artistic admiration for Clara Wieck had assumed the form of love. Although her father opposed their union several years, on account of Schumann's poverty, the young couple often met, and not only in the music-room. In 1833 he writes to his mother regarding Clara: "The other day when we went to Connewitz (we take a two or three hours' walk almost daily), I heard her say to herself, 'How happy I am! how happy!' Who would not like to hear that! On this road there are a number of very useless stones, in the midst of the footpath. Now, as it happens in conversation that I more frequently look up than down, she always walks behind me and gently pulls my coat at every stone, lest I may fall."

It was most fortunate for Schumann that his bride and wife was one of the greatest living pianists. For, owing to the accident to his hand, though he could still improvise, he could not appear in public to interpret his own compositions, which depended so much for their success on a sympathetic performance, since they differed so greatly from the prevalent style of Hummel and the classical masters that even so gifted a musician as Mendelssohn failed to understand them. But Clara made it the task of her life to secure him recognition, and this was an additional bond that united their souls. "When you are mine," he writes, "you will occasionally hear something new from me; I believe you will often inspire me, and the mere fact that I shall then frequently hear my own compositions will cheer me up." "Your Romance showed me once more that we must become man and wife. Every one of your thoughts comes from my soul, even as I owe all my music to you." To Dorn he writes that many of his compositions, including the Noveletten, the Kreisleriana, and the Kinderscenen, were inspired by Clara; and it is well known that his love became the incentive to the composition, in one year, of over a hundred wonderful songs—his previous compositions, up to 1840, having all been for piano alone. "I have discovered," he writes in 1838, "that nothing is so apt to give wings to the imagination as expectation and longing for something, as happened again in the last few days, when I was awaiting a letter from you and meanwhile composed whole volumes—strange, crazy, most majestic things; how you will open your eyes when you play them. In brief, I am often so full of music now that I feel as if I should burst." In the last letter of this collection he says: "Sometimes it appears to me as if I were treading entirely new paths in music"; and there are many other passages showing that he realized well that the very things which his contemporaries criticised and decried as eccentric and obscure (Hummel, *e. g.*, on page 179, objects to his frequent changes of harmony and his originality!), were really his most inspired efforts. Though he never allowed the desire for popularity to influence his work, yet he occasionally craves appreciation. "I am willing to confess that I should be greatly pleased if I could succeed in composing something which would impel the public, after hearing you play it, to run against the walls in their delight; for vain we composers are, even though we have no reason to be so." It must have given him a strange shock when an amateur asked him, at one of his wife's concerts in Vienna, if he also was musical!

In her efforts to win appreciation for her husband, Clara was nobly assisted by Liszt. Just like Wagner, Schumann was not at first very favorably impressed with Liszt, owing to the sensational flavor of his early performances. But he soon changed his mind, especially when Liszt played some of his (Schumann's) compositions. "Many things were different from my conception of them, but always '*genial*,' and marked by a tenderness and boldness of expression which even he presumably has not at his command every day. Becker was the only other person present, and he had tears in his eyes." And two days later: "But I must tell you that Liszt appears to me grander every day. This morning he again played at Raimund Härtel's, in a way to make us all tremble and rejoice, some études of Chopin, a number of the Rossini soirées, and other things." Of other contemporary pianists Hummel, "ten years behind the times," and Thalberg, whom he liked better as pianist than as composer, are alluded to. Yet he writes in 1830 that he intends going to Weimar "for the sly reason of being able to *call myself* a pupil of Hummel." Wieck, his father-in-law, he esteemed greatly as teacher and adviser, but it offended him deeply that Wieck should have followed the common error of estimating genius with a yardstick, and asked where were his "Don Juan" and his "Freischütz"? His enthusiasm for Schubert, Chopin, and especially for Bach finds frequent expression. Bach's "Well-Tempered Clavichord," he declares is his "grammar, and the best of all grammars. The fugues I have analyzed successively to the minutest details; the advantage resulting from this is great, and has a morally bracing effect on the whole system, for Bach was a man through and through; in him there is nothing done by halves, nothing morbid,

but all is written for time eternal." Six years later: "Bach is my daily bread; from him I derive gratification and get new ideas—'compared with him we are all children,' Beethoven has said, I believe." One day a caller remarked that Bach was old and wrote in an old-fashioned manner: "but I told him he was neither old nor new, but much more than that, namely, eternal. I came near losing my temper." Concerning the unappreciative Mendelssohn, he writes to Clara:

"I am told that he is not well disposed toward me. I should feel sorry if that were true, since I am conscious of having preserved noble sentiments toward him. If you know anything let me hear it on occasion; that will at least make me cautious, and I do not wish to squander anything where I am ill-spoken of. Concerning my relations toward him as a musician [1838], I am quite aware that I could learn of him for years; but he, too, some things of me. Brought up under similar circumstances, destined for music from childhood, I would surpass you all—that I feel from the energy of my inventive powers."

Concerning this energy he says, some time after this, when he had just finished a dozen songs: "Again I have composed so much that I am sometimes visited by a mysterious feeling. Alas! I cannot help it. I could wish to sing myself to death, like a nightingale."

One of the most interesting bits of information contained in this correspondence is that, when quite a young man, Schumann commenced a treatise on musical æsthetics. In view of the many epoch-making thoughts contained in his two volumes of collected criticisms, it is very much to be regretted that this plan was not carried out. On one question of musical psychology light is thrown by several of these letters. Like many other composers, it seems that Schumann often, if not generally, had some pictorial image or event in his mind in composing. "When I composed my first songs," he writes to Clara, "I was entirely within you. Without such a bride one cannot write such music." "I am affected by everything that goes on in the world—politics, literature, mankind. In my own manner I meditate on everything, which then seeks utterance in music. That is why many of my compositions are so difficult to understand, because they relate to remote affairs; and often significant, because all that's remarkable in our time affects me, and I have to give it expression in musical language." One of the letters to Clara begins: "Tell me what the first part of the Fantasia suggests to you. Does it not bring many pictures before your mind?" Concerning the "Phantasiestücke" he writes: "When they were finished I was delighted to find the story of Hero and Leander in them. . . . Tell me if you, too, find this picture fitting the music." "The Papillons," he says once more, are intended to be a musical translation of the final scene in Jean Paul's "Flegeljahre."

Believers in telepathy will be interested in the following additional instance of composing with a visual object in the mind (p. 301): "I wrote to you concerning a presentiment; it occurred to me on the days from March 24 to 27, when I was at work on my new composition. There is a place in it to which I constantly recurred; it is as if some one sighed, 'Ach, Gott!' from the bottom of his heart. While composing, I constantly saw funeral processions, coffins, unhappy people in despair; and when I had finished, and long searched for a title, the word 'corpse-fantasia' continually obtruded itself. Is not that remarkable? During the composition, moreover, I was often so deeply affected that tears came to my eyes, and yet I knew not why and had no reason—till Theresa's letter arrived, which made everything clear." His brother was on his death-bed.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

In Prof. John Chipman Gray's slender octavo, ('The Rule against Perpetuities,' Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) we have a book to be thankful for—a really masterly book, in which the author has given to his profession in a compact, simple, unpedantic form the results of thorough research. There are one or two good English treatises on this subject, especially one by Lewis; but there is nothing so good as the book now before us, which will rank, indeed, with the very best legal treatises on any subject in our language.

The topic is a narrow one, but beset with difficulty, full of ambiguity, and peculiarly embarrassed by ill-instructed opinions; it deals with the most recondite and technical parts of our law, but is yet of great and every-day importance. "There are few lawyers," says Professor Gray in his preface, in a passage that will have many an echo, "of any practice in drawing wills and settlements who have not at some time either fallen into the net which the Rule spreads for the unwary, or have not at least shuddered to think how narrowly they have escaped it." The Rule against Perpetuities is popularly known as a rule to prevent a man from tying up his property beyond a life or lives in being and twenty-one years and ten months thereafter; or for a term longer than twenty-one years, if the time be measured merely by years. This conception of the rule has led to many errors. "An interest," says our author, "is not obnoxious to the Rule against Perpetuities if it begins within lives in being and twenty-one years, although it may end beyond them." And again, he speaks of "the mistaken idea that a trust violates the Rule against Perpetuities because it is to last indefinitely." Professor Gray emphasizes the infelicity of the word "perpetuities," a word which is yoked with monopolies and thundered against in several of the State constitutions, with a certain mistaken or ambiguous uproar, thus: "Perpetuities and monopolies are contrary to the genius of a republic and shall not be allowed." The Rule is not concerned directly with preventing what appears to be here intended, the tying up of property and taking it out of commerce: that consideration does not supply the proper test; it is directed against the creation of remote future interests. In preventing this it incidentally accomplishes the first-named result, but the Rule may apply although there is no tying up of property. The author says in his preface:

"The Rule against Perpetuities should have been called the Rule against Remoteness. It is aimed at the control of future interests; it has nothing to do, save incidentally, with present interests. But its name is a constant temptation to treat it as aimed against restraints on the alienation of present interests. Hence frequent lapses into error, from which the courts have recovered themselves slowly and painfully; and hence also statutes, like those of New York, whose interpretation has cost and will cost a subsidy. If this book has any merit, it is in the more or less successful attempt to free the subject from this source of confusion and mistake."

The Rule itself is stated by Professor Gray, clearly and compactly, thus: "No interest subject to a condition precedent is good, unless the condition must be fulfilled, if at all, within twenty-one years after some life in being at the creation of the interest." Within the meaning of this Rule a life in being includes one that is begotten, and so covers the period of gestation. But is there not a defect in this statement of the Rule, from omitting to include in it, in terms, the case of a gross term of twenty-one years having no reference to any infancy? That case is fully considered by the author, and in a mathematical sense is, perhaps, covered; but ought it not to be taken up explicitly into the terms of the Rule?

Two chapters of the book, the second and fifth, will be found particularly valuable and full of interest. The second chapter shows how all restraints on the creation of future interests in property have been done away, except those arising from remoteness: "Of all that forest of learning there remains here and there only a stump over which an unlucky testator may stumble." The fifth chapter states and traces in a masterly way the origin and history of this judge-made law—a most instructive piece of reading. No one without experience in such attempts can appreciate fully the skill that Professor Gray has shown in this part of his work, and, indeed, throughout, in condensing his material. And yet he has ranged over the whole field of legal decision, in England, and in all our States; and we find him able to put his finger upon a certain case as the only one there is on either side of the water passing upon a certain point, and we come upon the statement that there are just three cases or eleven cases which hold this or the other doctrine. This absolutely thorough treatment of his subject, by one who yet remains master of all his material, and who presents his results in a shape perfectly simple, intelligible, and helpful to the profession, is wholly admirable. The book presents a model for those who would write on legal subjects: choose a narrow topic and do your work thoroughly. As fast as such books are written, we shall be ready for the question of codification; not before. If any one would see the peril, the scandal, the waste there is in hasty and ignorant legislation, and what a field there is for such books as this in preparing the way for good legislation, let him read the following passages from Professor Gray's appendix:

"Upon the consideration of the New York Statutes [the Revised Statutes of 1828] two remarks suggest themselves. *First.* Those statutes evidently start with the theory that the immediate object of the Rule against Perpetuities is to limit restraints upon alienation. This idea has been common, and decisions have been based upon it; but the difficulties and confusion arising therefrom have caused the idea to be recognized as erroneous, and the decisions to be overruled or disapproved. This erroneous theory is crystallized in the New York Statutes. *Secondly.* The common-law Rule of Perpetuities grew out of the ordinary usages of the community, and is fitted to them. A will drawn as testators generally wish their wills drawn does not violate the Rule. The limit of lives in being is a natural limit. The Rule strikes down only unusual provisions. But the limit of two lives, fixed by the New York statute, is an arbitrary limit It cuts through and defeats the most ordinary provisions. To allow future estates, and yet to confine them within bounds so purely arbitrary, would seem to be an invitation to litigation. And so the event has proved. The joint effect of these two causes is, that in no civilized country is the making of a will so delicate an operation and so likely to fail of success as in New York. Before the passage of the Revised Statutes there seems to have been but one case before the courts in that State in which the remoteness of a limitation was called in issue, and that presented only a simple question of construction. Since the passage of the Revised Statutes there have been over one hundred and seventy reported cases on questions of remoteness. They are given in a note."

Mr. Field's Codes had better wait. For the present let us be content with amendment or revision merely.

The last volume of Deering's 'Codes and Statutes of California' (San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.) contains the Penal Code and certain statutes now in force and not elsewhere printed in the Codes. A full general index to the four volumes follows. The annotations are numerous and take a wide range; but in the main the book is of merely local interest. As a code the work here edited is not remarkable.

Some use of Mr. George Merrill's 'Studies in Comparative Jurisprudence and the Conflict of

Laws' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) leads us to think it a good and accurate contribution to the subject. The author's personal experience "as an American lawyer in Paris for a period of more than fifteen years" gives a precision to his knowledge of actual questions and the way of dealing with them which shows itself throughout the book. The reader observes with dissatisfaction that the author sometimes takes his cases at second-hand, and that his examination of certain questions has not been searching enough; but criticism is disarmed by the statement in the preface that the writer "lost his sight before his work was commenced, and has since remained almost blind—wholly so, in fact, as regards the power of reading and writing." The book deals with the subjects of Nationality, Domicile, the Rights, etc., of Aliens, certain Contracts, and Bankruptcy and Insolvency.

Mr. Charles E. Grinnell's 'Law of Deceit and Incidents in its Practice, illustrated by an Analysis of Massachusetts Cases and by References to some other Authorities' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is a small book, intended, as the title indicates, for local use. The author has evidently taken much pains with it: "I have read," he says, "and analyzed every case which I have cited." How many law writers can say that? The book presents a preliminary general account of the legal nature and essentials of deceit, and then "a separate and detailed study of the Massachusetts cases as a distinct body of law and practice"—a study which the author originally made for his own use and found serviceable. The writer's aim is a definite one: to aid working lawyers, especially at the beginning, in the practice of the law in Massachusetts; and they will certainly profit by help which is so conscientiously and intelligently prepared. In another edition the author might well give his readers the benefit of a chronological arrangement of the cases, and of what occurs to him from a contemplation of them in that order; nothing is more fruitful than that.

'Military Law,' in two volumes (Washington: W. H. Morrison), by Lieut.-Col. William Winthrop, Deputy Judge-Advocate General of the United States Army, is a valuable book, but its value is impaired by omitting an index of cases. Military law, as the author remarks, suffers from the all but invincible unwillingness of mankind to discriminate it from martial law; this, as he says, is partly accounted for by the unfortunate name that is fastened upon the courts of the military community—"courts-*martial*." Specifically, it is the "law governing the army as a separate community," both in peace and war; a law which is older than our constitutions, and is recognized by them. It has its written, and to a small extent its unwritten, law, and is enforced by its "courts," but these courts are no part of the judiciary: "they are, in fact, simply instrumentalities of the executive power" for governing, disciplining, and punishing the army. There is also what the author calls "the law of war," covering both the military government of conquered regions and "martial law" proper. The author uses martial law in the specific meaning of military rule, exercised by the State and nation over its own citizens in an emergency justifying it. In the third part of Colonel Winthrop's treatise he deals with the functions and relations of the military as assistants to the civil power. A careful examination of this book leads us to form a high opinion of its merits. It deals not alone with the technical matters of military-legal practice, but also with the historical development of military law, illustrated, in the appendix, by valuable documents; with our problems of the reconstruction period; and with the grave questions of constitutional law which the war of secession engendered. The author writes as one not only learned but accomplished in his subject.

Among certain curious as well as valuable documents in the appendix, there is an ordinance of the English King Richard I. for keeping the peace aboard his ships on the voyage of his soldiers to the Holy Land. As Americans, we are interested in noticing that the art of tarring and feathering was known to this energetic prince in the year of grace 1190; this also we have inherited from England. A robber, says Richard, "shall have his head cropped after the manner of a champion, and boiling pitch shall be poured thereon, and then the feathers of a cushion shall be shaken out upon him, so that he may be known, and at the first land at which the ships shall touch he shall be set on shore."

The thirteenth edition of Story's 'Equity Jurisprudence' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is edited by Dr. Melville M. Bigelow. The wide scope of this great magazine of learning and its body of notes, is seen by observing that the table of cases alone fills ninety-two pages of double columns. This edition proceeds upon the excellent plan of restoring the text to the precise shape in which the author left it in his last edition, the fourth, published after his death, and of rewriting the entire body of editor's notes; three chapters, however, written by Judge Redfield, a former editor, are retained at the end of the work. "For better or worse," says Dr. Bigelow, "each note of the present edition is a unit. Many of the annotations, too, on the more important subjects have taken the form, and the editor hopes may prove to have some of the merits, of monographs. These . . . should be read through to be fully understood, at least by the student." These changes will add much to the convenience of the reader. The notes on mistake of law and of fact, misrepresentation, equitable estoppel, clouds on title, specific performance and injunctions, are full and valuable.

Mr. James L. High, after an interval of ten years, publishes now the second edition of his useful work on 'The Law of Receivers' (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.). This is a branch of procedure in equity which has received a great development in our time. The terrible collapse in our Western railroads raised many grave questions under this title, and the author tells us that the law relating to receivers over railways has been largely the growth of the period since his first edition. To this branch of his subject he gives careful attention. Upon this, as well as upon the topics of more general professional interest, such as receivers in cases of partnership and the claims of judgment creditors, the work is a valuable manual of practice. The chief desideratum that we remark is some tracing of the historical development of the subject.

The first volume has been published (Berlin: Carl Habel) of a 'Handbuch des Völkerrechts,' by Prof. von Holtzendorff, acting in coöperation with other eminent German authorities. There are to be four volumes. The one now issued is introductory, and comprises a learned consideration of certain fundamental conceptions in international law and of the history and literature of the subject.

RECENT FRENCH BOOKS.

M. Ernest Renan has given to the world another *drame philosophique* in his new work, "Le Prêtre de Nemi" (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof). As in "Caliban" and "L'Eau de Jouvence," the dramatic element is subordinated to the philosophical, without being totally sacrificed to it; which is perhaps only saying that M. Renan is a writer of genius, who can give life to any form into which he chooses to throw his thought. The form he has chosen is the only one, he says in his preface, which seems suitable to him for the exposition of certain philosophical ideas concerning the highest problems of humanity—those which, from their nature, ought neither to be directly affirmed nor directly denied, but rather presented in all their varying aspects. "L'envers de chaque pensée doit être indiqué, de manière que le lecteur saisisse d'un seul coup d'œil les deux faces opposées dont se compose toute vérité." It is to express more vividly the many-sidedness of his ideas that M. Renan has chosen to incarnate them in the personages of his drama, which is at the same time political and religious, antique and modern, but always abstract and universal. The action takes place, indeed, at Alba Longa and at Nemi near by, and in the distance the little hill crowned with walls is the Palatine with the newly founded Roma Quadrata; but, in a certain sense, the narrow stage holds within its limits all time and space and all humanity. "By the side of the actual history which has happened," says M. Renan, "is the ideal history which materially has never taken place, but which, in an ideal sense, has happened a thousand times." It is thus that the French Republic, the Commune and the German invasion, the Comte de Chambord and the Pope, the conservatives, the opportunists, and the anarchists of recent political history, are divined through the Alban state and people of the drama; that the moral and religious questions of to-day are indicated in the intrigues and contentions, the struggles and defeats of Antistius and his supporters and opponents. Nowhere has M. Renan shown his wonderful power of expression in a greater degree than in "Le Prêtre de Nemi." All the precision and clearness of which French prose is capable is woven by this great enchanter into a magical veil, through which he reveals to his readers and conceals from them by turns the ideal which never descends from the remoteness of his own conception into the glare of positive assertion. It is the most subtle essence of his thought which he gives, not the thought itself. M. Renan is too much of a poet not to feel how much he would sacrifice by any other method; and if his readers do not seize all the illusive and changing shades of his ideas, they at least have the great and rare enjoyment of accompanying in thought one of the most suggestive and inspiring of writers.

The philosophical dramas of M. Renan were never intended for the stage, and have only enough of the dramatic quality in them to carry the sympathetic reader through the mental and moral changes of the characters. But at the celebration of the anniversary of Victor Hugo a few weeks ago a little "Dialogue des Morts," which he had consented to write for the occasion, was produced upon the stage of the Théâtre-Français. It is entitled "1802," and is very short, only a few pages in length. The immortal shades of Corneille, Racine, Boileau, Voltaire, Diderot express their hopes and desires concerning the poets who are to continue their work in the new century just begun. At the close a little winged genius, who passes continually between the Elysian Fields and the world of mortals, brings them information of the birth of Victor Hugo, in whom will be united "le poète sublime que veut Corneille, le poète de la pitié que veut Racine, le génie large et profond que rêve Despréaux, le patriarche ami des hommes qu'imagine Voltaire." Not very much should have been expected from this slight sketch, and M. Renan has shown once more that to write an effective dramatic scene requires something more than even great poetic genius.

M. Paul Bourget has published the second and, as he informs us, the last volume of his 'Essais de Psychologie contemporaine' (Paris: Lemerre; Boston: Schoenhof). These had all appeared previously in the *Nouvelle Revue*, and the pre-

face is therefore very appropriately addressed to the editor of that periodical, Mme. Edmond Adam. The main idea that runs through the two volumes is that the *états de l'âme* peculiar to a generation are contained in germ in the theories and dreams of the preceding generation. This idea M. Bourget has continued to develop in the present volume, in which he studies the state of souls under the Second Empire, as manifested in the writings of Dumas the younger, Leconte de Lisle, the Goncourt brothers, Turgeneff, and Amiel. The result is not cheerful. The world has become sadly pessimistic. The *mal du siècle* of René has had for its successor the moral nihilism of later writers, *la fatigue de vivre*, a gloomy perception of the vanity of every effort. M. Bourget seeks the cause for this. What he finds seems to apply especially to France, and yet it would be possible to discover like symptoms elsewhere, from different causes, assuredly. A distantly analogous state of mind in Russia has received the name of *oblomovism*, from the novel of 'Oblomoff,' by Gontcharoff, of which a part was translated and published in French two years ago. But it must be confessed the expression of this negation in France, whether in 'Bel-Ami' of M. de Maupassant or in 'À Rebours' of M. Huysmans, has not been savory or calculated to raise the spirits of the reader. It would seem to justify the recent remarks of M. Pailleron in the Academy to the effect that French gayety was dying out. Nor does the author propose a remedy. He studies the present state of things, describes it, not complacently, as some of his critics have accused him of doing, but seriously, sincerely, and minutely. To look upon M. Bourget's work merely as a piece of literary criticism would be to do it injustice, yet it is one of the most important contributions to this branch of literature since Sainte Beuve's day. For him, no less than for that eminent critic, the form is of the highest importance, and, although he claims that in his analysis he leaves aside æsthetic theories, he says what scarcely any one but a French critic could say and fully feel and mean, "mal écrire, c'est toujours et partout mal penser." If the converse of this be in any sense true, M. Bourget must have learned to think much since his first volume of essays was published. His style has gained in amplitude as well as in vigor. There is no more promising writer in France.

M. Ferdinand Brunetière has collected some of his latest contributions to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and made of them the second volume of a series which he may extend indefinitely, under the title 'Histoire et Littérature' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof). Literature occupies by far the greater part of the volume, which contains reviews of some of the most important works lately published in France. As in his previous writings, M. Brunetière speaks with the authority of a man fully impressed with the value of his opinion, and he has a decided opinion upon many things, an opinion often at variance with generally received views. He is fond of emitting ideas which at first seem somewhat paradoxical, but which are rather the rehabilitating of old forgotten truths, as when he clears away some of the popular misconceptions about casuistry in 'Une apologie de la Casuistique.' He is also fond of showing his learning, and he has learning to show, and can meet specialists on their own ground, as he proves in his article headed "Trois Moliéristes," in which he handles rather severely Paul Lacroix, Édouard Fournier, and Auguste Vitu. The predominant trait in his criticism is its severity against those whom he dislikes, and he is not in sympathy with many tendencies of the new schools of prose and poetry in France, as is very apparent in all he says of Flaubert, of the Parnassians, and of the Naturalists.

The first serious, discriminating appreciation of M. Brunetière's work as a critic is to be found in M. Jules Lemaitre's 'Les Contemporains' (Paris: Lecène & Oudin; Boston: Schoenhof). These "Études et Portraits" were first published in the *Revue Bleue*, where they attracted much attention. The author was comparatively unknown, and in less than three years he has won for himself a high place among the most promising of the younger generation of French men of letters. Like Sarcey and many others, he gave up his position of *professeur* to devote himself exclusively to writing, and in this, his first important publication, we feel, perhaps too much, that the young writer has just thrown off certain uncomfortable shackles of his previous career. He cannot let an occasion slip by to talk of Corneille, Racine, Bossuet, especially of Bossuet, in a manner diametrically opposed to that which it is the proper thing to assume when treating these *classiques* in the official professorial tone. What he loves above all, what "thrills him with pleasure to the very marrow," is the literature of the second half of the nineteenth century, "si inquiète, si folle, si morose, si détraquée, si subtile." In this he is the very reverse of M. Brunetière, whose admirations are mostly lavished upon the seventeenth century, and especially upon Bossuet. But M. Lemaitre does not extend his benevolent admiration to all his contemporaries. To several he is not sparing of his disapproval, notably to M. Huysmans and to M. Ohnet. He begins by excusing himself to his readers for speaking to them at all of the latter, as he usually treats only of literary matters, whereas the novels of M. Georges Ohnet are only merchandise that sells well. He has charming chapters on Théodore de Banville, Sully-Prudhomme, Coppée, and Renan.

There exists no good general history of modern literature in French. The ambition of the very clever critic and novelist, Marc-Monnier, in the latter years of his life, was directed toward supplying this want. His first volume, 'La Renaissance, de Dante à Luther' (1884) was followed by a second, of which the last sheets were in the press when the author died, in April, 1885. This second volume bears the title, 'La Réforme, de Luther à Shakespeare' (Paris: Firmin-Didot; New York: Christern). It was to have been followed by a third, 'La Révolution.' In 'La Réforme' there is a good study of Calvin and the French and Swiss reformers. The author's treatment is broad, but not very deep. He has nothing new to say of Rabelais, the Pléïade, Montaigne. His chapters on Tasso, Giordano Bruno, Camoens, Cervantes, seem to be merely the lectures which he delivered in Geneva. His too rapid sketch of the Elizabethan age would be found very unsatisfactory by a student of English literature. Yet the two volumes are pleasant reading throughout, full of information, somewhat elementary, usually reliable, and rather abounding in quotations from the authors under consideration. In this respect the didactic character of the work is apparent, as it also is in the writer's great care to explain every statement, and not to write vaguely about the great authors as if he addressed readers who knew all about them. Marc-Monnier leans wherever he can on Vinet; hence we notice in him an aim more expressedly moral than is to be found in French critics generally. This, together with a certain rigidity of manner, is what characterizes the Swiss school of criticism to which Vinet gave the highest expression. Marc-Monnier, far more versatile than his master, though less earnest and deep, is in his manner true to the country of his adoption. The book is not properly a literary history, much less a critical essay upon the literary history of the sixteenth century. It is an easy running comment upon the lives and works of the principal writers and thinkers of the period.

'Crime d'Amour' (Paris: Lemerre) is the embodiment by M. Paul Bourget of his essay on Alexandre Dumas, in his new volume of 'Psychologie contemporaine,' but it is much more than that. The essay, written some time ago, leads only to conclusions of the most hopeless and faithless despair in humanity; the novel, completed in the *Nouvelle Revue* only last month, is filled with a passionate sadness and pity for a humanity which has in it capabilities of regeneration the existence of which the school of pessimistic writers, and M. Bourget as long as he remained among them, seems never to have suspected. Throughout the book, but especially in the fourth and concluding part, the most original and powerful portion of the story, the influence of Tolstoi upon the author is evident. M. Bourget has not risen to the grandeur and purity of the great Russian, but he has felt his revivifying influence. If this tendency towards purer and loftier ideals should continue and develop in the work of M. Bourget, it may possibly overcome the great and serious sins against propriety and good taste which now make him, in spite of his great ability and power, a writer to whom unconditional praise cannot be given.

The new novel by M. Octave Feuillet, 'La Morte' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Christern), has met with a success rivalling that which the productions of M. Georges Ohnet are accustomed to provoke. Before it had been published a week thirty-five editions had been sold, and this was after all Paris had read it as it appeared in numbers in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. M. Octave Feuillet is a writer who respects himself and his readers, which probably contributes as much to his great popularity as his unquestionable literary excellences, or even his tendencies in the direction of conventional political and religious opinions. Beside the young writers of the present day he seems to belong to another age rather than merely to another generation, and he pleases by his unlikeness to their pessimism and ultra-realism, as he does by his simplicity and repose of style in contrast to the elaboration and violence of manner prevailing among so many of them. In his latest work M. Octave Feuillet retains all the qualities of the author who wrote so many years ago the 'Roman d'un jeune homme pauvre' and the 'Histoire de Sibylle.'

'Wassili Samarin,' by M. Philippe Daryl (Paris: Hetzel; New York: Christern), is another novel which certainly is not realistic. Like M. Alphonse Daudet in 'Tartarin sur les Alpes,' the writer has taken the now conventional young Russian woman absorbed in revolutionary plots, and placed her in Switzerland; but M. Daryl has not the great talent of Daudet, and he has written only a moderately interesting and inoffensive story.

The Fight for Missouri from the election of Lincoln to the death of Lyon. By Thomas L. Snead, A. D. C. of the Governor, etc. Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. viii, 322, 12mo.

THIS is a lively narrative of the efforts made by the Secessionists of Missouri to carry that State into the Southern Confederacy, and of the bold and successful efforts made to resist it by the Union men under the leadership of Frank P. Blair and General Lyon. It bears evidence of the sincerity with which it is written on every page. The writer, who both saw and took an active part in all that he relates, has tried to tell the story with as complete impartiality as is possible to one whose feelings and interests were deeply involved in the struggle. He says he has written the book because it was his duty to do so,

and we assent to his judgment as to his duty and thank him for its performance.

Everything that throws light upon the action of the border States in the spring and summer of 1861 is valuable, and we feel that history has acquired new capital when honest participants and eye-witnesses tell us what occurred in any of those States at the outbreak of the war. The position of Missouri was peculiarly critical. Herself in the Union by the celebrated compromise of 1820, the repudiation of which was perhaps the most powerful of the incidents that led directly to the appeal to arms, surrounded on three sides by free States, conscious of the impossibility of being part of a Southern slave-Confederation which would thus thrust a wedge among what would be foreign free States, every interest and every argument urged Missouri to remain loyal. By a majority of eighty thousand her people determined to do so. Yet Governor Claiborne Jackson determined to carry her out of the Union. He organized the militia with the intent to use them for this purpose. He sought to prevent the organization of Union men or the enlisting of volunteers for the service of the United States. He called his militia into camp with a purpose of capturing the United States Arsenal. He entered into a treasonable correspondence with Jefferson Davis, and procured from the Southern Confederacy cannon to be used against the Federal garrison.

Blair and Lyon were far too acute to be deceived as to the purpose, and too bold to hesitate in doing what the hour demanded. The one as the political head of the loyal citizens, the other as the military commandant of the department, was equal to the occasion. Regiments were organized and mustered into the service of the United States. Lyon marched them against the Secessionist camp of "home-guards," and captured these and the cannon which had been seized by the Confederacy at Baton Rouge and smuggled into St. Louis to be used against the Government that owned them. The author frankly admits all these facts, and that Blair and Lyon properly interpreted them and wisely acted upon them. He speaks of the military movement as "Blair's rebellion against the State," but he narrates the facts so frankly that we may treat this as "a sop to Cerberus," since he shows that it must have been Governor Jackson who was plotting the insurrection against Missouri, after her 80,000 majority had determined to remain in the Union, and the Convention called by the Legislature had acted in that sense.

The leading characters of the book are Lyon, Blair, and Sterling Price. Despite some natural prejudice of the author, he has done much to give Lyon his proper place in history as a clear-headed, determined soldier, with a good deal of Chinese Gordon's energy of will and hot impatience of being crossed in what he thinks is right. In the light of this information from behind the scenes we can see that every step Lyon took was exactly what was needed. His fortification of the arsenal was necessary to prevent its being carried by a *coup de main*. His organization and drill of the St. Louis regiments was not a moment too soon. His march upon Camp Jackson proved at once his sagacity and his fitness for command. His march upon the State capital was necessary to make the Secessionist Governor show his true colors, and to prove that it was Davis and the Confederacy and not Missouri that Claiborne Jackson represented. His campaign of Springfield and Wilson's Creek was a success up to the moment of his death upon the battle-field, and, but for his death, the author admits that it would have ended in victory, and annihilated every vestige of secession power in Missouri. It is safe to say that no other officer in the service had then shown anything approaching his capacity or his prompt energy, and we cannot doubt that a great career would have been open to him had he lived.

Blair's energy was, in its sphere, equal to Lyon's. He was a public man with a much broader grasp than has commonly been believed, and this history of his activity and of his audacity shows that it was a rare combination of civil and military capacity when he and Lyon joined hands to save Missouri to the Union. The things his enemies then denounced as rash mischief-making, are now admitted to have been the proper and the successful counter-stroke to Secessionist plottings. Yet the outcry of the disunionists was not without its effect, and it would seem that Blair suffered in public estimation from the very things that should be his glory. He pierced the secrets of his opponents, and had the courage to strike without reference to their protestation (which is part of the regular programme of all insurrectionists) that they had as yet done nothing hostile to the Government. He was content to be judged by the event whether he was not right; and, by the honest statement of one who was in the inner counsels of the Secessionists, it is plain that he made no mistake. They lament, or did lament, the defeat of their purposes, but they give us the evidence that this man understood them, and won the results he was striving for.

Sterling Price is evidently the author's hero, and the picture presents him as an estimable and able man. A Union man by conviction, a member of the Convention and of the majority which refused to go out of the Union, his Southern prejudices and sympathies were such that, when war became inevitable, he went with the friends of his heart and the people of his class, against the Government to which he acknowledged his duty, and against the cause which he recognized as that of the interest of his State. This narrative stops with the battle of Wilson's Creek, but enough is told to make it easy to understand why General Price had the confidence of his neighbors and the devotion of his soldiers. A curious part of the history is the story of Gen. Ben McCullough's hesitation and delay in marching against Lyon, of Price's clear perception of the military policy, and of the self-abnegation with which he consented to serve under his junior if that junior would pursue the vigorous strategy which the occasion demanded. No so vivid an account of that important battle has been written. Certainly none has come from a more competent writer, and, like the rest of the book, it bears every mark of sincere truthfulness. Its statements may be corrected, but its spirit could hardly be improved. As a whole, the volume is among the most interesting of the minor contributions to the great war history, and is equally valuable whether we view it from the political or the military side.

Sylvan Winter. By Francis George Heath. With seventy illustrations by Frederick Golden Short, engraved by James D. Cooper. London: Kegan Paul & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford.

THIS work comes to us just as the winter is over, to make us feel how much we might have enjoyed the season under right instruction, though, indeed, the book is English, and its "wintry outlooks" and "wintry wood-lore" apply to this country only with a difference. The author takes leave to praise the illustrations, and well he may, for they are genuine woodcuts from sketches "instinct with a true feeling for Nature and full of delicate appreciativeness for quiet English country life"; indeed, are uncommonly good. One may suspect that the best part of the 350 pages of letterpress—namely, the chapters on Leafless Woods, Tree-ferns, and Spray-characteristics—were written for bringing out the illustrations. Throughout, the author has drawn freely upon Gilpin's 'Forest Scenery,' which he has recently edited; and so has made an attractive book, if not always critically accurate, yet mostly reliable, until, when treating of sylvan giants and the like, he takes up with English travellers' stories, and even personally endorses a very loose one. That is, he quotes from Mr. Marshall's "interesting book, 'Through America,'" the statement that in the Calaveras grove of big trees, "my friend [a travelling companion] counted in one tree as many as 2,000 rings," and Mr. Heath adds, "We can personally vouch for the accuracy of Mr. Marshall's statement as to the tree he and his friend examined, for he is a note-taker of unusual excellence." He might as well vouch "that a tree has been found in the Mariposa grove with 6,000 rings in it," which Mr. Marshall appends as a report. Now it is quite probable that some of the California big trees are 2,000 years old; but the felled one in the Calaveras grove—the only one of which the rings on the stump can be counted throughout—was less than 1,300 years old, as Mr. Heath records; and the only other available trunk of that grove is of no greater size, is too much damaged for the rings to be counted throughout, and, as well as can be ascertained, does not justify Mr. Marshall's friend's statement.

There is similar uncritical matter in the chapter on the uses of wood. For instance, the common application of the name sycamore to the great maple of Europe misleads the author into the statement that this tree furnished the sycamore wood of Egyptian mummy cases. We wonder if Mr. Heath originated or only adopted the notion that the horse-chestnut tree got its English name from the fanciful resemblance of its leaf-scars on the twigs to a horseshoe with its row of nails or nail holes. He might know that this qualifying prefix is a common one to denote coarseness—*e. g.*, horseradish, horsemint, horse-parsley, and even horse-sense. Let us not fail to mention the concluding chapter, in which the author is more at home than with plant lore, that on sylvan nomenclature. Here is a list of over 600 English towns, villages, or other places, which derive their names from the names of trees, forests, or other sylvan sources. Alas, that he should have included in the list, as one of the derivatives of *bois*, the name of *Boston!*

Discussions on Climate and Cosmology. By James Croll, LL.D. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black. 1885. 8vo, pp. 327.

THE body of facts with which physical science has to deal has become so great that it cannot be compassed by any one man. Alexander von Humboldt was the last of the learned who effectively essayed the task of grasping knowledge in a large way, and even he achieved it imperfectly. Hereafter we can hardly hope to have naturalists in the wider sense of the word, at least until a new intellectual variety of man is formed for the work. Even German diligence can in a very long life win no more than two hundred thousand hours for study, and such a term would probably not more than suffice for a mere review of the noteworthy labors of other men. Students who would advance learning feel that they must limit themselves to some narrow field, consoled by the sense that nature is a unit, and that they may find the spirit of the whole in their own small part of the universe.

The most unfortunate result of this partition of scientific labor arises from the fact that explorers cannot avail themselves of the methods and results of those who are employed in adjacent fields. It thus comes about that between

many of our sciences there are areas which remain unexplored, for the reason that to prosecute research in them requires a good working knowledge of at least two sciences. In this way we are in danger of losing that unity of knowledge which is its highest good. The only way in which this evil can be met is through the labors of men who are broad-minded enough fairly to overcome the difficulties of adjacent sciences, at least as far as they pertain to their neutral or border grounds. Such men are now extremely necessary, but unfortunately their task demands a peculiar genius.

It has been the good fortune of geological science, which more than any other needs union with the other physical sciences, to secure in Dr. James Croll a man able to clear away some of the most formidable difficulties which beset it. A score of years ago, when Dr. Croll began his admirable work, the whole matter concerning the history of climatal changes, the very key to our understanding of the earth's history, was in darkness. Geologists saw the evidence of great changes in the records of several glacial periods at different stages of the past, but the efforts to explain the facts were futile. This question of climate could only be dealt with by one who could command a knowledge of the laws of the atmosphere as well as of astronomical conditions, and who at the same time could master the facts which geologists had gathered. Dr. Croll, in a succession of luminous memoirs which afterwards were assembled in his 'Climate and Time in Their Geological Relations,' has given us a clear and well-defined hypothesis going far to explain the changes of climate which, in swift succession, at one time brought a semi-tropical vegetation to within twelve degrees of the North Pole, and at another sent the glacial sheet to the shore at the mouth of the Hudson River. Dr. Croll's theory attributes these changes of climate to the varying excentricity of the earth's orbit, combined with the precession of the equinoxes and the rotation of the apsides, together with certain influences arising from the shape of the Atlantic coast line. These problems are too complicated for brief presentation, but in the masterly elucidations of the author they are made plain to the least informed reader. While the present writer, in common with many of his brother geologists, cannot yet accept Dr. Croll's theory as finally and without qualification demonstrated, or as sufficient to account for all great changes of climate of which we have evidence from the geological records, he has been driven to acknowledge that it is perhaps the most helpful aid which geologists have ever received from another department of science.

In his last volume on 'Climate and Cosmology' Dr. Croll is in the main engaged in disposing of the objections to his theory of climate which have been suggested by many critics, and in adding various minor considerations developed by the recent advances of science. His review of his reviewers is an admirable piece of literary work, gentle and gracious in its tone, and at the same time extremely effective as controversy. In the thirteenth chapter the author passes to new grounds. His consideration of the conditions of continental ice, in this and the following chapters, is the most extended and philosophical study which has ever been given to these difficult questions.

The last fifty pages of the book are devoted to the problems connected with the temperature of space, the origin and age of the sun's heat, and the origin of nebulæ. Astronomers and physicists, considering the sun's heat to be due to the action of gravity alone, have computed that not much more than 20,000,000 years could have elapsed since the solar mass was expanded to the limits of the earth's orbit. Dr. Croll's admirable researches into the duration of geologic time have shown that this term of years is entirely insufficient to account for known changes in the earth's crust. He has, therefore, been compelled to suggest a modification of the nebular theory, which in its way is as daring as the original hypothesis. His suggestion is, that the nebulæ, including that whence our solar system arose, have originated by the collision of dark masses moving with high velocities through space. When they come together these masses would convert the whole or a large part of their momentum into heat: their masses would fly into nebulous matter, which would begin its condensation into a solar system with a high temperature, and not, as the aforementioned computers have reckoned, with no temperature at all. We cannot undertake to set forth the details of this brilliant hypothesis, which the reader should follow in the text. In this essay, as in all his other work, the author seems, like the soul described by Virgil, able—

". . . ire per omnes
Terrasque tractusque maris cœlumque profundum."

The general reader, as well as the geologist, will find nothing more fascinating in the literature of physical science than is afforded him in Dr. Croll's works.

Poetry as a Representative Art. By George Lansing Raymond, L. H. D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1886.

THIS volume is pretentious, and yet one hesitates to call it so, because it embodies a large amount of faithful and painstaking thought and of close analysis in obscure subjects, and is animated by the purely intellectual spirit. The author, however, is the possessor of a "system," evidently of huge dimensions, for this large book is only one chapter of "the work" which he outlines in his preface, and which will need as many volumes, one thinks, as Spencer's Philosophy. One of the great ideas of science has been seized by his mind—the conception, namely, that mental life is predominantly a rearrangement of the elements of nature, which, being interpreted in the province of æsthetics, means that art is a representation of nature; and this comprehensive generalization he proposes to reduce to its minute particulars. The end of such a task is determined only by a man's capacity for work; and if the volume on poetry is a sign, Professor Raymond has enough of that to make him brave the task of an æsthetic cyclopædist. He begins, having a special interest in elocution, with a long examination of the problems involved in the origin of language and those obscure associations of emotion with vowel and consonant sounds, iambic or trochaic stress, rhythmical intervals, etc., or, in general, of how language, considered merely as sound, is expressive; and, secondly, he investigates the same quality of words in their function as idea-equivalents. Both sound and idea are involved in the poetic work of which language is the instrument, and therefore these analyses are necessary parts of a complete account of poetry.

They are, however, preliminary. The substance of his book is that poetry represents nature always by images, either primarily by the object itself, or secondarily by an illustrative object; all other elements in poetry, *i. e.*, all in which there is no appeal to the faculty of immediate perception, he regards as "alloy." Thus when Homer's warrior withdraws behind the ranks, there is a visible image; but when it is added that his retirement was due to shame, that motive, not being perceptible to the sense, is not re-presentable, and, as a mere inference of the reason, is an "alloy." We are *told* he was ashamed instead of being made to *see* it. This is the argument of Professor Raymond. It is neither complex, subtle, nor novel; but by subdivision and amplification of details, and especially by an excessive amount of quotation of examples, the book itself is swelled out until it imposes on the reader by its mere bulk. The careful schematization, too, aids the impression that this is a scientific work of real originality and consequence; in fact, it is nothing of the kind, but only a tedious elaboration of simple principles. It sometimes happens that an investigator mistakes the classification of a subject in his own mind, originally wrought out, as a discovery of great consequence, when after all it is old truth. This seems to have occurred in this case; for, though Professor Raymond's labor and spirit make us desire to show him respect for the personal element in his book, its scientific and critical element has been anticipated. If he had compressed his words into fifty pages, he would have written a useful essay, but in over three hundred it is quite another matter.

The Life and Speeches of Joseph Cowen, M.P. London: Sampson Low & Co.

THERE is a certain posthumous sound about such a title as this which at first caused us to fear that the eminent member for Newcastle might have been taken from this world without our knowledge; but we hasten to assure our readers that Mr. Cowen yet lives and yet speaketh. For all that we can see, it will be necessary to publish his life and speeches from time to time for some years to come, for we discover no evidence of decrease of vitality in him, and the power of speech-making once acquired is not likely to fall into disuse. The enthusiastic compiler of this volume says that he found some difficulty in persuading Mr. Cowen to accede to his wishes, on the ground that the few friends who thought his harangues tolerable at the time of their delivery would never be at the trouble of reading them when the occasion that lent them a temporary interest had passed. This is a properly modest understatement; it is not true, we venture to say, of Mr. Cowen's personal friends, but it is quite true of the general public. Old speeches are like old newspapers: there must be something extraordinary about them to make people read them out of date. These are very good speeches of Mr. Cowen's; they are very well expressed, and we are informed that they were very well delivered; they show a vast amount of common sense, a most commendable independence of judgment, and, to our mind, a very respectable order of statesmanship. But they are not in themselves of such distinguished literary excellence, nor are they connected with such momentous occasions, as to be of permanent value to any one but the historical student. Nevertheless, since Mr. Cowen (who is both an M.P. and proprietor of a great newspaper, the Newcastle *Chronicle*) was a hearty friend of the North during the civil war, and manfully lifted up his voice in protest against English sympathy with a slaveholding power, his biography is entitled to respectful consideration at our hands. His life has been in many respects a typical one. Born to a great and honorably distinguished manufacturing business, he has generously advocated education, coöperation, and all reforms by which the condition of working people might be improved. His ruling passion has evidently been that of love for liberty, and it has been steadily manifested in favor of every people that has struggled for self-government. He was intimate with Kossuth and the other Hungarian leaders, with the Polish revolutionists, with Herzen and Bakunin, with Ledru Rollin and Louis Blanc, with Mazzini, Garibaldi, and the rest of the Italian patriots. So active was he in support of the plans of these agitators that at one time nearly the whole continent of Europe was closed to him by the despotic govern-

ments then prevailing, which maintained spies at Newcastle to watch his movements, while he exposed himself to persecution at home by enlisting volunteers to serve under Garibaldi.

That Mr. Cowen's devotion to liberty is genuine is proved by his own course in Parliament. Upon a number of occasions he has opposed the Liberal party because he believed that their policy was not in harmony with Liberal principles. He condemned the interference in Egypt and has consistently opposed the coercion of Ireland. He has long called for home rule for that country, and we judge from his speeches that he foresaw the events which are now taking place, and declared that they were inevitable. In this respect at least he may probably claim to have been in advance of his country and of his party. This may yet prove true of his advocacy of female suffrage. The enlightened character of his Liberalism appears clearly, again, in his protests against the centralization of government, against the *clôture* in Parliament, against the dictation of party, and especially against the introduction of the "caucus system" into English politics. Mr. Cowen is a representative Englishman, and especially a representative of that fine type of English Liberalism that is now unfortunately a little old-fashioned. The present Life is a mere sketch; we could spare some of the speeches if we could be told more of the details of Mr. Cowen's relations with the agitators of Europe. When the time comes we judge that a biography of genuine historical value might be written; but we trust that that time may be long postponed, and so, we doubt not, do the citizens of Newcastle.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Sedgwick-Walt. Treatise on Trial of Title to Land. 2d ed. Baker, Voorhis & Co.
Seely, H. A Ranchman's Stories. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Shaw, Flora L. Colonel Cheswick's Campaign. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
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It is there, for instance, that we find the "Study" of Roll, the nude sunshiny girl leading a young black bull down toward her bathing-place. This painting was certainly recognized by artists as the most marvellous piece of technic in the last Salon; the flash and glare of noon-light on naked flesh, relieved with flushed shadows scarcely less luminous, was acknowledged to be masterly. The want of sympathy, though, with flesh as flesh, as a live tissue fed by circulation, was at the same time pointed out. "It is a glorious trick," said a competent artist, "but I feel as if the painter believed he was painting something dead—like sunshine on a patch of dried grass." In this room, too, is the "Marceau" of Laurens, a picture not at all in harmony with the school, a grand piece of sculptural repose in the midst of things whose business it is to flicker and flutter. Near it is the impressive Manet, "Faure as *Hamlet*," where the actor's neck, illumined by the footlights, is frankly made the high-light of the picture, rather than the face. Manet's "Still Life" (23), again, is one of the *natures-mortes* in which he was confessedly incomparable, and is one of his best and most easily understood; it contains a specimen of his capitally scaly fish, and a cut lemon, surely the most cruelly sour lemon ever painted. The same artist's "Rochefort" shows mysteriously, as did the "Zola," how a likeness can be hit without the possession of a single vestige of drawing. The individual is there, yet not one of the forms is right. The young "Fifer of the Guard," another Manet, though more unconventional in treatment, a mere flash of red breeches in the air, awakens interest in the Philistine because it is gallant and youthful. In this room, too, is the most reasonable of the studies of Degas, the artist who wholly forsakes civilization to live in the other-worldliness of the theatre; it is the ballet in "Robert," with a foreground of correct spectators relieved against the white orgy of the wicked nuns. Again, in this saloon we perceive the Dumaresqs and John Lewis Browns which are the commonplaces of the picture market; and here is the large Lerolle, "The Organ"—a fair singer alone in the giddy space of the upper gallery, which somehow hangs visibly in the air in the emptiness and starkness of its proper elevation above a (supposed) crowded floor; and which is a canvas sufficiently evident and explicable to the world of plain folk; and alongside is the "Grand Toulon Road" of Montenard, whose white expanse, done in palette-knife work, successfully blinds the mere gallery-haunter's eye, and whose admirable painting may recall to American spectators the sunny beauty of Mr. Picknell's "Route de Concarneau."

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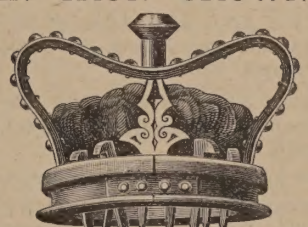

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 22, 1886.

The Week.

THE Missouri-Pacific boycott is now at an end. There may be a short season of brigandage, but that too will come to an end. The boycotters adhere to the opinion that trains cannot run on the Missouri Pacific Railroad without their services, and when they see them running they think that there is something wrong in the moral constitution of the universe. They say that they will "hold out" all summer and all winter if necessary Holding out means that they will subsist firmly on contributions collected in all parts of the country from people as poor as themselves. There is no objection to this, but it is an arrangement which obviously cannot last long. As Mr. Arthur, the chief of the Locomotive Brotherhood, said in the beginning, "Strike means assessment, and assessment means death." The longer the taxes are levied to support the Martin Irons boycotters, the more dissatisfied will taxpayers become. Disintegration will set in at both ends of the line as soon as the burden becomes onerous. The assessments are not equal to full wages, and therefore the men who have families and responsibilities on their hands will hunger for steady employment, and will apply to Mr. Hoxie for it. Some of the Knights have already done so. The residuum will either drift away, or "take to the road," or become a burden on public charity. The man who is entitled to the credit of bringing this great conspiracy to confusion is H. M. Hoxie. What Mrs. Gray has done on a small scale he has done on a large one, in the midst of infinite difficulties and in the presence of personal danger Although not an officer of the law, he has vindicated its majesty to better purpose than any Governor on his line. He has set a notable example to all railroad managers and to his countrymen generally, the moral significance of which is that the way to deal with a boycott is not to yield to it an inch, and not to appear to yield.

The most wholesome and reassuring sign of the times is the formation of Law and Order Leagues in the Southwest to try conclusions with the Knights of Labor. Such a league has been formed at Sedalia, Mo., a perfect hot-bed of the Martin Irons type of knight-errantry. The Sedalia League has sent word to Mr. Hoxie that he need give himself no further pains to insure the protection of life and property there—that they will be responsible for such protection hereafter. Similar leagues are forming in Texas, where they are very much needed. There is room for one at East St. Louis and for another at Kansas City. In short, there are very few places not strictly agricultural where they will not be wanted sooner or later. New York ought to have the largest one in the country, and steps should be taken to form a nucleus now. The time is approaching when civilization must fight for existence. The right of every man to do the best he can for himself and for those dependent on him, subject to laws which all have an equal voice in making, must be defended in this country, and will be. It must be defended, too, by those who believe in it and not by hirelings. It must be defended on the plan adopted at Portland, Oregon, when that city was threatened recently by an anti-Chinese mob, and by the plan which was put in execution a few days earlier at Seattle, Washington Territory. When the lawless elements found themselves face to face with an organization pledged to lay down the lives of its members in defence of the law, they vanished like witches before holy water. The Portland example was the most patriotic uprising we have seen since the firing on Sumter. The Sedalia example, so far as we have any account of it, appears to be akin to it.

We are glad to see that the authorities are at last taking measures to punish one of the worst criminals now at large in the United States—Martin Irons. This man, as the head of the local assembly of the Knights of Labor which has its headquarters in St. Louis, is not only immediately responsible for starting the strike on the Missouri-Pacific and for continuing it after Mr. Powderly ordered it stopped, but he is also to blame for the outrages upon men who were anxious to work which culminated in the fatal collision at Fort Worth, Texas. When the strike was ordered off by Mr. Powderly, and the Knights at Fort Worth telegraphed Irons about it, he telegraphed: "Hold the fort." When the trouble grew and affairs became desperate, he telegraphed: "Hold the fort at all hazards." This was equivalent to an order to resort to any extreme of violence in the attempt to prevent men from taking the places of the strikers, and the shooting of officers of the law which soon followed was in obedient compliance with this order. The Grand Jury at Fort Worth is investigating the affair, and there ought to be no question about the prompt indictment and conviction of this inciter of murder. Martin Irons in the penitentiary would for the first time be rendering a great service to the public.

Mr. Powderly, in his last communication to Jay Gould, has put himself out of the pale of intelligent discussion and into the company of wind-bags and common scolds, where Martin Irons has hitherto held the platform. Mr. Powderly's former communications had entitled him to respectful consideration, because they were based upon principles and had a certain logical sequence. They accordingly enlisted the sympathy of fair-minded men, who thought they perceived in Mr. Powderly a man, holding a position of great responsibility and great difficulty, trying to minimize the consequences of a very serious blunder committed by misguided men belonging to the order of which he is the head. For a few days Mr. Powderly held a unique position before the country, as one who could get a hearing from both sides in a controversy of national import, and could use the language of reason to both. How he has forfeited this strong position the merest glance at his letter to Gould will show. It did not need Gould's crushing reply to expose him as a blatherskite, and an untruthful witness to the facts preceding the present correspondence between them.

As it is impossible to make an analysis of mere rant, it will suffice to state what kind of rant Mr. Powderly deals in. He first tells what kind of arbitration he understood that Gould had agreed to at their meeting in New York. It is noticeable that all the negotiators of the Knights of Labor, from Mr. Powderly down to the smallest boycotters and "sandwich men," have a lot of understandings over and above what is reduced to writing, from which they can argue indefinitely, and that the other side commonly has no defence against these unrecorded agreements. But it happens in this case that Gould has an instrument of writing which proves that Powderly's memory is disgracefully bad. Powderly says:

"I did not hear either you or Mr. Hopkins say that the present trouble out along your road would not be arbitrated with the men who were not at work. It was my firm belief when I left you that night, that you meant to have the entire affair submitted to arbitration at the first possible moment. That belief is shared in by Mr. McDowell, who was present during the entire interview."

Gould replies by quoting a telegram sent by Powderly's secretary during the meeting, or immediately after it, in these words:

"NEW YORK, March 30, 1886.

"*Martin Irons, St. Louis:*

"Have been in conference all day, with the result that Vice-President Hoxie agrees to the following: Willing to meet a committee of our employees, without discrimination, *who are actually at work in the service of the company at the time such committee is appointed*, to adjudicate with them any grievance that they may have. Have your Executive Committee order the men to return to work, and also select a special committee from the employees of the Missouri-Pacific to wait on Mr. Hoxie to adjust any difference. Do this as quickly as possible. Board will leave for St. Louis to-morrow.

"FREDERICK TURNER, Secretary."

The significance of this is, that Powderly was excessively anxious to cover up the blunder of the strikers and get them out of their scrape, realizing that they were exciting against themselves and against the entire order the active hostility of public opinion, and bringing upon themselves the heavy hand of the law. But it was necessary, for appearance' sake and to soothe the pride of the strikers, and to maintain his own influence over them, that he should get something that they could call a concession from Hoxie. This something was Arbitration. Arbitration with whom? "Not with men who are not in our employ," said Hoxie, to whom Gould referred the matter by telegraph, "but we will arbitrate with all who are in our employ, whether Knights or other." To this kind of arbitration Powderly agreed, as the Turner telegram shows.

The remainder of Mr. Powderly's communication is a challenge to Gould to meet him in court, or rather an announcement of his determination to force him into court. No legal issue is mentioned upon which the court is to pass judgment. A vague suggestion is

made that the issue to be tried is that of "the people against monopoly." Rant of this description fills half a column in the newspapers, and ends with a demand that Gould shall "restore every man to *his place* except those who have been engaged in the destruction of property or who have broken the laws." There we have again the central idea of Mr. Powderly's organization, viz.: that every Knight has a right to select his own employer, to fix his own rate of wages, to go on a shindy as often as he likes, and to hold his place for life.

The antics of the *Tribune* in reference to the labor disturbances, its frequent flops and its generally unaccountable behavior, need some explanation. The *Tribune* itself is under a boycott, and has been so for more than a year, and some of the leading mercantile firms in this city have been boycotted for advertising in its columns. There is every reason, both public and private, why the *Tribune* should fight boycotting wherever it shows its ugly mug, and fight hard. But its course has been pusillanimous in a high degree. It has apologized for street riots in New York, and has censured the officers of the law in East St. Louis, and its reports and special telegrams have read as though they had been revised by a Venerable Sage of the Knights of Labor. This, however, is not the fact. They have simply been revised by an editor who thinks that the votes of the Knights can be secured for Mr. Blaine, as a candidate for the Presidency, a couple of years from now, if they are "spoken fair" at this crisis. A most profound delusion. The Knights are not the wisest people in the world, but they know one thing for certain, and that is that the Republican party is not their party. They know also that the *Tribune* is not and never can be friendly to them, and that under all of its bowing and smirking there is a spirit of hostility to their lawless proceedings which differs in no wise from, say, that of the *Evening Post* except in the frankness and frequency of its utterance.

It would be a mistake to consider such an affair as the present strike on the Third Avenue Railroad as a struggle between employer and employed or capital and labor. It is really a struggle to determine whether this city, and for that matter the whole country, shall or shall not be ruled by "walking delegates." The Walking Delegate, who is the executive officer of the trades unions, is generally a man of precisely the same type as the ward politician—that is, he is but a poor workman in any regular calling, but has considerable facility of speech and capacity for organization and "management." The unions have now clothed him with enormous power, which naturally turns his head. To be able to enter great factories at any hour, with the air of a master, bully the proprietor, order the men about, and by a mere sign to suspend the work and put the concern in danger of bankruptcy, and to stop great public lines of communication, is, of course, well calculated, particularly as it brings him a comfortable income, to make drunk with pride and self-conceit a trumpery fellow to whom nobody would pay $3 a day in any regular industry. Moreover, just as the ward politician delights in frequent elections, and the military monarch delights in frequent wars, the Walking Delegate revels in strikes and "tie ups." They give him occupation, exalt his office in the eyes of his dupes, and enable him to display his power on a great scale before the multitude, and get his name into all the papers. Consequently his aim is to magnify all differences, inflame all disputes, and cultivate envy, hatred, and rancor in his union toward all other classes of the community, so as to keep his followers in a striking temper, and leave as little as possible to persuasion, or discussion, or public opinion.

A strike on a street railroad in New York has no chance of success, whatever be the ostensible or the real reasons for it, if the owners of the property and the applicants for the vacant places are protected against violence. It does not require any great skill or any long training to drive a pair of horses or to collect fares on the cars. Experienced men are preferred of course, but as all the present drivers and conductors were once inexperienced, so other raw hands can soon acquire the necessary experience. There are unemployed men in New York, or men in less desirable employments, sufficient to run all the street cars on all the lines. Situations as drivers and conductors are always in demand. Therefore, the success or non success of a strike depends very much but not wholly upon enforcement of the law. Public opinion does and always will require that men in the employ of corporations holding franchises in the nature of monopolies shall be fairly treated. What is fair treatment cannot be defined in all cases, but directors of street railroads and directors of all railroads know very well what they can and what they cannot do. The Third Avenue Company might lawfully dismiss all their employees because they belong to a trade union, but they would not do such a thing because public opinion would not sustain them. The atmosphere in which they live would be unwholesome. The right to join a union without forfeiting one's chance to earn a living is so much a part of the common environment that it needs no other enforcement than that of public opinion. The right of a man to labor for his bread without joining a union is equally sacred, and is, up to this time, as fully supported by bulwarks of public opinion. The demand of the Third Avenue strikers that the company shall discharge all employees who do not belong to the "Empire Protective Association" is so glaring an invasion of private rights that it would have excited universal surprise and abhorrence a few years ago. It excites little surprise now, because it is so common an occurrence, but it excites as much abhorrence as ever.

Justice Duffy, who has been fining Mrs. Gray's boycotters, and at the same time giving them good advice, has besides his courage one excellent qualification for dealing with this class of cases, and that is a strong sense of humor. He sees the absurd or comic side of it. His observation that not the boycotters only, but all of us, himself included, want our wages raised, goes to the root of the matter. There is no desire so prevalent among men of all trades and callings as the desire for more pay. The readiness to strike for it, if striking will produce the desired effect, is very widespread. There is no calling in which striking for a rise of wages is not common except the clerical calling. Doctors, lawyers, teachers, editors, engineers, as well as mechanics and laborers, strike whenever they feel confident that striking will increase their income—that is, they insist on working for those who will pay them best, and for no one else. But they do not follow the man who refuses to give them their price, around the streets, with libelling placards on their backs, or hang around his door trying to frighten away the butcher and grocer, or take the nuts off his wagon, or poison his dog. It is not striking that is shameful, but these savage and silly attacks on property and peace.

No speech has been made in the United States Senate for a long while which reflected more credit upon the man who made it than that delivered by Joseph R. Hawley, of Connecticut, in the recent debate on the Army Bill. Since these labor troubles began, there has been found hardly a single politician in the land who did not truckle to the mob spirit, and the cheapest sort of demagogism was retailed on the floor of the Senate Chamber by such men as Teller, of Colorado, and Van Wyck, of Nebraska. These Senators greedily seized the occasion of General Logan's proposition to increase the army from 25,000 to 30,000 men, as an opportunity for "making themselves solid" with the Knights of Labor and the professional labor agitators, and insinuated that Senators who favored an addition to the army wanted to use the soldiers to "put down the people," and to sustain Jay Gould and his confederates, as the army used to be employed to sustain the slaveholders. General Hawley rose to the occasion, and denounced this introduction of cheap demagogism with the warmth that such contemptible tactics merited. He pointed out that a strong military force in reserve is necessary to the maintenance of civil authority, and, while defending the right of men dissatisfied with their employment to strike, asserted the right and necessity of using the military to put down disorder if the strikers resort to violence, concluding with these manly words:

"There are times when I would be with the laboring man for a strike and I would strike to the end of the contest. I would not work sixteen hours a day for any man, with half an hour for my dinner. I would strike; I would organize; I would work for a better day; but I would not permit the thieves of the city of New York to rush out when I was striking, to destroy the property of the company from which I expected to get my living; and if the Sheriff could not do anything with them, if they were too strong for him and too strong for the police, I would have the Sheriff do what I saw done in New York once myself, call out the old Seventh Regiment and shoot the defiant wrong-doers down if they could not be made to yield in any other way. I would do that for the sake of the laborers themselves, and I would tell the laborers to-day just as I am telling it to you. You cannot deceive them by any other kind of talk. There is no use in the Senators tempting them, and I warn them against the worst enemies they have on the footstool, the men who indulge in the sort of conversation we have had here to-day from the Senator from Nebraska."

The Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*, a quondam free-trade newspaper, argues, in a long and rather perfunctory article, that instead of repealing the duties on wool,

Congress ought to restore the tariff of 1867. "The manufacturers," it says, "who selfishly oppose the policy that has so enormously increased the home production of wool are short-sighted." On the other hand, the manufacturers contend that the wool-growers who favor the policy that has so enormously increased the importation of woollen cloth, and correspondingly depressed the production of the same in the United States, are themselves short-sighted. The truth appears to be that there has been so great a decline in the price of foreign wool in recent years that English manufacturers, who get it duty free, while American manufacturers are taxed as high as 113 per cent. on some varieties, are sending wool to this country in the form of cloth and ready-made clothing to an unprecedented extent. Thus the demand for American wool is falling off in the face of a rapidly increasing demand for woollen goods, and the price of wool is consequently not remunerative to growers in this country, except in the Western Territories and on the Pacific Coast, where land is very cheap. The complaint of the Ohio wool-growers is, that they cannot produce wool at a profit on land worth $50 to $100 per acre, as against wool produced in Texas, Montana, California, South Africa, and other parts of the world where land is worth next to nothing, and where the cost of production is merely that of herding sheep. Instead of using their land for more remunerative purposes—as they will be obliged to do soon, tariff or no tariff—they rush to Congress and ask that the duties be raised. They do not see that it is the importation of cloth and not the importation of wool that ails them.

The ultimate destination of wool is to be spun and woven. Any policy which induces the American consumer to buy a foreign-made coat prevents the selling of as much American wool as would go to the production of a coat. This is something that the Ohio wool-growers will not see. They are slowly strangling their only customers, the American manufacturers. The latter are not entitled to much sympathy from the free-traders' point of view, since they have assented to the wool tariff in order to secure protection for themselves. But the condition of both industries is deplorable if it be true, as Mr. Charles A. Beech, a veteran manufacturer, of Connecticut, says, that "the woollen factories of the United States would not sell for 25 per cent. of their original cost," and, as the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* says, that wool-growing in Ohio does not now yield any profit. We see no chance of any improvement in either branch of industry until both are well-nigh extinguished. The profits of woollen manufacturing in the United States are not equal to the depreciation of the machinery in use. The manufacturers see ruin impending, yet they are deterred by an ancient superstition from demanding from Congress the only thing that can possibly save them, viz.: free wool. The wool-growers, if the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* speaks truly, are almost as badly off. We are rapidly nearing the condition so ardently desired by John Randolph, who said that he so loathed manufactures that he would walk a mile to kick a sheep.

Since the prohibitory amendment to the Constitution was adopted in Rhode Island a fortnight ago, the curious fact has been brought out that there is a prohibitory law on the statute book and has been ever since 1852, as well as another law, passed later, known as the nuisance act, for the purpose of reënforcing and strengthening the stringent provisions of the original prohibitory law. Since these laws were enacted, another law has been passed which allowed municipalities to license the sale of liquors by a majority vote, and under this latter law a few cities and towns have voted to grant licenses, the effect of which was to suspend the operation of the prohibitory law in those places for the time being in respect to the dealers who thus obtained licenses. The only effect of the constitutional amendment, therefore, is to render the license law null and void, prevent the Legislature from enacting another, and give the old prohibitory statutes unlimited sway. But the few cities and towns which have been voting in favor of license include a large majority of the people of the State, and their votes year after year in favor of license show that public sentiment among a large majority of the people will not sustain prohibition. The fact that barely three-fifths, not of all the people of Rhode Island, but of those who enjoy the right under a property qualification to vote, and who took the trouble to vote a fortnight ago, declared in a pet for prohibition, does not change the public sentiment of the people in the cities and large towns—and a form of words amounts to nothing when public sentiment does not infuse life into them.

We are shocked to learn from the *Herald* that there is, after all, some doubt whether President Cleveland is engaged to be married to a Buffalo lady now travelling in Europe. After all the excitement stirred up last week on this subject, the President clearly owes it to the newspapers to get himself engaged. He need not necessarily be engaged to the Buffalo lady whose biography has been published and whose photograph has been printed, but he is bound to do something to satisfy the press. Secretary Lamar, too, is under obligations to the reporters. His banns were published last week simultaneously with Mr. Cleveland's, and now comes a report from Macon, Ga., where the lady resides, that there is no such engagement. This is an attack upon the liberty of the press. It is calculated also to wound the finer feelings of human nature. What can be more harrowing to the feelings of a modest woman than to have her wedding indefinitely postponed through the fault of a bridegroom elected for her by universal suffrage? Surely these are cases for arbitration. We commend them to the Congressional committee on that subject.

The last session of the present Mexican Congress was opened by President Diaz on April 1. The President's message takes occasion to assert, pending a thorough investigation which has been ordered, that the late conflict between American and Mexican troops was due entirely to a mistake on the part of the latter. The only other point of interest referred to in the department of foreign affairs is the fact that the Mexican Minister to the United States has been instructed to negotiate with the Chinese Minister resident in Washington a treaty of friendship, commerce, and navigation between the Mexican Republic and the Celestial Empire. General Diaz enumerates a great number of minor reforms and improvements which have been undertaken by his administration, dwelling chiefly, however, on the efforts that have been made to solve the financial problems which confront the nation. He reports a slight advance in the revenues of the Government. According to him, the creditors of the republic have cheerfully acquiesced in the funding laws of last June, and are exchanging their old bonds for the new ones of the "Consolidated Debt." He thinks that if the interest can be met promptly for a year or two, the credit of the nation will be in large measure restored.

Mr. Gladstone has introduced the Irish Land Bill, which is to form a sort of rider to the Home-Rule Bill. Its main feature is that landlords wishing to sell out are to be permitted to sell to the State, at a price equal as a rule to twenty years of the present rentals, and to receive payment in a 3 per cent. Government bond. The Government is then to sell or rent to the tenants as the case may be, and the rent or interest will be a first charge on the Irish revenues, and will of course be collected by the Irish Government. The position of this bill is very peculiar. The Irish care nothing about it, because it is avowedly a bill for the relief of the landlords. The English Radicals, too, care little about it, except as a help to Mr. Gladstone in carrying through his home-rule scheme. Many of them object to it strongly, as increasing the national debt, and possibly increasing taxation in England, for the benefit of an undeserving class. To both these objections Mr. Gladstone replies, as we replied the other day to our correspondent Mr. Linton, that the landlords were the English garrison in Ireland; that England either backed up or overlooked their misdeeds, and for long years deliberately refused to consider the Irish complaints against them, and is therefore morally responsible for their existence and the security of their property. In fact, the strongest support of the bill must come from the Tories, who are already hoarse with denunciations of the companion measure—the Home-Rule Bill.

The debate was chiefly remarkable for Mr. Chamberlain's unmistakable display of the white flag. He has plainly discovered that Mr. Gladstone is stronger with the country than he thought he was, and that the defections have not greatly damaged the Ministry. So he gives out that he is not so very much opposed to Mr. Gladstone after all, and hopes some day to act with him again. The malicious say that Mr. Chamberlain has been helped into this attitude by poor Lord Hartington's having killed himself as a party leader through going over neck and crop to the Tories, and figuring on the same platform with Lord Salisbury as a critic of Mr. Gladstone. Having thus successfully disposed of his chief rival, the Birmingham statesman is, they say, quite ready to consider the Premier's plans indulgently, and come back to him by and by.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 14, to TUESDAY, April 20, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN the House of Representatives on Wednesday, by a vote of 106 Democrats against 168, of whom 49 were Democrats, the proposition to seat Mr. Hurd (Dem., Ohio) in place of Romeis (Rep.), the sitting member, was rejected.

The House Committee on Ways and Means on Thursday decided by a vote of 9 to 1 to report favorably the resolution recommending the abrogation of the Hawaiian treaty.

The report of the Committee on the Electoral Count upon the Hoar bill was presented to the House on Thursday. In that part of section 4 which prohibits the rejection of the vote of any State from which only one return has been received "except by the affirmative vote of both houses," the Committee has struck out the exception. A material amendment has been made in the latter part of the same section relating to two sets of returns from one State, so as to provide that those votes only shall be counted which are cast by electors whose appointment shall have been duly certified under the seal of the State and the executive thereof, in accordance with the laws of the State, unless the two houses, acting separately, shall concurrently decide such votes not to be the lawful votes of the legally appointed electors.

In the House Labor Committee on Friday a motion to report the Blair bill favorably was made by Mr. James, of New York, and was defeated by a vote of 4 yeas to 6 nays. Mr. James then moved to report the bill without any recommendation. This was also defeated. An adjournment was forced, pending a somewhat complicated parliamentary wrangle. The result of the action and non-action seems to indicate clearly that the bill will not be reported favorably, and that it may be reported either without recommendation or with a substitute. The House Committee on Education also considered on Friday the Blair bill on the same subject, which had been postponed before. The Committee at first voted to postpone it indefinitely, and did so by a vote very hostile to the bill. It was suggested, however, that such action was not courteous to the minority, whereupon it was reconsidered, and the Committee proceeded to consider the bill, section by section. The Committee had not concluded the consideration of the first section at the time of adjournment.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs on Tuesday adopted the bill of Mr. Belmont (Dem., N. Y.) for indemnity to the Chinese for about $147,000 on account of the Rock Springs outrage.

Mr. Logan addressed the Senate on Thursday, vigorously advocating open executive sessions.

The Committee on Commerce of the United States Senate reported favorably on Friday a bill making the depositing of dirt, sand, or other like matter in the tidal waters of New York harbor a misdemeanor, punishable by fine, imprisonment, and, in the case of masters or engineers of vessels, by the revocation or suspension of their licenses. It also provides for the appointment by the President of a Board of Harbor Commissioners, to consist of three officers of the army and two civilians, one of the latter to be nominated by the Chamber of Commerce of New York and the other by the Governor of New Jersey. It appropriates $30,000 to carry out its provisions.

Governor Bate, of Tennessee, has just appointed Washington Curran Whitthorne to succeed Howell E. Jackson as United States Senator. Mr. Whitthorne was born in Tennessee in 1825, was educated at the Knoxville University, and became a lawyer. During the rebellion he held the position of Adjutant-General for Tennessee for four years. Congress removed his political disabilities in 1870, and in the following autumn he was elected a Representative. During the twelve years of his service in Congress he made himself conspicuous as a critic of the naval administration of the Government.

Attorney-General Garland testified before the Telephone Investigating Committee on Monday. He said that he had no consultation with any person connected with the Interior Department as to the hearing in the telephone case, and that he never talked with Solicitor-General Goode on that subject, except as to the amount of fees that should be paid to the Government's special counsel. He had never used his official position to promote the interests of the Pan-Electric Company. "In fact," said Mr. Garland, "as a private citizen I could have done much better for the company, and would have done so." His official position, as having any bearing upon the interest of the Pan-Electric, was never discussed between him and his associates. He prepared the original articles of incorporation, which were adopted with a view to incorporation in New Jersey or Tennessee. He thinks that Tennessee was chosen because there was no requirement as to the paying in of certain percentages.

The Secretary of the Treasury on Tuesday issued a call for $10,000,000 3 per cent. bonds. The call will mature June 1.

The President has settled the long quarrel over the Louisville, Ky., Post-office by the reappointment of Mrs. Virginia Thompson, who has been Postmaster there under three Republican administrations. This appointment was opposed by some of the leading Democratic politicians of the State. A Democratic indignation meeting was held in Louisville, on Saturday night to protest against the reappointment. Representative A. S. Willis was vigorously denounced in the resolutions, which said: "We regret that the President of the United States felt called on to yield his own convictions to the demands of a Congressman who misrepresents his constituents, and puts personal considerations above his duty to his party." A meeting in favor of Mrs. Thompson was held on Monday. All parties were represented, but it was not enthusiastic.

The New York Assembly on Friday passed the Broadway Arcade Railroad Bill by 108 to 8.

Governor Hill, of New York, has vetoed the bill raising the salaries of police captains from $2,000 to $2,750, because it is a question which should be settled by local authorities and not by the State.

Governor Hill has vetoed the Capitol Appropriation Bill, objecting to the removal of Commissioner Perry and the substitution of an ex-officio board

The Committee of the Ohio House appointed to investigate the charges of bribery in connection with the election of Henry B. Payne as United States Senator have submitted their report. It makes no direct charge of bribery, but says the election was surrounded with suspicious circumstances.

As a result of a personal inspection relative to the recent allegations of the Philadelphia *Record* charging gross mismanagement in the soldiers' orphans' schools in Pennsylvania, and the abuse and neglect of the scholars, Governor Pattison on Thursday demanded the resignation of the Rev. R. E. Higbee as State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and summarily removed the Rev. J. W. Sayres, male inspector of soldiers' orphans' schools, and Mrs. E. E. Hutter, female assistant inspector.

A militiaman on guard at the Vandalia yards in East St. Louis on Thursday was fired upon by a striker. He returned the fire, but the man escaped.

There were three acts of violence by strikers in East St. Louis on Thursday night. Two Ohio and Mississippi Railroad switchmen were attacked by a crowd and badly beaten. When they escaped and ran for their lives they were fired upon. An hour later a deputy sheriff met the same gang. Several shots were instantly fired at the deputy. None of them hit him. Later still the pickets of Company B, who are guarding the Louisville and Nashville Depot, were fired on from a vacant house.

The Bridge and Tunnel and the Belt Line Companies of St. Louis have at last employed a sufficient number of men to man all their engines and switches, and they now announce their readiness to do all the transferring across the river and between the various railroad yards in East St. Louis which may be required. This removes the last impediment to free railway traffic at St. Louis.

The strike of switchmen in the Lake Shore yards at Chicago has prevented the handling of freight by that road. On Tuesday an attempt was made to run a train, but it was prevented by the strikers, who knocked a brakeman senseless.

The Elmira division of the Order of Railway Conductors, numbering 160 members, on Sunday, adopted a resolution declaring that "believing arbitration to be the only and proper method to pursue in matters of grievances, we condemn strikes, and assert, further, that they are invariably ill-advised, gotten up by agitators, socialists, incendiaries, and demagogues, rather than by the representatives of honest labor."

A letter from T. V. Powderly, Grand Master Workman of the Knights of Labor, was delivered to Jay Gould on Wednesday. In this letter Mr. Powderly gave a summary of his recollection of two discussions that took place between the Executive Board of the Knights of Labor and Mr. Gould, on March 28 and 30. He denied some of the statements that the latter had made respecting what was said by both sides, and explained what he said respecting the character of the strikers. Mr. Gould was urged to settle the strike at once, and told, if he would do so, he was at liberty to deal with the employees as citizens, not as Knights of Labor. Mr. Powderly challenged Mr. Gould to begin suits for damages against the Knights of Labor. In reply Mr. Gould sent a letter in which he quoted previous correspondence to show the reasons for his acts in reference to the strike, and then censured the threatening tone of Mr. Powderly's communication. Mr. Gould declared that the contest of the Knights of Labor was now not with himself, but with the laws of the land.

Four of the men engaged in distributing boycotting circulars against Mrs. Gray's bakery, in this city were arrested on Wednesday, and on Thursday were fined a dollar each for disturbing the peace.

All the lines of the Third Avenue Railway Company, in this city, ceased running cars on Friday, owing to the strike of 800 employees. On Monday the Executive Board of the Empire Protective Association ordered a tie-up of all street car lines in the city, except those on Eighth and Ninth Avenues. The order was obeyed. This was done to force a compromise on the Third Avenue officials.

Late on Monday afternoon the Third Avenue Line attempted to run a car. It was assailed by the strikers, and the driver and conductor badly beaten. The police used their clubs vigorously and soon settled the trouble. They made a number of arrests. Early Tuesday morning the Empire Association ordered the general "tie-up" off, on the ground that there was no proof that the other companies were aiding the Third Avenue. If any outside assistance by other companies is extended, the "tie-up" is to be ordered again.

Tornadoes in Minnesota, Iowa, and Dakota on Wednesday did great damage to property,

besides destroying about fifty lives and seriously injuring 200 people.

By the breaking of a reservoir dam near East Lee, Mass., on Tuesday, the town was terribly devastated and seven people drowned.

Mr. John Bigelow has sent to the Chamber of Commerce an elaborate report of his observations during his visit to the Panama Canal, in which he enumerates the tremendous financial, executive, sanitary, and other difficulties attending the work. He says: "To determine when this canal will be finished, one must know, first, how much work is yet to be done, and, second, how much money the company will be able and disposed to spend annually upon it, and, third, how many laborers or their equivalent in machines it can command. That information has not yet been revealed to man. No one living can even now give anything more than a guess as to the amount of work to be done. All these uncertain elements are rendered more uncertain by the financial situation of the company. It is about entering the market for a new loan of 600,000,000 francs. The price it will have to pay for this money is uncertain, and the price of a future loan, if one should become necessary, is still more uncertain. Till the money is secured, and the cost of getting it ascertained, it would be about as safe to predict the quarter in which the winds will be setting next Christmas Day at St. Petersburg as the time when the canal will be finished or what it will cost. That the canal will now be prosecuted to its completion without any very serious interruption is fairly to be presumed, for too large a proportion of its cost has already been incurred to make a retreat as good policy as an advance. Even if abandoned by the company, the contractors themselves would probably find it for their interest to combine and finish it."

Messrs. Cornelius, William K., Frederick W., and George W. Vanderbilt have given jointly the sum of $250,000 to the College of Physicians and Surgeons, in this city, for the erection and endowment of a building 75 feet by 100 feet, at Tenth Avenue and Sixtieth Street, to be known as the Vanderbilt Clinic. The institution will supplement the work of the Sloane Maternity Hospital and of the College.

John H. Noyes, founder of the Oneida Community, is dead at the age of seventy-five. He was born in Vermont, and in 1834 began to preach "perfectionism." In 1846 he founded the Putney Community, and two years later removed it to Oneida County, N. Y. The system of complex marriages which he preached was abandoned by the community in 1879, and he himself retired into a sort of exile in Canada.

Squire White, aged eighty-eight years, known as a leader of the Rhode Island Dorr war, and famous in his day as a lawyer, died on Thursday at Quinebaug, Conn.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone propounded his Irish Land Bill to the House of Commons on Friday evening. In substance his statement was as follows: The Land Act was intended to go into effect on the same day on which the Home-Rule Bill would become operative. It would not go on without the operation of the other, which would provide a legislature in Ireland to appoint statutory authority to deal with the landed estates and act between vendor and purchaser. The purchases would be made through the issue of £180,000,000 of 3 per cent. stock issued at par. These new Irish consols might, with the consent of the Treasury, be commuted for stock of a lower denomination. If the stock could not be issued forthwith, scrip of equal value would be issued for the same purpose. The act was to give the landlords the option to sell out under its terms. Its enactments were confined to agricultural holdings, and did not include mansions having demesnes and woods. The state authorities acting between the peasant and land-owner would purchase the land from the land-owner and put the peasant in possession as absolute proprietor, subject to an annual rent charge until the total payments equalled the purchase money. The state would not force the small occupiers to become proprietors. In districts where the population was congested, the state would have the power to decide whether expropriation of the too crowded land should be compulsory. Nobody except the immediate landlords would have the option to sell to the encumbrancer, and then he must sell by foreclosure, and not at an option for himself. Applications to sell would have to be made by all the tenants on an estate, and all these applications and sales would be registered. Applicants would be required to give security for costs in certain cases. The Land Commission would be empowered to refuse applications. The basis of prices would depend upon the rental for a fixed period. The judicial rental of 1845 would be the standard in all cases wherein the rent of the land to be sold was then fixed; in all other cases the Land Commission would have the power to arrive at a price by comparing the other judicial rentals with Griffith's valuation. The Land Commission would also be allowed to examine the state of the books concerning estates for ten years back. Twenty years' rental would be a normal purchase; in exceptional cases twenty-two years' rental would make a purchase. Applications for sale would not be received after March 31, 1890. Ten million pounds of the stock would be issued during 1887, £20,000,000 in 1888, and £20,000,000 in 1889.

Mr. Chamberlain made a speech, in which he said that the land proposals, although they had been modified since he had left the Cabinet, would still impose a great burden on Great Britain without sufficient security for the loans advanced. The bill was calculated not so much to benefit the tenants as a sop for the landlords. Although only £50,000,000 was to be issued, the option to sell was offered to landholders holding land valued at £150,000,000. Supposing that the full number of options to sell should be accepted, how would all the money be provided? He opposed the bill on principle, because it specially protected the landlords. His speech contained the significant statement that he was not an irreconcilable opponent of Mr. Gladstone's policy. If the land proposals should be sufficiently modified, he would be happy to be relieved of the duty of continuing his present attitude of opposition. Permission was given to introduce the bill, and the second reading was fixed for May 13.

A full meeting of opponents of Mr. Gladstone's policy was held at the City Hall, Glasgow, on Wednesday evening. Dr Hanna, leader of the Presbyterians of Belfast, said that he wanted Mr. Gladstone's measure rejected with contempt and scorn. It was the most unworkable, grotesque, and mischievous proposal that had ever emanated from the brain of a statesman, sane or insane. It would hand the peasantry over to the most illiterate priesthood in Christendom.

A mass-meeting of 3,000 opponents of the home-rule scheme was held in London on Wednesday night. Speeches were made by Lord Hartington, Lord Salisbury, and Mr. Goschen. Mr. Gladstone's name was treated with great disrespect, and during his speech, Lord Hartington with great deliberation said: "I hope I may appeal to you not to make the task which I have before me more difficult than it is, by indulging in any manifestations of disrespect to one whom I shall always admire and revere as the leader of a great party; who, in my opinion (I do not expect you all to agree with me), has conferred great advantages on the country; who, at this moment, in my judgment, although I am bound to differ from him, is actuated by feelings as noble and as honest as any that have ever inspired the conduct of an English statesman."

Monday being "Primrose Day" (the anniversary of the death of Lord Beaconsfield), the Conservatives everywhere appeared decorated with his favorite flower. The political crisis was used to emphasize the observance of the fifth anniversary of the Tory leader's demise.

Sir William Harcourt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, introduced the budget in the House of Commons on Thursday evening. He stated that the expenses of 1885–6 were £1,393,327 less and the receipts £1,208,699 less than the estimates made by Mr. Childers a year ago, making an actual deficit of £2,642,943, instead of £2,827,171, as estimated. The diminution in revenue was most marked in the case of alcohol, the receipts derived from which were £971,000 below the estimate and £1,179,000 below the receipts in 1884–5. Within a decade there has been a decrease in revenue from alcohol of £4,500,000. This has been due to changes in the habits of the people, and has been concurrent with an enormous increase in revenue derived from comforts of life. The falling off in receipts from alcohol has been reduced about one-half by increased receipts derived from tea, tobacco, and fruits. For the fiscal year of 1886–7 the expenditures are estimated at £90,428,599, and the revenue at £89-885,000. It is proposed to meet the deficit by taking £800,000 from the £6,750,000 applicable to the reduction of the national debt, which has been reduced £30,000,000 in the past five years.

The Queen's Proctor has decided to intervene in the Dilke case as a private person. Sir Charles will call a great meeting of his supporters to hear his statement.

Sampson Low, the oldest London publisher, died on Friday at the age of eighty-nine.

The Greek Chamber of Deputies has voted all the bills for military preparations. The Government on Saturday sent an unconciliatory reply to the note of the Powers, insisting upon the execution of the Berlin Treaty.

The General commanding the Greek troops on Zarkos Heights, which command the Plain of Larissa, was summoned by the Turkish General on Sunday to withdraw from that stronghold. The Greek General flatly refused to withdraw. The Turkish force, consisting of 7,000 men and several batteries, thereupon advanced to the foot of the heights. Greek troops are being pushed to the frontier as rapidly as possible.

It is rumored that the Greek Consul at Candia, Crete, with the approval of his Government, has been actively engaged in plotting a rebellion among the people, a majority of whom are Greeks, against Turkish authority, and that the Consuls of the other Powers have asked their respective Governments to interfere to prevent the movement from being carried out.

The Porte has been informed by Germany, Russia, and Austria that they are taking fresh steps to compel Greece to disarm.

England has sent a circular to the Powers proposing that if Greece does not disarm, the Powers cease diplomatic relations with her and blockade the Greek ports.

The Russian Ministry have ordered the chief authorities of all the universities in the empire at once to adopt means for the immediate and permanent suppression of all forms of political agitation by young students.

At 10:30 o'clock on Sunday morning, while the Bishop of Madrid was ascending the steps of the Cathedral, he was shot three times and fatally wounded by a priest who had recently been dismissed from the priesthood, and had vainly importuned the Bishop to be reinstated. The assassin was arrested and was followed by an immense crowd, who were only prevented from lynching him by gendarmes. The Bishop died on Monday.

MM. Ducquercy and Roche have been sentenced to fifteen months' imprisonment for fomenting riots in the French mining districts.

A serious flood in Montreal has damaged property to the amount of $1,600,000.

WHO ARE "THE LABORERS"?

THERE are about 11,000 men employed now on the Southwestern railroads who have taken the place of the strikers of their own free will, and the employers are satisfied with them, and the roads are doing a large business in the transportation of freight and passengers Nevertheless, we are hearing still from the Knights of Labor, through their officers, Mr. Powderly, Mr. Turner, Mr. Martin Irons, and others, not only that the strike is not over, but that the railroad companies are still engaged in the perpetration of some sort of wrong against a large body of laborers belonging to their organization, concerning which they are asking not only for arbitration but for some sort of Congressional interference. Now we know what they mean when they say the strike is not over. They mean that the men who struck six weeks ago have not gone back to work, and are not willing to do so until they are asked by the companies to return on their own terms. We see nothing reprehensible in this. No man ought to go back to work for either the Missouri-Pacific or the Texas-Pacific unless the terms offered by these corporations are satisfactory to him, and he thinks he can do no better.

But what wrong are the companies doing to the Knights of Labor, or to "labor" in general, or to the community at large? What is it that the Congressional Committee is going down to inquire into? About what did the Citizens' Committee propose arbitration the other day? What is it exactly that the Master Workman is complaining of? In like manner, what is it that O'Donnell and his Empire Protective Union have against the Third Avenue Street Railroad? The members of the Union have refused to work for the road because they do not like the terms of the service. This is their right. No one has any business to quarrel with their decision except their creditors or persons dependent on them for support. The company has accepted their decision and is employing other men, who are presenting themselves in great numbers, to take their places. What, then, are O'Donnell and his Union complaining of? What wrong is the company doing them? Why are they hanging about the road, and why has an immense body of police to be employed to keep the track clear, and prevent attacks on those men who are driving and conducting the cars?

These questions go to the bottom of the labor problem as now presented to the American public, and they cannot be considered too carefully or answered too clearly and distinctly. We believe that in its manner of answering them the American people will furnish almost as valuable a test both of their own temper and capacity, and of the strength of democratic institutions, as was furnished by their answer to the Southern challenge to take the field in defence of free labor. What they are now asked to do is to permit a few hundred thousand laborers, of foreign birth mainly, to set up a government to take the place of that already in existence in the State and nation, and enforce submission to it not by means of open warfare, but by a vast number of riots, assaults, and isolated acts of violence and disorder directed against persons and property, and other more petty annoyances, in the hope that the public may be worried into acquiescence.

What Powderly and Turner and Irons are trying to do in the West, and what O'Donnell and his men are trying to do here, is not to secure employment for labor, on terms satisfactory to the laborers—for a vast army of laborers stand ready to do and are doing the work which the strikers refuse—but to establish the rule that nobody has any right to be considered a laborer, or be employed as such, except members of their respective organizations. They want us to admit that the 11,000 men now employed by the Southwestern roads are not real laborers or entitled to sympathy or protection from the militia or the courts, and that the Knights of Labor should be allowed to make war on them with pistols, and knives, and brickbats, and drive them from their work, and rob their families of their support. They want us to admit, also, that members of their respective organizations, by merely becoming members, acquire a vested right to remain in such employment as they may happen to have at the time of joining, no matter what their behavior may be and whether the employer wants them or not, and as long as they please, on their own terms. This would convert every laborer's place into an office for life, on wages and hours of work fixed by himself, or, in other words, an office for which there has been no parallel in the history of mankind, except that of a military despot. It is only military despots who have ever made places for themselves, or determined how long they should hold them, and what their rate of pay should be, without consulting those who paid their salaries.

Does any sane man suppose that the American people are going to organize their business on a basis of this sort, and try to do the work of the nation through agents whom they can neither hire nor dismiss, and whose wages they cannot fix? We think it will be discovered, even by the most ignorant and simple-minded of the Knights before long, that the world is not going to be carried on in that way just yet, and that in considering the claims of labor and the interests of labor and the needs of labor, the American people will not overlook the vast army of the poor and unemployed, whose existence is revealed by every strike of the unskilled or slightly skilled. There is no claim to human sympathy and help arising out of poverty and readiness to work for a livelihood, which the men who take the place of strikers do not possess in a higher degree than strikers. It is they who are really "Labor," and it is they who present the true labor problem with which the philanthropist and legislator are called on to deal.

PARLIAMENTARY ANARCHY IN GERMANY.

THE latest debates in the German Reichstag—we refer to those already known to us *in extenso*—show more clearly, perhaps, than any previous discussions in that body how far parliamentary government is still from being a reality in Germany. In a lugubrious tone the aging Chancellor declares, on an occasion apparently least appropriate for political pathos, that he despairs of finding a support for the unity and power of the nation in its Parliament, the majority of which rests, and will undoubtedly continue to rest after many an election, on "fractions hostile to the Empire from necessity and principle." These fractions, which not only support but almost constitute the majority, are the Ultramontane Centre, the Socialists, the Poles, the Alsace-Lorrainers, and other Separatists, with whom the German-Liberals, themselves the warmest friends of German unity, generally coöperate in their opposition to what they consider Prince Bismarck's excessive demands of power or economic vagaries.

Being "convinced" of the untrustworthiness of the Reichstag for the defence of his creation, the Chancellor, as he frankly tells it, the more eagerly looks for firmer support in a well-provided army, and in finances little dependent upon legislative grants and the contributions of the single States. He sees dangers ahead—dangers threatened by socialism within and coalition without—expects soon to be removed from the helm, sees no successor who would continue his labors in his own way, and gently intimates that the constitutional structure might be exposed to serious shocks—after him; for himself, he would surely not lay hands on what he had helped to build. He once more recommends one of his pet financial measures, in these curious words: "I would still beg you to-day, though it might almost appear like irony, to accept the monopoly; by the monopoly you strengthen the Empire, by declining it you hurt the Empire."

This appeal, evidently as seriously meant as pathetic, did not prevent the complete defeat of the Government measure, and a few days later the warfare of fractions—which in the German Reichstag replaces the great party duels of other parliaments—was resumed on another occasion. The Minister of the Interior, Puttkamer, pleaded for the renewal of the Anti-Socialist Law for five years. The Centre party had proposed an amendment limiting the prolongation to two years. The Minister depicted the horrors of anarchic rioting just going on in the mining districts of Belgium, and upbraided the German-Liberals with defending a degree of freedom, of governmental impotence, which the bloody scenes in the neighboring kingdom proved to be fraught with perils of every kind. In the next minute he turned toward the Ultramontane opposition allies of the advanced Liberals, and twitted them with the remark that Belgium was "a thoroughly and truly Catholic country," that "ninety-nine per cent. of the strikers were true sons of their church," which thus proved as "little able to cope with certain agitations" as the Liberal Government. He then implored all parties to stand by their Emperor, who "had given his blood for bringing about this law, and who had expressly commanded the declaration before the nation's assembled council that no keener grief, no bitterer disappointment, could be prepared for him, in this late evening of his life, than to find himself deserted by the representatives of the nation in his attempt to maintain and secure the domestic peace." The leader of the Centre, Windthorst, took up the gauntlet, reproached

the Government with driving, by its exceptional decrees, the Catholic laborers into the ranks of the atheistic Social Democracy, at the same time inveighed against Belgian liberalism as a pernicious freemasonry, and thus wrestled at once, with his wonted volubility, with Conservatives and Liberals, Government and socialism, foe and ally. A Polish representative declared the opposition of his fraction to any prolongation of the law, protesting in the Polish interest against exceptional legislation in general, but also condemning the Socialist doctrines as subversive not only of State and Church, but of the principle of nationality, so dear to Poles.

This provoked the ire of Bebel, the aggressive Socialist chief, who began his harangue against the bill with an attack on the Poles, its most outspoken opponents. Then, assailing its advocates, he alluded, in the course of his invectives, to Stöcker's insinuation of a secret harmony between Socialists and Jews. This gave the famous court-preacher an opportunity to turn the discussion on Social Democracy into the anti-Semitic channel, and accuse a Jewish member of the Socialistic parliamentary group of hypocritically wearing on his back the badge of Social-Democratic principles. The Jew retorted by reminding Stöcker that tribunals before which his anti-Semitic agitation had brought him had branded his forehead with the mark of lying. Hänel, the most incisive German-Liberal opponent of the prolongation bill, characterized Stöcker as "the Bebel of religious intolerance and State Socialism." Bebel spurned his ally's comparison as an insult, Stöcker being a perjurer. A tilt between Socialists and Windthorst, both in opposition, followed, and the irregular skirmishing ended with a victory of the latter at the ballot, the two-year amendment being adopted. Thus the Ultramontanes, holding the balance of power between Conservatives and National-Liberals on one side and the German-Liberals and Social-Democrats on the other, and disposing of the vote of the Separatist fractions, again triumphed over Bismarck, who, however, assured the Reichstag, at the close of the debate, that what the Government failed to obtain now it would surely recover before the lapse of the two years. And, victorious or beaten in debate—such is German constitutionalism—the Government has always its way in fact.

ON LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGES.

In the last number of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* M. Bréal has published a lecture on learning foreign languages, in which he has attacked a practical problem in a practical way, not as a philologian, not as a determined tracker down of etymologies, not as an ingenious restorer of such dilapidated linguistic monuments as the 'Song of the Arval Brethren,' but, to use his own expression, as a *paterfamilias*. Literature, philology he ruthlessly puts aside, and absolutely discards all the cumbrous apparatus of grammar. The object he proposes is the practical acquisition of German, of English, Italian, Spanish. Philological study of these idioms he considers a waste of time for the young. Greek and Latin are the true educational gymnastic. English and German are needed as means of communication, of exchange among the peoples. He denies the familiar assertion that the French have not the bump of languages. The Minister of Public Instruction has recently tried the experiment of sending young Frenchmen abroad to learn English and German, and the experiment has had the happiest results. From Germany, from England the students have brought back not only a good knowledge of German, of English, but enlarged views. They have learned to appreciate different methods of thinking, reasoning, living. Of course the state cannot repeat this experiment on a large scale, but the system of exchanges so common between French-Swiss and German-Swiss families is recommended as an admirable and economical method of training young girls in foreign languages. M. Bréal admits that this is somewhat repugnant to French ways, but France has widened her ways so much in the last thirty years that we may look forward to greater latitude in this direction also. To those who can go abroad he gives the eminently sensible advice not to go abroad in order to pick up the language, but in order to study something definite, to work at something definite, whether banking at Frankfort, bookselling at Leipsic, brewing of beer or Aeginetan sculptures at Munich. You will learn banking, bookselling, beer-brewing, you will make yourself an authority on the origin of Greek art, and you will be a capital German scholar to boot.

The trouble that a philologian has to encounter is that he carries with him the sense of his profession. He is too much bent on being grammatical; and M. Bréal tells an amusing story of the efforts of a young French professor who betook himself to Germany equipped with the orthodox apparatus for the acquisition of the language. Endowed with a good memory and a prodigious power of work, he mastered his grammar, the 248 irregular verbs and all, in the space of a week. Then he put his knowledge to the test by going to a lecture; but he found, to his dismay, that he could not catch even one grammatical form, not even one of those rascally irregular verbs he had acquired with so much pains. His next point of attack was the vocabulary. Grammar is only the skeleton, words the flesh and blood. So he addressed himself to the radicals of the German language first, and finding a book that offered him a complete assortment of German radicals, he devoured it eagerly and digested his 1,000 roots in four days. The result was not a whit better. His next resource was Ollendorff—'German in Ninety Lessons.' Ninety lessons—that means three months. Why not take three lessons a day? In thirty days Ollendorf is his—but not the German language. Jacotot, Robertson, Ploetz follow—all to no purpose. At last he conceived the heroic purpose of committing the dictionary to memory. 30,000 words cannot be considered a trifle. Still, at the rate of 1,000 words a day, a dictionary can be appropriated in a month. The failure was as absolute as before, and, to crown his humiliation, he met certain French artisans who had crossed the border with him and had learned German while working at their trade. The young professor finally succeeded in learning German, and afterwards published his experiences for the benefit of the world.

Still, with all respect for M. Bréal, the time spent on grammar, roots, Ollendorff, and dictionary was not all wasted. The true way to learn a language is to take it in at every pore, and the philological pore is not to be despised. A mature man cannot become a child again, although it is very true that in order to learn a language well one must get into childlike ways of mimicry. People who are plagued with a profound sense of their personal dignity never learn to speak a foreign language well. Of course M. Bréal is too sensible a man not to emphasize the fact that this infantine knowledge of language goes even more rapidly than it comes. A child learns a language perfectly in a year, and forgets it totally in six months; and those who learn languages as children do unlearn them with corresponding facility.

Much that M. Bréal says on the education of the ear, on the mastery of phrases, is excellent. For English as against German he has much to say. English is much nearer akin to the French than is German. It is the French form of the Germanic mind. It is a beautiful language, "all sinew and muscle, a language that seems to have resolved the problem of packing away the maximum of *esprit* in the minimum of matter"; and the short monosyllables which the German poet Platen detested, carry to M. Bréal's mind a sense of plenitude and strength. At the same time, he acknowledges that, owing to a false start, he has never been able himself to do much with it practically, and he unconsciously illustrates the trickiness of our idiom by supposing a child equally at home in English and in French to address his English-speaking mother with the startling phrase, "Let me come on your knees" (*Prends-moi sur tes genoux*)—which is, being interpreted, "Take me on your lap."

TOLSTOI AND MONTAIGNE.

The old and the new are the same: the wisdom of the ancients repeats itself in every age; the thirteenth century instructs the nineteenth, and the men of the sixteenth century are our brothers. In every land and in every generation are born those souls who, hearing the word of God, follow after it and hold commune with it

> "——on their behalf
> Who, on the plain, with dance amain
> Adore the Golden Calf."

Tolstoi to-day in Russia, Garrison yesterday in America—with only the differences of accent and emphasis belonging to each personality and the circumstances of each—utter truths eighteen hundred years old and far older yet, the truths of the Sermon on the Mount. The striking similarities between these two thinkers must have occurred to every one who in this last year has read Mr. Garrison's Life and Count Tolstoi's 'Ma Religion,' for it is conspicuous; and it is extremely interesting.

Not less interesting is a resemblance to be found between Tolstoi and Montaigne. Completely unlike as is the tone of their minds, many of Montaigne's pages might be used as mottoes for Tolstoi's chapters. For us who have not suffered nor struggled as the sensitive and high-hearted Russian has done, who have not known the moral strife he has endured, there may be a fuller sense of kinship and sympathy with Montaigne. Yet if we better understand his position of thought, none the less—all the more, in fact—there is a curious, one may even say a profound, satisfaction in being led from his point of view to the neighboring, though narrower, outlook of our coetanean, and in adjusting our knowledge of life to the discovery and acceptance of all which they see in common.

While the strongest moral conviction of Tolstoi's mind is the belief in non-resistance to evil-doers, his greatest moral struggle, it is evident, has been in delivering himself from all dominion of human authority; and this freedom from social control he must regard, though he does not distinctly say so, as not only the right but the duty of every man. Here, perhaps, a colder and keener intelligence would find one of the weak points of his system; but no heart can deny the force and power of his indictments against the Church (all creeds) as a teacher of evil doctrines, and against the State (all governments) as an inciter to evil deeds, and against Society (all civilization) as a promoter of evil passions. War is

the very embodiment of the things condemned by this man's rectitude. In his eyes, a righteous war there cannot be: a war for religion, a Christian army, are self-contradictory terms, and a war of patriotism is founded on delusion. A soldier's profession, however disguised by genius and by honors, is at bottom simply homicide. All this is summed up in two words by Montaigne: he speaks of war as "cette maladie humaine." A "malady" can be neither Christian, nor patriotic, nor honorable.

In a passage of eloquent emotion Tolstoi contrasts Jesus saying, "Take thy cross, and follow me," with the vilest of gold-laced men, whose business is to kill his fellow-creatures, saying, "Take, not your cross, but your knapsack and rifle, and march to a suffering death." He continues (we translate from the French version):

"Abandoning their families, their wives, their children, tricked out in grotesque habiliments, and placing themselves at the orders of the first comer of higher rank, starved, frozen, exhausted by forced marches, they go, not knowing whither, like a herd of cattle to the slaughter, . . . till the moment comes when they are placed within the range of cannon balls and bullets, and commanded on their side to kill men of whom they know nothing. They kill and are killed. And none of them knows why or wherefore. It needs but for some ambitious leader to brandish his sword and shout to them sounding words, and they precipitate themselves headlong to death."

Break off here in the middle, and turn to Montaigne:

"In our wonted actions, of a thousand there is not one that has regard to ourselves. He whom you see scrambling up the ruins of that wall, furious and beside himself, exposed to so many gunshots: and that other, all scarred, frozen, and pale with hunger, resolved to die rather than open the way to him—think you they are there for themselves? It is for one whom, perchance, they have never seen, and who gives himself no concern about them, but lies sunk the while in sloth and pleasure."

And then he asks: "Who does not readily exchange health, peace, and life for renown and glory, the most useless, vain, and false coin that we pass current?" This is the very keynote of a large part of Tolstoi's book; as the first clause of the just quoted passage is merely a different wording of one of his repeated phrases—"In our wonted actions, of a thousand there is not one that has regard to ourselves."

> "For custom lies upon us with a weight
> Heavy as frost and deep almost as life."

It was custom which imposed upon Tolstoi in his youth the practice of dueling, and other conditions which he refers to and depicts in this striking passage:

"In my life—exceptionally fortunate in a worldly point of view—I can count so many sufferings endured for the doctrine of the world, that they would equal one or another martyrdom for the doctrine of Jesus. All the most painful moments of my life, beginning with the orgies and duels of student days, my army life in war time, the illnesses and abnormal and insupportable conditions I have passed through [one notes and corrects here a self-evident mistranslation in the French], all this was martyrdom endured for the doctrine of the world. Yet I speak of my own life, one, as I say, exceptionally fortunate in a worldly point of view. How many martyrs have endured and are enduring at this moment, for the doctrine of the world, sufferings which it would be difficult to count up!"

"Je vouldrois," says Montaigne, "qu'on me feist raison de ces loix d'honneur qui vont si souvent chocquant et troublant celles de la raison." It is such martyrs who, as life darkens to its end, must question—

> "What was that word which once sufficed alone for all,
> Which now I seek and never can recall?
> I know not; I will do the work the world requires,
> Asking no reason why, but serving its desires;
> Will do for daily bread, for wealth, respect, good name,
> The business of the day."

"Alas!" they ask, "is that our one duty?"

> "And then, as weary of in vain renewing
> This question, thus their mournful thought pursuing,
> 'I know not. I must do as other men are doing.'"

The thought which Lessing expressed in the phrase, "The Christian religion has been tried for eighteen hundred years; the religion of Christ remains to be tried," is the thought which Tolstoi's book but amplifies and insists upon. And here, too, Montaigne has the precedence. "If this ray of divinity," he says—that is, a lively faith in God—"if this ray of divinity at all touched us, it would appear in everything about us; not only our words but our works also would be pervaded by the light and lustre of it; all that went out from us would be seen to be illuminated by this noble enlightenment." But, in truth, he adds, comparing the life of Christians with that of other human societies, "this so divine and celestial order distinguishes Christians only by their language!" We remain behindhand "there, where, on account of the advantage of our religion, we ought to shine in excellence at an extreme and incomparable distance; and men should say, 'How just they are, how charitable, how good; it is because they are Christians.' . . . The peculiar token of our truth of doctrine should be our virtue of life." Just afterward he says: "Some men persuade the world that they believe what they do not believe; others, in greater number, persuade themselves so; not understanding what it is to believe." Tolstoi says, "Our existence finds itself now in such contradiction with the doctrine of Jesus that we have the greatest difficulty in understanding it."

Once more the words of the poet already quoted (Clough) enforces other utterances of the writers we are especially considering. He speaks for many men when he cries:

> "Ah me! this eager rivalry of life,
> This cruel conflict for preëminence,
> This keen supplanting of the dearest kin,
> Quick seizure and fast unrelaxing hold
> Of vantage-place; the stony hard resolve,
> The chase, the competition, and the craft
> Which seems to be the poison of our life,
> And yet is the condition of our life!
> To have done things on which the eye with shame
> Looks back, the closed hand clutching still the prize!
> Alas! what of all these things shall I say?
> Take me away unto thy sleep, O God!"

Such a life may be compatible, as Tolstoi asserts, with the Christian religion—the religion of the Christian churches—but not with the religion of Christ. As a follower of Jesus, he says of himself: "I have understood in what my true good consists; I have *faith* in that. . . . Not only I have faith that I ought thus to live, but I have faith that if I thus live, and only so, my life will have for me all possible meaning, and will be reasonable, joyful, and indestructible by death"—since, as Montaigne says, "there is nothing so easy, so gentle, and so favorable as the divine law."

There is a remarkable passage of Montaigne which at first glance we might seem to have advanced three hundred years away from, but Tolstoi indicates that we should err in so thinking. Montaigne, speaking of the evil qualities in us, declares that they are connected with the fundamental conditions of our life, and continues:

"In the same way, in all civilizations, there are necessary offices not only vile but vicious. . . . Though they become excusable since they are needful, and general necessity effaces their true quality, they must yet be left to those citizens . . . who sacrifice their honor and their conscience as others sacrifice their lives for the good of their country. . . . The public good requires that there should be traitors, and liars, and murderers: let us resign these duties to people more obedient and more supple than we."

"One has but to study the complicated mechanism of our modes of government," says Tolstoi, "to recognize that . . . one set of men make laws, another set apply them, a third harden others . . . to unreflecting and passive obedience; the fourth, these very men so hardened, become the instruments of all kinds of violence." Or, as he has before declared, no judge would execute his own sentences, while no officer of the army, no private soldier, save from the influence of discipline, would even wound one single man, much less kill them by the hundreds and sack their towns. "The distinctive trait of civilized man," he avers, "is that he does through obedience what is considered by the larger number as iniquitous, that is, as opposed to conscience."

We come to a close only for want of space. There remain countless instances of likeness in the thoughts of these two meditative minds. Those who care to pursue the subject may compare what they say concerning the advantages of the simple over the learned, of the poor over the rich; concerning prayer and immortality; about punishments, or even about such minor matters as commentaries. At the last moment we can but beg their readers to remember, in connection with Tolstoi's admirable pages on the difference of our feeling towards our compatriots and towards foreigners, (as with Garrison's generous declaration, "My country is the world, my countrymen are all mankind"), Montaigne's delightful passage: "I look upon all men as my compatriots, and embrace a Pole as cordially as a Frenchman, holding in less high regard the national bond than the universal and common one."

ON THE EVE OF GLADSTONE'S SPEECH.

LONDON, April 8, 1886.

BEFORE three hours are over, Mr. Gladstone's scheme of home rule will be known to the whole world. Americans may, perhaps, read with interest a few notes on the condition of English opinion at a momentous historical crisis. My aim at this moment is simply to state what I believe to be facts; but any readers of the *Nation* who may peruse what I write should bear in mind two considerations: the first is, that though my aim is simply to state the truth, I cannot profess to be without a bias. My conviction is, that any scheme of home rule or federalism is opposed to the interests of England, and this belief is, I know, certain to affect both my observations and the inferences they suggest. The second consideration is, that in a period of revolution—and no one can conceal from himself that England is passing through a revolution, even though it be one accomplished under forms of law—phases of sentiment change from day to day, almost from hour to hour. The opinion of this week is not the opinion of a week ago; it may differ widely from the prevalent opinion of a week hence. Add to this, that I am not "inside politics," and can make no claim whatever to any wide knowledge of the different classes which make up the large world of England. My observations, whatever their worth, are based on knowledge of the sentiment prevalent in what, for want of a better term, I can best describe as the class of lawyers and university men. Subject to these remarks, which I most earnestly request any reader to bear in mind when judging of this or any other letter by me on current politics, I note with some confidence the following features in the condition of public opinion.

First.—The educated classes have as a body withdrawn their confidence from Mr. Gladstone.

This assertion will, I know, be disputed; it is one of those statements which, from their nature, do not admit of absolute proof. For myself I feel no doubt of its correctness, but I am perfectly aware that it would be challenged by Gladstonian Liberals. (The expression, by the way, "Gladstonian Liberal," is singularly characteristic of the time, and suggests many reflections.) The facts on which I rely in support of my contention are (*inter alia*) the changed tone of journals which, like the *Spectator*, the *Guardian*, or the *Scotsman*, used at one time to place unhesi-

tating faith in the Premier, and even more the altered attitude of the vast majority of my own friends, many of whom have always been and still are strong Liberals. In the matter of home rule, moreover, this change of sentiment is, at any rate, perfectly natural. Home rule has never been what I suppose Americans would call a plank of the Liberal platform. Mr. Gladstone's policy may be wise or foolish, but it is undoubtedly a new policy; it is his own; it is not the traditional policy of the Liberal party.

Secondly.—Mr. Gladstone's adherents in and out of the Government are almost wholly guided by two influences: their belief in Mr. Gladstone's statesmanship, and the difficulty which they see in governing Ireland on any plan not approved of by Mr. Parnell. No human being can suppose that the men who will vote for Mr. Gladstone's measure would themselves have proposed a policy of home rule; they have approved Mr. Gladstone's scheme because it is Mr. Gladstone's, and because it promises to get them out of a sort of political *cul de sac*.

Thirdly.—Confidence in the Conservative party does not exist. The way in which the Conservatives came into power; their utter incapacity to make up their own minds on the plain question whether they would support coercion or not; above all, their conduct in respect of Lord Spencer, has deprived them of all moral weight. Lord Randolph Churchill, moreover, is the only Tory statesman whose name is known to the people; and, whatever other feeling that name may inspire, it certainly does not inspire confidence.

Lord Hartington commands public respect. Whether he and his friends can form or guide public opinion, will be known in the course of the next three or four weeks. Neither he nor his associates have yet shown the capacity to lead the English democracy.

Fourthly.—The opinion of the electors is an unknown quantity.

This is really the consideration which ought to govern all speculation as to the probable course of events. Of excitement, either against or in favor of home rule, there has been up to the present moment not a trace; and the most probable, as well as, in my judgment, the most alarming, inference from this popular silence is the existence of widespread popular apathy. The danger of England, to judge from signs which, after all, are very possibly delusive, lies not in the violence but in the political indifference of a democratic electorate. It is possible that the class who predominate in the constituencies do not understand and are not interested by politics.

Fifthly.—The most melancholy, and it may be feared the most indisputable, characteristic of public sentiment is the absolute want of any strong moral enthusiasm either for or against the policy of home rule.

There is certainly some ground for supposing that by far the least popular of Mr. Gladstone's anticipated proposals is the scheme for compensating or buying out Irish landlords. No one can feel more strongly than I do the obvious objections to burdening the English taxpayer with a new load of taxation, but it certainly is not a cheering reflection that the one feature in the policy of home rule which seems to have immediately aroused disapprobation is the attempt to avoid treating one class of Irishmen with gross injustice. Home rule may, it is likely enough, be established, but on one point there must, I regret to say, be no mistake. This last concession to Ireland, if it be made, will be made in the main from no enthusiasm for justice, but from a sentiment of lassitude and despair.

Sixthly.—Till yesterday there certainly prevailed a widespread idea that Mr. Gladstone's proposals were doomed to defeat in the House of Commons. To-day there are some signs that his success in carrying his measures through the Lower House is at any rate not impossible. Mr. Chamberlain apparently seeks for reconciliation with the Prime Minister. Lord Hartington's conduct seems to give signs of hesitation. Mr. Gladstone's oratorical triumph is anticipated and perhaps to a certain extent discounted. But of all this the people of New York will, long before this letter reaches them, know far more than any Englishman can know at the present moment. All that can confidently be asserted is, that England is invited by her chief statesman to enter on a revolutionary policy, and that there is no sign that the invitation has as yet excited among the mass of the people either repugnance or enthusiasm.

A. V. Dicey.

TWO DAYS AFTER.

London, April 10, 1886.

Mr. Gladstone has spoken, and your readers are already in possession of his scheme of home rule. With all deference to the descriptive reporters, the speech was not equal, in point of eloquence, to the greatest of its author's previous efforts. His voice used to be more musical, his gestures more easy, his sentences more accurately rounded off. But the abatement of physical force seems to strengthen rather than diminish the personal influence of the veteran party chief. Will that influence be strong enough to secure a majority for the second reading of his bill? The Government whips speaks of a majority of fifty; others, less confident, will be content with twenty. Nobody supposes for a moment that the bill can become law in this Parliament. In the House of Lords there are, perhaps, not ten men, besides the members of the Government, whose votes can be counted on in support of any measure of home rule. Even in the Commons, it must be noted that all calculations based on the reception given to the home-rule scheme are of necessity partial. Land purchase is still to be faced, and when Mr. Gladstone comes to ask leave to add 120 millions sterling to the national debt, his majority may show a tendency to disperse. Many gentlemen seem to hope that they may be allowed to vote for home rule and against land purchase. But the Government cannot permit this without going back on its pledges. If land purchase is dropped, Lord Spencer will go, and his departure might just turn the scale as between the Liberal leaders who are out and those who are in.

Perhaps the most curious feature of the discussion, up to this point, is the unanimity with which the supporters of the scheme declare that it will not do in its present shape. If the bill is read a second time, it will be by the votes of men who have undertaken to cut it all to pieces in committee. Many English Liberals declare that they regard the scheme with general approval, but at the same time they do not wish the Irish members to be removed from Westminster. But if the Irish members are not removed, what becomes of the Government scheme? It is perfectly certain that Ireland cannot furnish 281 elected members for a Dublin Parliament, in addition to 103 members of the Imperial Parliament. Mr. Parnell, again, is in a mood of general approval, but he objects to the constitution of the proposed Parliament; he objects to the financial part of Mr. Gladstone's scheme; he objects to the part which concerns the constabulary. If all these portions of the scheme are to be left out or seriously modified, what will be the final shape in which the bill will be presented for the consideration of the Lords? It is odd, and rather ominous, that Mr. Parnell and Mr. Healy are so ready to agree to their own exclusion from the British Parliament; odd, because in doing so they drop the weapon of obstruction which they have flourished over our heads during the last ten years; ominous, because it looks as if they were disposed to think that this measure of Mr. Gladstone's may open a way for them to walk out of the British Empire altogether. Nobody can suppose that Mr. Parnell will be permanently satisfied with the position which that measure assigns to his country—the position of a colony, paying a heavy tribute to the Empire, but taking no part in the direction of imperial policy. If Ireland is dissatisfied with her position when she gets home rule, there will be only two courses open to her: she may agitate for complete separation and national independence, or she may enter into some kind of federal agreement with England. The latter course was suggested by Mr. Healy in his speech of last night. But if the alternative—separation or federation—ever has to be placed before the Irish people, who will be our guarantee to insure that they will choose federation?

It is impossible to describe or even to indicate the cross-currents of English opinion at the present moment. I note that some Radicals are beginning to grumble over the loss of the Irish vote, because they have been counting on that vote to assist them in pressing forward English measures in which they are interested. Other Radicals, perhaps better informed, refuse to admit the cogency of this argument. They point out that the Irish vote has never been Radical or Tory or anything else that is consistent. It is usually cast in favor of any project of State Socialism; it is therefore a factor in the development of the new Radicalism with which Mr. Chamberlain has hitherto been identified. But the Irish vote is also emphatically a Catholic vote, hostile to religious equality, hostile also to the policy of the Elementary Education Acts. When it is remembered that Mr. John Morley made his first appearance in practical politics as a strenuous opponent of denominational schools, we need not wonder that he is now doing his best to exclude the representatives of Catholic Ireland from the House of Commons. If he succeeds, of course he must resign himself to making the principle which he condemns all-powerful in Ireland itself. The clergy have not lent their aid to the Nationalist movement for nothing, and we may be sure that a native Parliament will show no unwillingness to honor the drafts of Archbishop Croke. The Protestant churches of Ireland look with dismay to the prospect before them, and the Presbyterians have been especially active in endeavoring to rouse a feeling against home rule among their co-religionists in England and Scotland. They have met with a fair measure of encouragement, especially in Scotland. The Presbyterian ministers there have, up to the present time, been among the most ardent admirers and faithful followers of Mr. Gladstone, but it is already becoming evident that some of them are shaken in their allegiance, and if the cry of "Protestantism in danger" were once boldly raised, it is possible that the response may be loud enough to alarm the Liberal leaders. Among the "guarantees" of Mr. Gladstone's scheme will be the clause prohibiting the establishment or endowment of any church in Ireland. The clause may be sufficient to prevent the Roman Catholic clergy from installing themselves in the position left vacant by the Church Act of 1869. It will not prevent them "exalting a mitred front in Courts and Parliaments" or from working the national schools, and possibly the whole public service, on principles of exclusion and denominational preference.

By far the strongest influence in favor of the proposed change in our Constitution is the feeling that a change has become inevitable. In the

first place, there are not a dozen men in the House of Commons who respond to Lord Hartington's suggestion that the question of Irish government ought to be considered apart from the interests of English parties. We cannot bring ourselves to believe that any party will ever rise superior to the temptation of the Irish vote. Lord Hartington himself is perfectly sincere in making his appeal, and he is also capable of acting on it. But then his independence is based on moderation almost amounting to indifference. He is not eager to be in office; he is not ardently devoted to any particular course of policy and legislation; and, therefore, he has not, for the great mass of electors, the same attraction as Mr. Gladstone or Mr. Chamberlain. On the Conservative side, there is certainly no man capable of taking up the Irish question in an impartial spirit. Lord Randolph Churchill is hampered by past indiscretions, and in any case he is not likely to forego any opportunity of "dishing the Whigs" that may come in his way. As for his associates on the front Opposition bench, their attitude throughout this controversy has been one of collapse and bewilderment. If Disraeli—the Disraeli of 1873—were in the House of Commons to-day, there would be a "Conservative reaction" setting in all over the country. At present there are no signs of any such movement, and the Liberals fight their battles out among themselves in untroubled security.

Again, there is much force in the argument that the alternative before us now is between home rule and coercion. If we refuse to concede a Parliament to Ireland, the government of that country will be a most disgusting business for many years to come. We are so tired of Crimes Acts, and Arms Acts, and Peace Preservation Acts, that a strong impulse has come over us to give up the task, and let Irishmen go away and coerce one another. If the Irish Parliament failed to keep order, there would, of course, be a revival of the old sentiment of ascendency—possibly even a demand for the withdrawal of the Great Charter we are now asked to concede. But until it is granted, Englishmen will be disposed to take a hopeful view of matters, and to assume that, for their own sakes, the emancipated Irish will preserve some tolerable measure of discipline among themselves.

There are still a few, but only a few, Liberals who believe that Ireland might be governed without a Peace Preservation Act, on the lines of the existing Constitution. We have tried many experiments with that unhappy country; we have never tried to govern it just as England and Scotland are governed. Within Great Britain, our statesmen are powerful because they are in contact with the people; in Ireland they never address the people directly at all. Mr. Gladstone has been for the last ten years the rival of Mr. Parnell, and Mr. Parnell has beaten him all along the line. If English statesmen wish to prevail against Irish agitators, why do they never attempt to fight the agitators on their own ground with their own weapons? Our political leaders never address a meeting in Ireland, unless, perhaps, a carefully packed meeting of Protestants at Belfast; they take no pains to see that their acts are fairly placed before the people in the press. They give up the field to speakers like Mr. Biggar and papers like *United Ireland*, and then they are surprised to find that they have no influence on Irish opinion! But these, as I said before, are the views of a small minority—they are not the views of "practical politicians." R.

Correspondence.

POLITICS AND FINANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While the interest of this country, as well as Great Britain, is centred upon Mr. Gladstone's great speeches upon home rule and land purchase, there has quietly taken place (sandwiched, as it were, between them) a proceeding which, as an example, is quite as important for the United States. On Thursday evening Sir William Harcourt, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, brought in the annual budget. The expenditure was put at £90,428,599, and the revenue at £89,885,000, leaving a deficit of £543,599. It was proposed to take £800,000 from the fund for reducing the national debt, which would leave a surplus of £257,000. The balance is therefore adjusted within little more than one million upon 450, or about one-quarter of one per cent. Of course, when it comes to committee of supply, the details may be varied, and if Parliament starts a new enterprise, the Chancellor of the Exchequer must find the money. Some items of revenue may also vary from the estimate. But, the House having accepted the budget, the basis of finance is settled for the year.

Let us now turn to Congress. A tolerably correct estimate of revenue is probably to be found in the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, but he cannot estimate expenditure because he has nothing to do with it. The appropriations are made without reference to revenue, unless with a full purpose of getting rid of it, and while it was bad enough when they were in the hands of one committee, now that they are at the mercy of six or more, no human being can say whether the next fiscal year will show a surplus or a deficit, or whether, instead of redemption of debt, the Treasury, with all its enormous revenue, may not be in the market to borrow money.

That which makes the management of the British national finances, what it unquestionably is, the first in the world, is not the great wealth of the nation nor any special conservatism or economy, but the simple fact that the whole business, on both sides of the account, is left to one man, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who manages it as if it were his private purse; Parliament never amending a money bill, but only saying aye or no—in other words, having a veto. But as an offset to this great power, the responsibility is so strict that upon the smallest defeat the Chancellor is bound to resign, as when Mr. Lowe was beaten in a proposal to put a tax on matches.

What the finances of the United States need, more than tariff reform, more than payment of the debt, more than stoppage of silver coinage, more than uniform currency, is—a head. That the Secretary of the Treasury should at least take a part in the public discussion of the subject is so obviously for the public interest that it would have been put in practice long ago, were it not that it is by no means so much for the interest of the private combinations in the lobby, which practically rules both Congress and the finances. G. B.

Boston, April 19, 1886.

PUBLIC OPINION AS EDUCATED BY THE KNIGHTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In pursuing your investigations of the labor question, now so prominently before the country, you might obtain confirmation of the quick change in public opinion where the strikers actually possess the city, by a review of the situation of affairs in Sedalia, Mo., during the month past. From private letters and a stray number of the Sedalia *Democrat* of the 6th instant, it appears that the public sentiment of that town has undergone the change. From sympathy with the strikers the townspeople became so wrought up and dismayed by the overbearing conduct of the striking men in that "be-knighted" place, as to call a citizens' meeting for the purpose of organizing a Law and Order League. When the meeting took place there were present a large number of the strikers, whose noisy demonstrations prevented any business from being transacted, and overawed all save one Captain Stevens (I am not sure of the name's spelling), who arose and made a strong speech in favor of quiet and good order. While the meeting apparently accomplished nothing, yet a week later its results were shown in the city elections. There were already regular nominees of both political parties in the field; but a few days before the election the *Democrat* suggested Captain Stevens as a candidate for Mayor of the city on a "Citizens'" ticket, inviting all good law-loving voters to support him. Meantime the Republican candidate had joined the order of the Knights of Labor, presumably for political effect. Captain Stevens (a Democrat, by the way) was elected by a large majority, receiving something like 700 votes out of a total poll of 1,200, the regular Republican and Democratic candidates dividing the remainder.

And now the people, grown suddenly bold, on knowing their strength, are jubilant, and the Sedalia newspapers are saying things, and printing headlines in large type, about the Knights of Labor that would cause a paper elsewhere to be instantly boycotted.—Yours truly, B.

Pittsburgh, Pa., April 13, 1886.

WHAT THE KNIGHTS WILL ACCOMPLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As an example of the oppression exercised by the Knights of Labor, not only on the employers but the workmen as well, I give the following recent occurrence at Albany:

Mr. Young, a boss mason, had working for him a number of non-union masons. Going to one of the brick-yards to buy materials for a building he had contracted to erect, he was told that this yard, as well as all others in Albany, had received word from the Knights of Labor that if they sold brick to Mr. Young, they would be boycotted; consequently his order would not be filled. Mr. Young found the other dealers in brick under the spell of the same unmanly fears, and could not buy, in a market containing quantities of it, the material he must have to commence a job he was under contract to finish at a specified time not far distant.

After talking the matter over with his men, they all decided that the only thing for them to do was to join the Knights of Labor as the condition on which they could get work and their employer could fill his contract. Application was therefore made to the proper officers, and the names of the masons presented for membership at the first meeting. The response of the union was, that in order to punish these men for their contumacy in not joining the order sooner, they would have to pay $50 each to be admitted; and if this were not done, they could get work neither in Albany nor elsewhere. With help from their friends and Mr. Young, the men scraped together $25 each, which they handed in as a down payment; the Knights chivalrously allowing the remainder to be made up in weekly instalments. This arranged, the prohibition was withdrawn from the weak-kneed brick-dealers, and Mr. Young was granted permission to buy his materials.

It will be curious to see what Mr. Powderly and his brethren in command will do when it becomes necessary for them to come down from the occupation of ordinary strikes, boycotts, and destruction of property, to the humble task of providing wages for their dupes from the industries they are so busily engaged in crippling. This task will be theirs at no distant day, even should the authorities persist in their suicidal course of sympathy with the violators of the law, and permit conspiracies, arson, and murders to be planned and directed with impunity by men known to them. The workmen, of course, do not look ahead, and fancy that the general yielding to their demands that wages shall be raised, hours of labor (even reasonable ones) lessened, and the general control of business put into their hands, including the use of the employers as a means of forcing non-union men into the ranks of the Knights of Labor—that all this, because it is going on with a rush now, is to last always. They judge that their blind obedience to the commands of their executive committees will always continue to obtain the concessions from employers they exact. Demands which were reasonable and just in their early history are becoming more and more arrogant. Each success seems a stepping stone to more extravagant demands, and a feeling is rapidly growing that every employer is the natural enemy of his workmen, and it is a righteous act to get everything out of him that force or intimidation can gain.

Nothing is more certain, however, than that the time will come, and ere long, when people who have money (and they will not be found among the bone and sinew of the Knights of Labor) will withdraw it from business operations which are at the mercy of a lot of ignorant, irresponsible demagogues. Manufacturers, contractors, and master artisans of all kinds will withdraw their capital from active use so soon as they become convinced, that, in remaining employed, it, with the industries it creates, is at the risk of the vagaries and whims of an Irons or Powderly, to say nothing of the numerous underlings of these arch conspirators. This process of withdrawal is already begun. Factories are closing, and preparing to do so as soon as existing contracts are filled and materials on hand converted; new enterprises are abandoned or arrested in their progress; and capital generally is preparing to retire from operations of which its owners are asked to give the control to those whom it employs. When this withdrawal and hoarding shall have gone on a few months more, and the demands for labor will only yield employment to say 75 per cent. of the working members of the Knights of Labor, what will be the condition of the leaders who have brought their fellows to this condition by blindly obeying their commands?

The heads of the Knights of Labor have taken a course which can only result in anarchy or their own downfall. We may—through the imbecility, or worse, of our politicians and rulers—have a taste of the first, or an approach to it, before we are through; but, were all their influence openly thrown in with the agitators, inexorable natural law, and the underlying, though often deeply hidden, common sense of the people will eventually come to the rescue, and relegate the Powderlys and Ironses to their natural obscurity, unless, indeed, they fall victims to those they have so long robbed and humbugged under pretext of friendship. D. S.

Brooklyn, April 17, 1886.

THE CLEANLINESS OF CHINAMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am tempted to a comment upon your editorial of April 1 on the Chinese question. It so happens that I have had to do with quite a number of Chinese laborers on this Pacific Coast, and have come to a fairly intimate knowledge of their habits and worth. The average California Chinaphobist would not admit as truth the testimony of Messrs. Coolidge and Babcock upon the personal cleanliness of the Chinese. And he would have fair show of reason on his side of the argument. The truth is, the Chinaman has but four senses—the fifth, smelling, seems to be practically lacking. We know how flat is his nose. Neither does his eye revolt from nastiness. The fragrance and coloring of a Maréchal Niel rose would be wholly wasted upon any Chinaman I ever saw. Their sense of touch is delicate. Herein lies the key to the Chinaphobist's position as regards the personal habits of the Chinese.

The man who can walk through the "Chinese quarter" of any California city, or even of any mining or railroad camp, and breathe contentedly, hath no nostrils. Yet, so far as their bodies, clothing, and bedding go, the Chinese laborers are infinitely cleaner and sweeter than are the laborers of any other nationality with whom I have had dealings. They do invariably wash their bodies and put on clean clothing after every day's work. But immediately thereafter these same men will step gingerly about from hut to hut on stepping-stones cast into such filth as kitchen slops and sewers produce. Then, again, they use largely of peanut oil in their cooking. The rank odor of this oil, of opium, and of scented tobacco, and of close atmosphere saturating their quarters forms a strange contrast to the clean-looking men. They won't *touch* filth. Neither do they see or smell it.

It is his lack of eye and nostril that leads this frugal, industrious, and satisfactory laborer into such great offending. I have myself so many times and so easily made these Chinamen keep their camps in sanitary trim, that I am satisfied that wherever the "Chinatown" of our California cities becomes a nuisance the fault lies wholly with the municipal authorities. All China believes in and obeys law willingly.—Respectfully, Dana Harmon.

Tucson, Arizona, April 9, 1886.

PROTECTION AGAINST THE POST-OFFICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On page 288, No. 1084, issue of April 8, you accuse Senator Wilson of not knowing what he was doing in introducing the bill to double postage on fourth-class matter. I am inclined to think he did, and that he contemplated a little more revenue in the interest of country merchants. It is well known here that a great quantity of merchandise is bought by "our own inhabitants"—consumers—from dealers in New York, Chicago, St. Louis, and the other commercial centres, to the detriment of the trade of our local merchants. This is not only because our people can buy cheaper, but also because they can, having a greater variety to select from, get more nearly what they want. With the present fourth-class matter mail facilities, four cents will send for and bring, for instance, a considerable variety of dry-goods samples. Some of these will represent prices which cannot be had at home, and the others will be marked enough below home prices to provide for cost of transportation by mail and leave a margin besides. Now an addition of sixteen cents per pound on merchandise would make trading away from home, through the mails, just that much more expensive, and would to that extent "protect" the local merchant. A local paper, in a recent editorial in favor of the Senator's bill, intimated that he had this lamentable state of affairs in view. As Mr. Wilson lives in this vicinity, and does not believe in a "tariff for revenue only," it seems probable that the local paper knew whereof it spoke. W. J. R.

Keokuk, Iowa, April 15, 1886.

THE FOURTH OF MARCH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of March 29 you say, in the editorial on "The Fourth of March," that "the 4th of March . . . is not named in the Constitution." This is an error. The Constitution says that "if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the Fourth of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President." C. W. Lewis.

20 Bowdoin Street, Boston, April 9, 1886.

[It has been said a thousand times that the word "slavery" is not to be found in the Constitution. What would be thought of a person replying to that remark, "That is an error; the word slavery is to be found in the Constitution; the Constitution says, 'Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall exist within the United States'"?

The Constitution is an instrument which was framed in the year 1787, by a convention whereof George Washington was the President, and whereby the present Federal Government was established. The words which our correspondent quotes are not in the Constitution, but in the twelfth of the "Articles *in addition to* and amendment of the Constitution." This twelfth of the articles in addition was not adopted till the year 1804, seventeen years after the Constitution was framed, sixteen years after the "first Wednesday in March" was casually chosen by the Continental Congress, four years after the death of Washington, three years after three Presidents had been inaugurated on the 4th of March. Let us hope that our correspondent will now exert himself in writing and circulating a vigorous petition to Congress asking that for this most inconvenient and trouble-making day there be substituted the 30th of April as the day which shall terminate the second session of Congress, and upon which the inauguration of the President shall take place.—Ed. Nation.]

BIRD SLAUGHTER AND FEMALE ADORNMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The "Appeal to the Women of the Country in Behalf of the Birds," which appeared in *Science* for February 26, has already attracted so much attention that it may seem unnecessary to allude to it again. But it is an appeal which will need to be made often in order to produce any practical effect. Any one who has discussed the subject with women must realize the necessity of repetition. The greatest amount is needed before they will appreciate that it is a matter for which they are directly responsible, and therefore which it is in their power to encourage or condemn. Even then there is a long and weary distance between this appreciation and the determination to act upon it.

The indifference with which intelligent women treat the subject is almost incredible. In the face of all the recent advance in knowledge and culture made and claimed by women, this indifference seems a practical sarcasm. For, I take it, a custom of destroying life in order to ornament one's person comes under the head of bar-

barisms, and certainly the continued gratification of vanity at the expense of public welfare is not consistent with a rational mind.

Still, there is the saving remnant, though in this case the remnant is so small that it may be doubted whether it will survive the "spring openings," notwithstanding the consolation offered in the way of cockades and pompons. And even should it survive, the women who compose it cannot but feel that any action on their part will be ineffectual. Always the question is asked, "What good will it do if I refuse to wear birds? I am only one against thousands." For this reason I suggest that a society be formed, such as the Plumage Section of the Selborne Society of London, for the Protection of Bird Life. The women then who do realize the necessity for such protection, and desire to take their part in it, will not feel that their action is fragmentary and unimportant. It is necessary to concentrate into one public movement the action of all those opposed to the custom of wearing dead birds, in order to produce any effective response to the appeal made in *Science*. Why should not the women of New York, as well as those of London, prove themselves independent of caprice, and capable of acting for public good and humane principles? L. C. R.

WASHINGTON, April 8, 1886.

THE FRENCH SPOLIATION CLAIMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I find in my *Nation* this evening a note from "C. M. M.," correcting a misstatement in my notice of the French Spoliation Claims. I can say nothing in explanation of it except that I really do not see how it happened. Such errors creep in, one can hardly say how. Two things which are easily distinguishable while one is examining them near at hand, sometimes seem to coalesce to the sight as one gets further from them, until, in some unguarded moment, the memory plays one a trick. In such cases, I can only thank quick-sighted readers, like your correspondent, for calling my attention to them. Few men are more indebted to others for kindnesses of the sort than I have been. I have never neglected to acknowledge them by letter when sent directly, and am glad to seize this excuse for repeating the acknowledgment in public.

ALEXANDER JOHNSTON.

PRINCETON, N. J., April 15, 1886.

AMIEL ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I feel compelled to graft my own criticism upon the otherwise judicious censure of a "Lover of Trustworthy Work," as found in the *Nation* of April 15. "Préau" may have meant "a small meadow" some centuries ago, but, as Littré states, is entirely obsolete in that sense, and is generally understood as the closed courtyard of a prison, a convent, or a school. In fact, Amiel thereby means one of those narrow yards, secluded from and against the outer world (and from the sunshine, too) by high, towering walls, such as may still be found occasionally in what remains of the Geneva of the sixteenth century, with some scanty grass, and, maybe, a rachitic tree or two—as you see, a most Calvinistic, even an ascetic, conception. In such greenish pits, the fellow-citizens (not to say the subjects) of the man with the goat's beard and tight skull-cap used to replenish their parsimonious lungs.

Let me state, also, as to what was said in the number of April 1, that I think the allusion made to F. Brunetière's criticism (in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*) somewhat rash. The unquestioned rank of that eminent writer places him far above such pettish feeling as seems to be ascribed to him in the *Nation's* article. The fact is that Amiel's idiosyncrasy—which may be defined as a kind of hypertrophy of the analytical powers, a morbid tendency which fatally leads to pessimism, as M. Paul Bourget so masterly demonstrates in his 'Essais de Psychologie contemporaine' (Paris: Lemerre, 1885)—this essentially modern form of moral neurosis is the very thing fit to irritate, yea, to exasperate, the nerves of a clear-headed, healthy representative (as M. Brunetière is) of that mainly Latin tradition that life *in itself* is worth living, independently of its transcendental possibilities. M. Brunetière belongs, body and soul, to the classical school; Amiel, willingly or not, was a "décadent." This is the true, the only explanation of M. Brunetière's severity; and I must say, as having myself had frequent and personal intercourse with H. F. Amiel, that the French critic's moral dissection of the "Protestant Buddhist" borders, in places, upon divination. Practically, M. Brunetière is entirely in the right, though he may outrun himself somewhat. No wonder! Amiel's perpetual wail would set on edge the teeth of any living creature who knows, as I do, and as M. Brunetière points out, that life had been a bountiful mother to that man, whose undeniable but only glory has been to follow and to foster, day by day, the progress of his own irremediable impotency. His posthumous success may be summed up in a few words; and any one who has read Paul Bourget's 'Essais' will support this conclusion: Amiel personified, even intensified, a moral disease, the cruel symptoms of which are branded in the very flesh of our generation.

A. DU FOUR.

CHARLOTTE, N. C.

THE NEW YORK ALUMNI OF YALE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The New York Alumni of Yale—sometimes spoken of as "The Delmonico Crowd," although their meetings have been held for two years at the University Club; and sometimes called "Young Yale," though the man who first fought under the designation graduated twenty-six years ago—have lately been made responsible by certain "conservative" writers for some things which they probably deprecate as much as anybody.

No one has authorized me to speak for them; but, being one of them, I may have as much right to represent them as any one of their critics has to misrepresent them. The principal general misrepresentations, though not restricted to the letter of your recent correspondent "M.," who wrote on "the test of numbers for colleges," are all contained in it. The first misrepresentation is, that the New York alumni "wish to take the management of internal affairs out of the hands of the Faculty, and put it back into the hands of the Trustees." This your correspondent illustrates by two special misrepresentations contained in the assertion that "already a trustee of the New York party has attempted to instruct the mathematical professors about the functions and arrangement of an astronomical observatory." Now, so far as the scientific "functions and arrangement" of the observatory are concerned, this statement conveys a distorted impression, and it conveys another in the implication that the business recommendation regarding the observatory to which the distorting statement refers, was solely the work of "a trustee of the New York party." It was the recommendation of three trustees, if I remember correctly, certainly of as many as two, one of them a Connecticut man.

I feel safe in saying that, whatever may be the aberrations of individuals, the vast majority of the New York alumni wish to take nothing "out of the hands of the Faculty." Their quarrel is not with the Faculty, but with the Corporation. What they do wish is, first, a change in the Corporation which will make it likely to elect a president of proved administrative capacity, they believing such a president to be Yale's greatest present need. Second, they want a corporation under which it will be possible to carry out the idea of unifying the University. This idea is well elaborated in Prof. Dwight's "Thoughts on the Future of Yale College" (I quote the title from memory). There is now great waste of power and duplication of work from lack of unification, but no president can carry out unification if he is saddled with a Corporation regarded with mistrust, as the present Corporation is, by the most vigorous and progressive department of the University—which department, fortunately, is independent of the present Corporation and intends to remain so. Third, they wish a corporation of men of affairs, who will, presumably, increase the general interest of men of affairs in the College, to its pecuniary benefit, and who will manage its pecuniary affairs and its status before the public as the pecuniary affairs and public status of any great corporation should, in these days of competition, be managed. A university, or even a church, has its business side; and it would be a fatuous man, indeed, who should deny that even the success of a church now depends largely upon good management of its business—so largely that men with business gifts are sought just as eagerly as men with spiritual gifts, for its corporation.

So far as it has been thought out, the belief is very general among the New York alumni of Yale that a college should be governed by two bodies, or rather by one body of two sections, each supreme in its own field, but helping the other to the common end—a Faculty supreme in educational matters, and a Corporation supreme in business matters. They think that for such a body of men as the Yale Faculty to depend for guidance and support in its business interests upon a Corporation of clergymen, is absurd; and some of them think that if the mere statement of that situation fails to carry conviction to any one, argument will be equally powerless.

They think, too, that a business corporation, free from "the theological bias," would recognize that the management of any machinery as vast as the educational machinery of Yale College has now grown to be, demands a kind and degree of ability absolutely inconsistent with the other kind and degree of ability which goes to the making of an eminent clergyman, and that the election of an eminent clergyman to the presidency is, on its face, an absurdity. The conditions of civilization making it an absurdity have been growing with geometrical rapidity with the advent of modern science and modern social conditions. Laudations of the administrations of Dwight and Day and Woolsey do not touch the case. Woolsey's administration covered the beginning of the new order of things. Under him, despite his tremendous character, the College barely held its place. There is not necessarily any discredit to President Porter, whose administration has been *in* the new order of things, in the demonstrated fact that under him the College has been losing its place. Those who want him succeeded by another man eminent in the talents and virtues of the clerical profession, simply invite faster relative loss.

If, against these positions, be cited the fact that Princeton, with an eminent clergyman at its head, has been forging ahead in the race with Yale, it is a sufficient answer, though there are others, that the business affairs of Princeton have been managed in New York. Whatever the

facts may be on paper, there is no question what they have been in practice.

If, in answer to this, it be claimed that New York has not made a success of such share as it has had in the management of Yale, the answers are, first, a question of the correctness of the claim; second, that New York has not had a fair chance; and third, that its share—the share of all the alumni—in the Corporation is so limited that, despite some little scrimmages regarding it, many of the most capable of the alumni have felt absolutely indifferent to it. It is rather to get this share enlarged and to use it for the support of the Faculty, than to interfere with the Faculty, that their best attention is directed. That on the question of elective studies, the Faculty have lately needed support against the power set over them by the Corporation, such as the alumni wish to give them, and have had to force their position for themselves, and that on some other questions they have been beaten, are facts which had better not be blinked in these discussions.

There are those who say that a Corporation not dominated by the survivals of New England Puritanism would probably act or fail to act in about the same way that the present Corporation does. In support of this they draw a *non-sequitur* from a statement lately made by a lay member of the Corporation, at a Commencement dinner, to the effect that there had never been any difference between the clerical and lay members of the Corporation on any question brought up for discussion. The *non-sequitur* is that on no question that ought to be brought up are they apt to disagree; while a true *sequitur* is that, in the present state of education, if a clerical party and a lay party do not disagree, it is because living questions are neglected. The statement of the lay member of the Yale Corporation was not needed to prove that in that body they are.

Probably if any set of men on this planet are in the habit of looking facts square in the face, it is the active men of New York. And probably they are in a better condition to know why they send or conclude not to send their sons to any given college than any other men are to know it for them. Whatever opinions are held by that portion of Yale's graduates who happen to be in New York, presumably fit the facts at least as well as the opinions of her graduates elsewhere. But that the opinions of the New York alumni are restricted to themselves, or even that they are not largely shared by the most capable alumni everywhere, is as silly an intimation as the one generally accompanying it, that the methods which brought Yale College to her relative position of thirty years ago have been effective to keep her there, or can keep her even where she is now, in the future. X.

New York, April 13, 1886.

THE NUMBERS TEST FOR COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some of us Western readers of the *Nation* have been highly edified by the "down East" discussion of a question that may be stated about thus: Ought the merits of a high school to be judged largely by the number of its students? When we read that some of the friends of Yale profess to see it declining because it does not keep pace in numbers with Harvard, we recognize the fact that the intellectual atmosphere of New England is impregnated with a something that is very familiar to us. One can find hundreds of people out this way, and they are pretty well informed people, too, who take the same view of our Western colleges. They never ask any question about them except, "How many students have they?" Yet it must be said, to the credit of some of the denizens of such half-civilized municipalities as Chicago, Cincinnati, or St. Louis, that they view this question in a different light, to say nothing of the wild tribes living further inland who do not believe that the efficiency of a troop of an educational establishment depends upon the numbers that compose it.

We find President Gilman's recent words very applicable to our case; and it now seems that they do not refer exclusively to us. He says: "I have heard it said that some men are possessed by a statistical devil. They can only think in figures; they will ask, in respect to a new acquaintance, how much he is worth; of a library, how many volumes; . . . of a college, how many students. I have known the expenses of an institution made a dividend, and the number of scholars the divisor, the quotient representing the cost of each pupil. . . . It is not the number but the quality of students which determines the character of a high school. It is important to count; it is better to weigh."

It is not too much to say that the comparatively large number of eminent men who are alumni of some of our small Western colleges is due in great measure to the determined maintenance of a high standard at the expense of popularity. They have acted on the principle that it is better to produce one Plato than a score or even a hundred like Alkibiades. Perhaps their conservatism has been a trifle excessive, but who will dare say, in the light of events, that if they have erred, it has not been in the direction of least danger? A college president in this State holds that the ideal number of students to a teacher is four, and that when a class contains a larger number his influence can no longer be maintained at its highest point of effectiveness. Among our Western colleges and "universities" those are, generally speaking, the most populous which give the time-honored degrees for almost any studies and in almost any quantity the student may choose. Those who speak and write, or strive in other ways, against these things, may be overborne by the present tide against them, but their zeal is kept alive by the confident hope that time will vindicate the wisdom of their efforts. The number is becoming gradually larger in America who admit that here, as little as in Germany, it is to a young man's detriment to have earned his degree "an einer kleinen Universität."

S.

Ohio, April 16, 1886.

Notes.

A bibliography of Maine is in process of completion by a member of the Maine Historical Society, Mr. Joseph Williamson, of Belfast. The titles already exceed 3,000.

Cupples, Upham & Co. will soon publish 'Fellow Travellers,' a New England story, by Mr. Edward Fuller, of the Boston *Daily Advertiser*; and 'Thoughts,' by Ivan Panin.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish during the present month a translation of Octave Feuillet's 'La Morte,' under the title, 'Aliette.'

The translation of Flaubert's 'Salammbô' just issued by Saxon & Co. is "Englished" (as he puts it) by M. French Sheldon, authorized by the heirs of M. Flaubert, and introduced by a dozen readable pages from the pen of Mr. Edward King. It is painful to find ourselves more fastidious than a man's heirs in behalf of his posthumous fame, but *we* could not willingly have authorized this translation. It is no worse than almost every other similar work of the present day; but it is no better. Example: "Il [Hamilcar] ajouta: 'Sois mon fils et défends ton père!' Narr' Havas eut un grand geste de surprise, puis se jeta sur ses mains, qu'il couvrit de baisers"—"Narr' Havas made a gesture of great surprise, afterwards, *throwing himself before Salammbô*, covered *her* hands with kisses." Mistakes similar to this, and also additions and omissions, abound throughout. M. French Sheldon describes Hamilcar as having a "most erudite and most personal" disdain of death. Flaubert conceived this disdain as "plus savant et plus intime" (more assured and more profound). It would not be amiss if his translator had a "plus savant et plus intime," as well as a "most erudite and most personal," knowledge of language before undertaking to cope with the exquisite subtleties of Flaubert's admirably perfected and marvellous style.

George Meredith's 'The Adventures of Harry Richmond' is the latest volume in the series of uniform reprints of this author's works which Roberts Bros. control for this country.

A new (the fourth) edition of Judge Nathaniel Holmes's 'Authorship of Shakspere' has just been brought out by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. in two volumes. The lapse of more than a decade has failed to shake the author's belief in Bacon's title to the plays; and to his Appendix he now adds a Supplement of 120 pages, for which Mrs. Henry Pott, by the publication of her 'Promus,' is chiefly responsible. He also furnishes a general index, so that in all respects the work is better of its kind than it was before.

The same firm send us the new edition of their 'Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe.' We notice a slight extension of the Addenda, and conclude that other changes have not been material.

Dodd, Mead & Co. send out two more pretty volumes of "Tales from Many Sources," viz., v. and vi. They include Mrs. Ewing's 'Lob Lie-by-the-Fire,' Mrs. Forrester's 'Virginia,' A. Mary F. Robinson's 'Goneril,' Mary Frances Peard's 'Number 7639'; 'Gracie,' by Lady Lindsay of Balcarres, E. C. Grenville Murray's 'Fleur de Lys,' E. C. Pointer's 'Emilia,' Hugh Conway's 'My First Client,' and 'How Quedglington was Sent Down,' by J. Stanley, besides four anonymous tales from *Temple Bar* and one from *Belgravia*.

One can but protest against the abuse of terms when the author of the 'Chronicles of the Schönberg-Cotta Family' styles her "studies from the lives of Livingstone, Gordon, and Patteson" 'Three *Martyrs* of the Nineteenth Century' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). None of these men can be properly designated a martyr, unless in the sense of one who spared not himself in the service to which he was devoted—as Livingstone might be called a martyr to science. Mrs. Charles calls Bishop Patteson's death at the hands of the outraged Melanesians "to them a sacrifice of expiation, to us a willing sacrifice of love"; but the fact that he was slain in retaliation for kidnapping done by others, has no more to do with martyrdom than would his upsetting in the surf at the time he was actually shot. As for Chinese Gordon, we leave Mrs. Charles to discuss his life and death and degree of Christian sanctity with Count Tolstoi.

The new volume, 'On Compromise,' in the uniform edition of John Morley's works (Macmillan), comes to American readers with a natural sound in its very title. Such of us as glance at the introduction will perceive what use Mr. Morley makes of the American example in national character, and particularly in national achievement, when we closed the disgraceful age of compromise with the civil war. These essays are now more than ten years old, but have still a practical value for every-day life.

The increasing host of genealogical investigators is indebted to Mr. Daniel S. Durrie for a third

edition, revised and enlarged, of his 'Alphabetical Index to American Genealogies and Pedigrees Contained in State, County, Town Histories. Printed Genealogies, and Kindred Works' (Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons). Mr. Durrie estimates that he now furnishes 20,000 references. This work, Mr. W. H. Whitmore's 'American Genealogist,' and Savage's 'Genealogical Dictionary' are the necessary outfit of any pedigree hunter.

The first series of 'Hans Andersen's Fairy Tales,' edited for school and home use by Miss J. H. Stickney, has been issued by Ginn & Co. The text has been minutely derived from several extant English versions, and the tales have been graded for progressive reading. The illustrations are the first made sixty years ago.

One of the most interesting and useful of the later practical books for daily living is a group of six lectures on 'School Hygiene,' delivered under the auspices of the Massachusetts Emergency and Hygiene Association to teachers and normal pupils (Boston: Ginn & Co.). There should be no geographical limit to such teaching, no class lines for those taught. It should be as attractive and it is as valuable in Illinois and Tennessee as in New England; and all persons who have reached years of discretion, whether formal teachers or not, will be the better off for what is here laid down in untechnical phrase about ventilation, drainage, the care of the eyes and of the nervous system, and similar topics. It brings the millennium nearer to thus preach the gospel of health to the poor—poor in the knowledge of life.

'The Science of Dress,' by Ada S. Ballin (London: Sampson Low & Co.), primarily written for English women and English ways, is wholesome truth for all civilized people. Happily for them, the uncivilized are rarely trammelled by dress. Miss Ballin writes wisely of the hygiene of infancy, and in the matter of women's dress advocates not revolution, but literal reform. Physiologically and æsthetically her suggestions for clothing, from babyhood to age, are rational and attractive; and sceptics as to possible improvements in female costume without sacrificing the charm of outline, will be agreeably disappointed. There is nothing bold, nothing offensive, and much that is healthful and comfortable, in her designs for the under and outer garments; and this we say advisedly, with the concurrence of a competent jury of experience and taste.

Dr. Coan's 'Ounces of Prevention' belongs to Harper's Handy Series, and is a reprinted conglomerate of odds and ends of sound sense and good physiology. The only exception we are disposed to make is to its estimate of beer as "an ideal drink." Beer is fattening, it is true, and in the essay on leanness it is commended for "the fair thin reader" desiring plumpness. But we will have none of it: our Venus is not born of the foam of the beer cask.

Mr. J. Pickering Putnam's 'Principles of House Drainage' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.) is an intelligent exposition of its subject; but the special praise that it bestows upon various agencies to that end, all bearing the same trade-name, opens the question of interest.

Dr. A. Riant, who had before written a number of practical works on hygiene, has just published a book which will be of interest to all whose duties make it necessary for them to exert the voice, 'Hygiène de l'orateur' (Paris: Baillière; Boston: Schoenhof). The author gives the broadest sense to the word orator, so that his suggestions will be found useful to the lawyer, the lecturer, the preacher, and the teacher. He treats, always from a medical point of view, of the voice, breathing, intonation, attitude, and gesture. He gives excellent advice as to what it is best for the speaker to do before, after, and while speaking, so as to insure the least amount of physical exhaustion. The book is written in a simple, straightforward style, and throughout the writer shows the skill of a specialist who has had personal experience in public speaking.

General Klapka, after Görgey the most eminent Magyar commander in the Hungarian war of 1848–9—we say Magyar in order not to place him above his Polish fellow-commander in the same struggle, General Bem—has added a large volume of 'Recollections' ('Emlékeimböl,' Buda-Pesth, 1886) to his long ago published writings on his military career ('Memoiren,' 1850, which also appeared in an English translation, and 'Der Nationalkrieg in Ungarn und Siebenbürgen,' 2 vols., 1851). The new work, however, covers a wider ground, containing also reminiscences of his earlier life, and devoting half of its space to six years of exile spent in Germany, England, France, Switzerland, and Turkey (1849–55). This exile, which began on the morrow of the capitulation of Comorn—Klapka's sally from which in August, 1849, ranks among the most famous exploits in Hungarian history—terminated with the restoration of the constitutional freedom of Hungary in 1867, when the returned soldier was elected a member of the National Diet. A continuation of the interesting narrative is promised with some reserve, and its translation from Magyar into German is anticipated.

Under the title 'Tagebuch über Martin Luther geführt von Dr. Conrad Cordatus,' Dr. H. Wrampelmeyer has edited for the first time a manuscript containing the earliest and fullest collection of the table talks of Luther. Cordatus, the collector, was a prominent figure in the Reformation, and enjoyed the most friendly relations with the great reformer. The notes were taken by him from Luther's lips, and as far as possible Luther's own words are reported in the 'Tagebuch.' The period covered by the journal is from 1524 to 1537, the larger part apparently relating to the years 1531 to 1533. From Cordatus's testimony it appears that others were engaged at the same time in taking notes of Luther's talks, but he says, "Nunc nemo nos imitatur." The work of only one of the persons thus alluded to by Cordatus, that by Dietrich Veit, is known, and it still remains inedited. Antonius Lauterbach took up the task in 1538, but did not go beyond that year. The extant Latin and German collections, although probably based upon Cordatus, Lauterbach, and Veit, show wide diversions from the original. There are many interpolations and revisions which affect the integrity of the text. In the 'Tagebuch' of Cordatus we have the most authentic and faithful record of Luther's familiar conversations, and a means for an intimate knowledge of the reformer not hitherto accessible in print.

The fifth volume of the 'Sammlung Englischer Denkmäler' has lately been published. It consists of the text of the English version of 'Flor and Blancheflor,' edited by Emil Hausknecht, with a preliminary study of the literary history of the tale, its origin and dissemination through the countries of Europe, and the numerous forms in which it is found in different literatures. The English poem was first produced by Hartshorn in his 'Ancient Metrical Tales,' from the Auchinleck MS.: a revised edition of this text was edited in 1857 by Laing for the Abbotsford Club. The Early English Text Society issued in 1866, under the editorship of J. Rawson Lumsby, two other versions of the poem taken from imperfect manuscripts. In none of these publications does the poem appear in any completeness. The present editor has been able to reproduce a much more complete text from a manuscript in the possession of the Marquis of Sutherland, which was inaccessible to previous editors.

Of the books published during 1885 in Iceland's little capital, the most notable, in more than one respect, is Mr. Eiríkur Magnússon's edition of Shakspere's "Tempest." It is in two daintily printed volumes, the first containing the editor's excellent Icelandic metrical version of the play, under the title of "Stormurinn," to which is prefixed a well-engraved facsimile of Droeshout's portrait and a life of the dramatist. The second volume comprises the English text from the Cambridge edition, followed by very complete historical, critical, and philological notes in Icelandic. Mr. Magnússon has been connected for many years with the University Library, Cambridge, and his annotations, as might be expected, are based upon the newest results of Shaksperian study. Outside, perhaps, of German, we know of no foreign language which possesses either so good an edition or so good a rendering of one of Shakspere's productions. Icelandic translations of "Hamlet," "Macbeth," and "Othello," by Mr. Matthías Jochumsson, and of "King Lear," by Mr. Steingrímur Thorsteinsson, have previously appeared.

We hope the term "Polandism," which in the last few days has repeatedly occurred in the foreign despatches to the daily newspapers, will speedily be dropped and buried in oblivion. It was perhaps an intended correction of the equally incorrect but on its face less absurd Pol*a*nism, which more than once preceded it in the telegrams referring to Bismarck's utterances on the nationality strife between Poles and Germans, and which, in its turn, was an accidental telegraphic corruption of the legitimate word Polonism (Ger. *der Polonismus*, from the mediæval Latin *Polonus*, Pole or Polish), which that statesman now so frequently uses. Pol*a*nism is as incorrect as would be Teut*a*nism, and Polandism as barbarous a formation as would be Spainism or Belgiumism.

— The third volume of the 'Archives of Maryland,' edited and published with such scrupulous care by the Maryland Historical Society, has been for some time on our table. It consists of the Proceedings of the Council from 1636 to 1667, preceded by the charter and other documents illustrative of the first settlement of the colony, derived from foreign sources. This Council was partly what we now understand by the term in its relations to the Governor, and also had legislative functions as an Upper House, both in concurrence with the Assembly and independently; finally, it was the Provincial Court. In the present volume only its executive and administrative acts have been gathered together, and these naturally have more attraction for the historical student than for the antiquarian. There are great numbers of orders, commissions, and oaths, conditions of plantation, forms of submission, denizations, etc. The troubles of this period were not from the negroes but from the Indians, particularly those of the Eastern Shore, whose shooting of cattle and hogs, and not seldom of white men, kept the Council and the military well occupied. The "seuerall vagabonds & Idle persons knowne by the name of Quakers" likewise in their way disturbed the peace, not only by presumptuously standing covered, but by refusing to subscribe the engagement, "alleadging they were to be governed by Gods lawe and the light within them & not by mans lawe"; moreover, "diswading the People from Complying with the Military discipline in this time of Danger [1659] as also from giving testimony or being Jurors in causes depending between party & party or bearing any office in the Province." Nothing could be done with them except (after wearying of the cost of their detention in prison) to banish them, and on their return to whip them out again "from Constable to Constable." Some attention had to be paid, too, to Capt.

Thomas Cornwallis, "a great Agent and factor for the setlinge of a Popish faction in Mary-Land" (1646). But no single person caused anything like the annoyance of the rebellious Capt. William Claiborne, concerning whom there are documents in plenty, and a curious inventory of effects seized "within Palmer's Island," including "1 hominie sifter," "a worme," "a combe-brush," etc.

—There are other social glimpses. The question of Mr. Thomas Gerrard's exact condition on a certain occasion in 1656 was met by Mr. Henry Coursey's oath "that the said Gerrard had drunke somthing extraordinary, but was not so much in drinke but he could gett out of a Carts way, & further saith not." John Dandy, for crimes committed, was, among other penalties, adjudged to be "publique Executioner within this Prouince." but by good behavior was in 1647 released from this unpleasant duty. Tae Commissioners appointed on the erection of Somerset Co. in 1668 were charged, *inter alia*, to inquire "of all manner of fellonies, Whitchcrafts inchantments Sorceryes Magick Arts," etc.; and quite the most picturesque and pathetic scene discernible in these musty records is that of the searching of Mary Lee, "a witch," on the *Charity*, during the voyage from London to Maryland in 1654 (as "the Ship grew daily more Leaky almost to desperation"); the finding of "Some Signall or Marke of a witch upon her" by two seamen who had "apprehended her without order"; its confirmation by "Mr. Chipsham and this Deponent"; the poor creature's being made fast by them "to the Capstall betwixt decks, And in the Morning the Signall was Shrunk into her body for the Most part"; finally, the "laying all their hands in generall to the Execution of her" by hanging—all, save the captain, who shut himself up in his cabin. Lighter matter for the curious is found in the declaration of the agents of the New Netherlands in 1659: "And here is to be noted that they deeply mistake themselues who interprett the Generall name of Manhattans aforesaid, vnto the particular Towne built vpon a little Jland because as it is said it signified the wholl Countrey & province, or at least that particular place in that province as per Example, like it is frequent still to this Day amongst some to Say to goe or Come from the Manhattans when they meane the whole province like vnto Virginia or Maryland for that particular Towne it selfe is never named the Manhattans, but New Amsterdam." Finally, we remark the extraordinary number of spellings in which the name of the Susquehanna tribe was recorded; the most elaborate, perhaps, being Sasquisahanoughes.

—The London correspondent of the *Tribune*, writing in regard to the late Henry Stevens, is puzzled by his title "Citizen of Noviomagus." "After some reflection," he speaks of the strange name as applied both to certain geographical localities and to a club of antiquaries to which Stevens belonged. The members of that club can hardly be called antiquaries, as will be seen by an account of that association derived from Stevens himself. Sixty years ago a few hail fellows well met in London naturally gravitated together. They wished to meet socially and convivially, and yet could not afford, or desired to shun, the heavy charges prevalent in other clubs. For this end they decided to have no club-room, but to meet for a monthly dinner at some inexpensive hotel. They observed that geographers were quite agreed in identifying all old Roman stations about London save one—namely, Noviomagus. This place, set down in the Antonine Itinerary as ten miles out from London, but in an undetermined direction, had been, and was still, a bone of antiquarian contention. Now, though the monthly dinners were gander-parties, the fraternity had resolved on an annual rusticating excursion, enlivened by the presence of their wives and daughters. This outing they decided to call a search for the long-lost Noviomagus. Year by year some new suburban retreat has been discovered and enjoyed, but the site of Noviomagus, after three score years, still lies undetected. One of the last dinners at which Mr. Stevens was able to be present, in November, 1884, was eaten at the Freemasons' Tavern. Among the members were A. H. Bullen, head of the British Museum Library, ex-Lord Mayor Holt, the editor of the *Athenæum*, etc. One member gave an account of a tour in Ireland, and a few impromptu speeches were called for, but the leading feature was free-and-easy talk. The oddest characteristic of the association was a Babel-like confusion of tongues. Each member is bound to say just the opposite of what he means, and to offer an insult when he means a compliment. Each one, too, interpreted like *Petruchio*, who, when *Kate* was mute, commended her volubility, and, when she railed, told her she sang as sweetly as a nightingale. Such a knot of humorists was after Stevens's heart, and he was the soul of their good-fellowship.

— The March number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Paris: Boussod, Valadon et Cie.; Boston: Schoenhof) seems at the first glance less brilliant than its predecessors, but upon examination it proves to be not inferior to them. There could not be anything more perfect in simplicity and beauty of arrangement and detail than the "Pêche aux Alouettes" of M. Fernand Calmettes, to which he has added such charming illustrations; nothing more delicately pathetic than "Le Manuscrit d'un Médecin de village" of M. Anatole France; nothing more sparkling and gay than "Le Divan rouge" of M. Francisque Sarcey, a long chapter of personal recollections told in his most delightful manner, and giving promise that more may be expected in the future. M. Adolphe Racot has an interesting seventeenth-century sketch, "Le Duel de Chapelain," of which the principal illustration is a fine full-page reproduction of the "Bretteur" of Meissonier. The expressive portrait, by Toulmouche, of Mme. Rose Caron, the lyric artist, is accompanied by a few pages from the musician, M. Ernest Reyer, the friend of the painter and the impresario of the singer, in which the *Revue* has obtained its usual excellent results from the choice of a peculiarly suitable person who is not a writer by profession. The most beautifully illustrated article in the number is the short one by M. Gerspach, "Note sur les Tapisseries de Baudry," in which the three of this artist's designs which escaped destruction when the Musée of the Gobelins was burned in 1872, are reproduced. On the completion of the first quarterly volume by the publication of this number, the direction of the *Revue* passed from the hands of M. Anatole France into those of M. Frédéric Masson, who contributed to the earlier numbers the interesting articles upon "Le Déisme pendant la Révolution."

—Prof. Alessandro D'Ancona, who has conspicuously maintained that Dante's Beatrice was identical with Beatrice Portinari, has lately been gratified with a letter from Prof. Adolfo Bartoli, who has hitherto doubted the flesh-and-blood reality of the mistress of Alighieri. Bartoli communicates the fact that among the *codici* of the Ashburnham Collection is one which contains a commentary on the 'Divine Comedy,' by Pietro, the son of Dante. The preface expressly declares this authorship and relationship, and the Commentary is evidently by the same hand that composed the Commentary already printed and ascribed to Pietro. The differences in the two texts, however, are such as to imply a complete working over at a date later than that of the printed one (1340)—say from 1343 to 1360. Apart from confirming the authorship of the earlier, which has been disputed, the revised Commentary contains this passage in the second chapter of the "Inferno," upon the first mention of Beatrice:

"Et quomodo hic primo de Beatrice fit mentio, de qua tantus est sermo maxime infra in tertio libro paradisi, premittendum est quod revera quidam domina nomine Beatrix insignis valde moribus et pulcretudine tempore auctoris viguit in civitate florentie, nata de domo quorundam civium florentinorum qui dicuntur portinarii, de qua dantes auctor procus fuit et amator in vita dicte domine, et in ejus laudem multas fecit cantilenas: qua mortua ut euis nomen in famam levaret, in hoc suo poemate sub allegoria et typo theologie eam ut plurimum accipere voluit."

The curious will find Bartoli's creditably magnanimous letter published in the Florence *Nazione* of April 2.

ANOTHER DIARIST.—I.

Remarks and Collections by Thomas Hearne. Edited by C. E. Doble, Master of Worcester College, Oxford: for the Oxford Historical Society. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1885.

THE never-to-be-glutted appetite of our race for gossip (even for gossip without the spice of scandal) makes sure that whoever has or can get diaries, journals, biographies, autobiographies, correspondence, family records—pretty nearly anything about anybody, or of anybody about anything—into his hands, shall instantly sweep the horizon with his two eyes till he sees a publisher of good promise, and shall go to him, and, if need be, from him to another and another, until he can find for his material a way to the world of readers through the press. And beside this general craving for anything whatever that is fresh or seems fresh, there is that wide interest, ever waiting to be satisfied, in large unsettled questions; in historical characters, uncertain or suspected; in sudden turns of affairs never well explained. Then, too, there are those narrower but very many more interests in old neighborhood mysteries and feuds and jealousies and claims. In any case, the writers, or those written about, may have been third or fourth persons, or a little further off, from chief characters, and may have done the deeds, or may have got the credit for them. The writers may have been those who had all chance to know, and often a shrewd wit to understand or guess, what was going on or done around them. Then the number of those who have an antiquarian turn is large and growing, at least in proportion to the rest of us.

To be sure, sometimes, in spite of the general hunger of reading people, conscience or self-interest will come in between, and snatch the expected sheets out of the very press itself, away from the public; but the amount which finds a way through to the world is astonishing. To be sure, too, a great deal of this is but like the very poor and rude pottery, or flimsier than the slight filigree work, or clumsy as the clumsy tools, unearthed, with things of better worth, by tireless Dr. Schliemann's spades, or Prince Torlonia's. The public culls out from these the few things that it cares for, and waits for more. By a general consent, pretty well observed, bad things, out of a dead man's pockets or lockups, sure to hurt his fame and others' hearts; likely to do harm to many and good to none—such things, if they have fallen under honest and pitiful eyes, eyes that are wont to look up themselves for mercy, are thrust speedily back again and buried in a darker depth than that from which they came.

Some of these collections of gossip that, as we may suppose, are coming hereafter, whether

about single men of note or communities, or the society of a certain time, or great warriors, or great transactions, will very likely become, what some have been before, lasting treasuries for many generations following. In which direction to look for the next, one can no more tell than whither to look for the next bubble in shallow standing water. In any direction there may be the eyes and ears busy and the hand taking its chance to write.

In the times of the Stuarts, and the Commonwealth, and the Stuarts again, and William and Mary, an English university, and, of the two universities, especially Oxford, was an object of very close oversight and very frequent interference by the Government of the country. This was because the university exercised an immense direct and indirect influence; it held great privileges, definite and indefinite; handled considerable incomes; and was swayed by men and represented by men, as heads of colleges and halls, who, in troublous times, by the bad habit existing, got and kept their places for political and ecclesiastical partisanship, not for learning, or goodness, or fitness to teach. Here, therefore, men who had every claim that in peaceful times would be strong against all attack, could not at all be sure of holding their own. So an English university, and especially Oxford University, was kept wakeful and astir, with some of its members angry and feeling bitterly aggrieved, with some fearful, and some untiring and ruthless in putting out and putting in, making complaints, following up, pamphlet-writing, and electioneering.

Oxford had been a favorite and trusted and favored place in the time of the unwise and unhappy Charles the First. He had held there negotiations for peace with his revolted subjects; had stayed there more than once and made it his headquarters, and had gathered there so much of the Parliament of the realm as would come to his call. The Commonwealth had harried (figuratively but pretty really) the University and the town. James the Second had cajoled and threatened the authorities and the electors, and done summary injustices, and wreaked sudden vengeances among them, to get rid of the men that he would not have there, and to get in the men that he wanted there. William of Orange had used something pretty much like the same process backwards, from the time that he took James's place. Indeed, the temptation was so strong and the habit had become so settled, that even in the quiet and "good" Queen Anne's time the same way was followed by those who had the power. The connection of the men of the University with churchmen and statesmen and politicians outside, everywhere, was of course very close, and communications were constant. Discussing and expressing of opinion were (and of course, too) incessant. A journal well kept at Oxford by a person of competent ability and opportunities, and not wanting in feeling, during the active supremacy of the Romish religion at court, or the swift revolution that followed, or the reign of the Reformed-Dutch husband of the English wife, or not long before or after, may be expected to furnish to students of history matter worth their reading, if they are great enough or little enough to think it worth their while to glean.

Thomas Hearne, from whose manuscript diaries we have here an opening volume printed, had given such promise in boyhood that a neighbor had taken to himself the cost of the boy's education. He had been entered in 1695 at Edmund Hall, Oxford, of which the eminent Doctor Mill was principal; had proceeded B.A., in 1699, graduating with excellent character and scholarship. He had then put aside much urgency that he should take holy orders, and come over as a missionary to Maryland. The urgency had been weighted (because he was known to be a bookish man) with an offer of "the general supervision of the libraries of that province." He had a strong bent to old books, and old ways, and other things old, and rather took an assistant-keepership, which offered, in the great Bodleian Library. Already he was forecasting an edition of Livy, and other books, and his help was already sought by several learned men in the editing of their own works. So here he planted himself, and here he stayed; a man whose principles, in religion and politics, were not dissembled, but, at the same time, were not flaunted in his neighbors' faces; nor were they flung under other people's feet to trip them up, or to be trampled upon. The editor gives us little account of Hearne, promising his life, by another hand, at the end of the series; but we know that he was an honest "non-juror"—a statement which, to those who understand and remember about the English Revolution of two hundred years ago, sufficiently expresses his faith and practice, as churchman and subject. We cannot think that much is to be told of him.

Here, in the great Oxford library, was a quiet, steadfast man, belonging to a small party, overmastered but not cowed, who was hearing, and seeing, and receiving letters, and who was also writing down. One hundred and eighty years away, our fancy easily figures him (in an allegorical way) a man with a grave face, bearing a light which he shelters or shades with his hand, and over which he peers. The first entry in his diary was in 1705, in the third year of Queen Anne. At that time three were still living of "the seven bishops" who, seventeen years before, with the prayers, and tears, and love, and reverence of all England—people, army, mob—had meekly accepted imprisonment in the Tower and whatever was to follow under threats of relentless vengeance from the stupid bigot and despot who was then doing his best and worst to keep a throne. With all the rest, James had packed judges' benches and jury-boxes, till courts of justice were almost as sure as bludgeons and daggers, and they had maddened him by an effort, more than humble, to save him from dragging down, by reckless breaking of law, his own overhanging fate, and the ruin of their country. And yet, shortly after, when James had run off, with his claim to govern the nation to please himself, and the bulk of the nation was resolved that he should never come back with his claim, five of these bishops, with others of their order, and some hundreds of priests—some of them the choicest of the men who had knelt and bared cheek and back to buffet and scourge, that they might protest against lawless tyranny—refused to take the oaths to a revolutionary government, though better, beyond all comparison. To these non-jurors was clinging a considerable, though not large, body of laymen; among them, of course, our Hearne.

In the space of half a generation, which had now gone by, few had come to this party; some of its members had changed their minds about obedience to the Government after it was well settled, and many had gone forever to a land where there are no revolutions and no questions of governments, in fact or by right. A communion which had been set up separate from the Church of England "as by law established," and identical with it in structure, and doctrine, and worship, was going down, although it had secured a succession of bishops of its own. At the same time, prosecutions and persecutions had gone on, animosities had not yet died out of private life, and, of course, were often bitter; and books, as thick as November meteors, had been gleaming and going out in the air.

The editor and others think that the chief value of these diaries of Hearne will be found in the facts and side-lights which they furnish for the history of the Non-jurors, of whom a good many people in England and some in this country are not yet tired. Certainly there was little coming, or going, or stirring, or doing, or undoing, within reach of his sight or hearing, that he has not noted, so far as it interested or concerned him. Some things, of course, he saw and heard, and meddled not with. Some things, too, outside of his own line, he notes. Thus he mentions a clock referred to in Selden's manuscripts, "the motions of whose wheeles were not to be finished in an C years, no, not in a thousand, nay perpetual; an instrument made by Janollus Turianus Cremonensis and presented to the Emperor Charles the 1st, of which there is made some mention lib. 17, Cardani de subtilitate." From the same manuscripts he gives, in the Latin, a paragraph "De Influentiis Cœlestibus" (quere, electricity? galvanism? magnetism?), in which paragraphs from Selden we find matter enough (pretty nearly) for a claim in advance of these Pan-Electric Telephone people, who, with the Attorney-General of the United States among them, are contesting patent-rights. After saying that it was by help of these (influences), "beyond doubt, that Roger Bacon put speech into the brazen horsehead" (and we have all heard that), the Latin paragraph tells us: "and, as I have heard from certain credible persons, Doctor Godwin, now [1616—1633] Bishop of Hereford, has very excellent skill in that art, and has, many times, made a horse's head talk; they say, too, that he has written a treatise on that subject, as, also, *of the way of sending a message a very long distance in a very short time* (de modo mittendi nuntium per longissimam viam brevissimo tempore). These are all done by influences." If that does not touch Morse's credit, it looks as if, in skilful hands, it might be made to strike the Attorney-General and his associates about as heavily as they can hit Mr. Bell.

SCHERER'S HISTORY OF GERMAN LITERATURE.

Geschichte der deutschen Litteratur. Von Wilhelm Scherer. Dritte Ausgabe. Berlin: Weidmannsche Buchhandlung. 1885.

A History of German Literature. By W. Scherer. Translated from the third German edition by Mrs. F. C. Conybeare. Edited by F. Max Müller. Two volumes. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886.

It is needless to say that there has been no satisfactory history of German literature. Many of the older works were heavy and pedantic in character, with the bibliographical element the leading feature; others, like the ponderous work of Gervinus, have been confined to the poets, while others have been diffuse treatises like that of Kurz, or confined to the writings of a particular period, like the works of Julian Schmidt. Few men in Germany are equally fitted with Professor Scherer to undertake a history of German literature. Joined to a knowledge which is ample, he is master of a style which for clearness and beauty has been seldom employed in the service of the history of literature, at least in Germany. He has purposed to give one clear, collected view of the whole field of German literature, and has sought to emphasize the significance of the great names which have given an impulse to the spiritual life of the nation. His work, therefore, represents periods and influences, and is not a mere catalogue of writers with a description of their works—a museum in which each specimen has its pin and its card, and is of equal importance. Hence the biographical element is not prominent. The au-

thor does not aim to carry his history beyond the death of Goethe (1832). He necessarily outlines the earlier character of Heine's work and suggests its later direction, but beyond the place of his birth we cannot from this history tell where he lived or what was his profession.

The following is a good example of his aptness in catching the most picturesque views, which stimulate the imagination and impress vital facts upon the memory:

"Choral songs played an important part on all the great occasions of private and public life. Choral songs received the wedded bride, and conducted her to her husband. The praises of the dead were celebrated in a solemn funeral chorus. The march into battle and the sacrificial procession were attended with choral song. The departure for battle was itself a kind of sacred procession, when all who took part in it sang the praises of a saving god, Donar (Thunor), the slayer of monsters. Their loud battle-cry, which they called *barditus*, was supposed to be an imitation of thunder, the 'beard speech' of the god. They also sang the deeds of their ancestors, and drew courage from the example of their forefathers. Little is told us about the sacrifice itself, but remnants of heathen worship lingered on for a long time, and with them some poor fragments of songs. Thus, for example, in Mecklenburg, the reapers leave a few ears of corn uncut; these they tie together, besprinkle them, form a circle round them, and, taking off their hats, call on Wodan—

"'Wode, Wode, now fetch thy horse food, now thistle and thorn,
In a year's time corn.'"

The history abounds in rapid and graphic summaries like the following:

"The migration of nations begins with the Goths, with the Goths heroic song, with the Goths Christianization. The Goths are the most advanced nation of the ancient Germans; they are like a gifted man who consumes his powers in too intense aspiration, who dies young in the midst of a brilliant career. Such tragic forms have seldom lived in vain. Their fantastic greatness, their bold resolution, is an example and a precursor: it teaches through mistakes the better way. . . . Indeed, the problems which were allotted to the Goths occupy the Middle Age and modern times; they return again and again in all of German history: empire, popular religious training, toleration of other nationalities and faiths. While heroic song begins with the East Goths, Christianization begins with the West."

In discussing the 'Nibelungenlied,' the author, as is well known, adopts the views of Lachmann. He holds that but few of the songs could have proceeded from one author, and that the poet is undiscoverable. Even if we accept the hypothesis of a single author, we know that he derived his material from popular songs, and a careful estimate of the inequalities and contradictions in his poems shows that his poetic power was not sufficient to harmonize the discrepancies. "Possibly a final revision of the songs did not take place. Instead of speaking of one poet, we can only speak of him who first committed them to writing." In his view, joined to noble passages are barren wastes, and silly, ridiculous, and tedious passages, making the 'Lied' far inferior to the 'Iliad' in sustained power and beauty. Professor Scherer's power is admirably exhibited in the analysis of the plot and action of the middle High German epics. These are full of graceful interpretative passages, the product of wide reading and skilful generalization.

Of all the historians of German literature, the rugged Gervinus remains a mine of wealth, and the influence of his opinions is manifest in some of the coloring of this volume. In the discussion of Kant and the period of the *Aufklärung*, we think that we can discover traces of Julian Schmidt, as in the whole treatment of the philosophy of the time. We do not mean that Prof. Scherer's views are based upon those of any individual for his judgment is singularly independent and characteristic, even when his opinions accord with those of others. The few pages devoted to Luthe give not only a vivid picture of his personality and an admirable condensed estimate of his writings, but measure the circle of his activity and the forces that he evoked and swayed in the Reformation. Lessing's treatment is not quite satisfactory. His 'Education of the Human Race' and his 'Dialogues on Freemasonry' are barely mentioned. The analysis of 'Nathan the Wise' is inadequate, and so, in general, is the whole presentation of Lessing as a dramatist.

There are literary judgments which vary from the accepted verdict. Thus, in speaking of Wilhelm Schlegel's translation of Shakspere, he says: "Schlegel's Shakspere certainly surpassed Voss's Homer. It did not conceal the wide difference between creative and imitative art, but it showed the close kinship between one perfect work and another, and for this reason it may rank directly by the side of the works which Goethe and Schiller produced in the period of their common labors." The pertinence of this last comparison is doubtful, but it is instructive to cite Gervinus's view: "With the exception of Luther's Bible, there is no translated work in any language or literature that can be compared with Voss's Homer; in our literature there is no work that has revealed such a treasure of language and poetry." Again, while Scherer's investigations in the life and works of Goethe have given him eminence among Goethe scholars, and he writes with enthusiasm and a fulness of detail upon his favorite subject, his criticisms are frank and of a quite different order from those of many of the Goethe cult. Thus, he says of 'Wilhelm Meister's Wanderjahre':

"The whole seems rather a collection of materials for a book than a complete work. Much about which the reader would like to be informed remains obscure. Strange and off-hand assumptions are made without the slightest hesitation; a wealth of practical experience and wisdom drawn from nature and history is spread out before us, but the narrative sometimes comes to a standstill, and the chief charm of the book lies in the episodical novelettes."

Of 'Faust' he says: "The whole plan was not carried out. Important scenes which Goethe had had in view are wanting, and unevennesses were not smoothed away. It is when taken as a whole, and seen, so to speak, from a distance, that the poem discloses the same unity as the Homeric epics or the 'Nibelungenlied' or 'Gudrun'." This is not a very strong assertion, as Professor Scherer claims that these epics are by various authors. He proceeds:

"The period of sixty years over which the work was extended, the frequent interruptions to which it was subjected, and the variety of moods under which it was written, have prevented 'Faust' from attaining any closer unity than this. In most of the first part we admire the sure, bold hand of the young or mature artist; in the second part, along with marvellously effective scenes, we find weaker portions, in which the hand of the now aged master seems to tremble. . . . There is, however, a good deal of spurious symbolism in the second part, which Goethe should not have allowed himself—I refer to utterances which would be appropriate if they came from Goethe's own lips, but which are little consonant with the characters in whose mouths he puts them, and in which he either remains obscure or offends if his meaning is understood."

We cannot forbear to quote Scherer's estimate of Heine's 'Reisebilder,' which, though apparently unstudied, touches much of the weakness of this poet, so fascinating in spite of his caprice:

"In this book the genuine descriptions of scenery, and above all the North Sea pictures, sometimes reveal a real power of observation and expression, at other times a grotesque mythologizing fancy. In the rest of the book, however, and particularly in the much-admired section on Italy, we have not much more than an imitation of Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey.' There is the same cobweb of individualism spun over external objects, the same political gossip of the emptiest nature, along with a poetic conception of the world almost as meagre as Klopstock's, and reiterated till we are tired of it. The real is tricked out with or supplanted by the unreal; lifeless things are represented as animated, living things imagined as dead, while dreams and reality are indistinguishably mingled; the poet and nature reflect each other; a spirit of melancholy pervades all things, and is revealed particularly in black eyes. These flowers have no fragrance for us; they are, as it were, faded after a night of revelry. The filth alone, of which there is enough in the 'Pictures of Travel,' is as filthy as ever it was. What a contrast have we in this book of Heine's with the calm, pure outlook maintained by Goethe as he journeyed through Italy!"

The chapters upon the Romantic School and Science are worthy of especial mention. The concluding paragraph upon German character and the future intellectual growth of the nation is as truthful as it is discerning:

"Goethe's 'Faust' contains a deep moral lesson for the German nation in particular. It expressed a longing for action in an age which was poor in deeds. Many writers of the time echo this spirit; for example, we find the Baron vom Stein continually deploring the predominance in Germany of metaphysics and speculative science. The Germans, he wrote, owing to their exclusion from public affairs, had lost all power of initiative and had taken to idle broodings. And in fact, since the Reformation, the German character had become more and more introspective, and modern German poetry has but seldom glorified the strong, indomitable will which belongs to men of action. . . . If in 1800 the nation was over-intellectual, it now begins to be overmaterial, and threatens to fall under the sway of those tendencies which beset the German world of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, to the prejudice both of its culture and character.

"A survey of all the successive epochs of German literary history will alone serve to reveal to us the latent capacities of the nation, in the harmonious development of all of which lies its real perfection. This perfection may be attained if the fatal onesidedness which so easily lays hold of the German character, can be overcome; or if men will restrain their natural inclinations by conscious labor, and so carry over into the present and future the spirit of the age which is expiring. Many Germans of to-day need no spurring in order to take to the life of generally useful activity which Faust only embraces after going often astray; everything now seems in favor of these practical men. Meanwhile those who live after Goethe's example, and look on poetry as a sacred and national task, have to struggle against wind and weather and to work doubly hard. Let them, too, find encouragement in the words which the angels sing as they bear aloft the soul of Faust:

"'Wer immer strebend sich bemüht,
Den können wir erlösen.'"

The volumes are accompanied by an appendix, containing notes and authorities, which must be a guide of high value to the student of German literature. In addition to a full and very satisfactory index there is a chronological table of German literary history. We note as omissions in the chronology, under the year 1803, the deaths of Herder, Gleim, and Heinse. Of the English edition it should be said that Prof. Max Müller's name is connected with it in a way likely to mislead as to his responsibility for it. Properly speaking he has none, and one will look in vain for any traces of his "editing." We believe his relations to Mrs. Conybeare and to the Clarendon Press were purely advisory and intermediary.

Remarks on the Administrative Forest Staff of Prussia, and the Training of its Officers. By D. Brandis, late Inspector-General of Indian Forests. Reprinted from the *Indian Forester*.

It is Dr. Brandis who organized and put into good working order the great Indian Forest Service, remaining at its head long enough to satisfy himself of its entire success in immensely increased forest revenues for the state and in the permanence of the Indian forests. The Indian Forest Service is, on the whole, in view of the natural difficulties which had to be overcome in its establishment, the vastness and variety of the

territory to be operated in, and the shortness of the time which has elapsed since the movement for the preservation of the Indian forests began, one of the most successful pieces of scientific administrative work we can recall. Dr. Brandis, who has now left India and the Indian service, describes, for the benefit of his old Indian associates, in the pamphlet the title of which is given above, the Prussian system of training foresters.

Americans, accustomed to dealing with large figures, will be struck with the small extent of the Prussian State forests upon which so much care and attention has been bestowed. These cover but 6,597,000 acres—an area so small that we think nothing of cutting down or burning up nearly three times as much forest every year. These Prussian forests, however, although less profitable than those of France, produce annually an average of 5,374,000 loads of 50 cubic feet of timber and small wood, and net to the Government annually nearly five million dollars, or about one dollar and thirty-five cents per acre every year. When it is remembered that most of the forest lands which belonged to the United States were sold in fee for a dollar an acre, to say nothing of the tens of millions of acres which have been given away without an adequate return, or otherwise squandered, it will perhaps be apparent that scientific forest management is a good business operation for a nation to undertake. And even now, could the forests remaining on the public domain be made to pay an annual income equal to one-half or even one-quarter of that produced by the Prussian forests, the result would be simply astounding.

The subordinate staff of the Prussian State forests chiefly employed in their protection—that is, foresters and forest guards—numbers 3,783 persons, in addition to which there is an administrative staff of 807 persons, consisting of 8 high executive officers, with headquarters at Berlin, 122 forest inspectors, and 677 executive officers in charge of forest districts or ranges. This staff, besides the management of the State forests, has the general control of more than three million acres of other public forests, the property of various towns and villages, schools, hospitals, and different public associations. There are in Prussia, besides these public forests, nearly eleven million acres of private forests, the management of which is entirely free and unrestricted, except in certain exceptional cases where public welfare demands special treatment.

The first step for a candidate wishing to secure a position in the Administrative Forest Staff (in which about twenty-eight vacancies occur every year) is to obtain permission to serve a practical apprenticeship of one year in one of the State forest districts. The papers which the candidate must submit in order to obtain this permission include a medical certificate and the certificate of graduation from a large public school (gymnasium), from which he must have graduated with credit in mathematics. The candidate is expected during his apprenticeship to make himself familiar with his forest district and the details of forest working. He is employed in handling timber, in planting and sowing, and in other cultural details. He assists the executive and protective officers in the forest and in the office; he is taught the use of instruments, and takes part in surveying, levelling, and road-making. He is allowed to hunt and shoot, and so gradually becomes familiar with the woods. If he makes satisfactory progress during his first year, he is given a certificate which permits him to attend during two years more the lectures and practical exercises in one of the German Forest Schools.

There are eight of these schools in Germany. Two are in Prussia, one at Neustadt-Eberswalde, near Berlin, the other at Münden near Göttingen. Candidates for the Prussian service, however, are allowed to prosecute their studies in any of the great German schools. The courses in the Forest Schools embrace general forest economy, sylviculture, the systems of working plans, valuation of forests, forest literature, the art of hunting and shooting, the utilization of forest produce, forest protection, forest administration, the history of forestry, the measurement of timber, the subdivision of forests, road-making, and the peculiarities of forest trees. Frequent excursions, conducted by the officers of the school, are made into the great forests connected with all European Forest Schools. At the completion of the two years in the Forest School, another year must be devoted to hearing lectures on jurisprudence, political economy, and finance. Allowance must also be made for a year of military service, so that altogether five years are spent before a candidate is allowed to present himself for his first examination. This examination, for which a high standard is fixed, includes all branches of forestry, surveying, pure mathematics, statics and mechanics, selected branches of jurisprudence, botany, zoölogy, mineralogy, physics, and chemistry. Plans of a plot of land not less than 200 acres surveyed by the candidate, besides a forest map covering some 1,200 acres made by him, must also be submitted.

This examination being successfully passed, the candidate's next step is to pass two years in practical work in several forest districts. At the end of this period he comes up for his second examination, which is intended to test the fitness of the candidate for the management of forests and for forest administration generally. A man who has successfully passed this second examination is at last eligible for appointment in the State forest service. All the successful candidates do not, however, find State employment. A year ago no less than 147 of these passed candidates or Forest Assessors had failed to obtain permanent Government employment. The fact that young men are willing to work for years with only an uncertain prospect of Government employ at the end, more than anything else shows the esteem in which the German forest service is held, and the value of the education which it affords.

Dr. Brandis concludes this most interesting and instructive paper with a brief account of the organization of the Prussian Forest Administration, a description of the training of administrative forest officers in Bavaria, and a statement of the pay and allowances of German administrative forest officers. The length to which this notice has already extended prevents more than the mention of this fact. We in America are a long way from a system of forest management, either private or public, based upon a solid and comprehensive education like that possessed by the German foresters; and Dr. Brandis's remark that "forest work in India has been more of an administrative than of a professional character" will be equally true in the United States long after we can boast of anything like real forest work, if that time ever comes.

Letters to Dead Authors. By Andrew Lang. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886.

THIS book is one of the luxuries of the literary taste. It is meant for the exquisite palate, and is prepared by one of the "knowing" kind. It is a surprise to find that these little essays were journalistic squibs; but half-a-dozen of the more refined of the entire twenty-two did not suffer the vulgarization of first seeing the light in the *St. James's Gazette*, and these six are as a group the best. Writing in this vein is a rare faculty, and most of the success depends upon the touch, light, deft, and changeable, of the subtly practised hand. It is an astonishing little volume, not so much for the dispersion of the immortals selected for correspondence, in country and age, as for the range of the subjects which are considered to be matters of interest to them. The cleverness lies in the modern turn of the letters, however ancient the address. Of course the chief and obvious topic of the literary celebrities of time past is their own precious selves and the fortune of their books and reputation; this is only human in them, and in this particular class of mortals it is human in a superlative degree. It is easy, therefore, for Mr. Lang to secure their attention—there never was a more honeyed flatterer of the literary *amour propre*—so long as he tells them how large the last editions are, and how much they ought to be thought of, if, in fact, his conscience compels him to suggest that there are still cavillers at them; and the skill and smiling pleasure with which he hastens to bedew their enemies' books with vitriol—such pestilent fellows, for example, as M. Fleury, M. Scherer, and Swinburne—would make any ghost of an author jump with exuberant joy.

But Mr. Lang has to keep an eye open on the peeping Tom of a public on whose curiosity he is really trading, and when the reputation of these dead worthies is of too ancient an odor he must put his brains to work. A curious questioner among the dead might have his suspicions aroused, as sometimes occurs among the living whose letters are "given to the press" before they are mailed, that he was being made a jack of. That expedition of the English into Nile Valley after Gordon was no doubt very entertaining to Sir John Mandeville, and the laugh at the Coquecigrues of the Salvation Army must have amused Rabelais, and so on; but Eusebius of Cæsarea at least must have guessed he was a literary convenience whereby his amiable young epistolary friend was airing his views before a whole academy of mythologists. None, however, has so much to complain of as Chapelain, who might justly consider such irony impertinent even in a private communication, let alone an open epistle; but Mr. Lang ought to be popular with most of the recipients when he steps on the other side. One fancies how the satirical dent in Poe's lip will dimple round the corner as he extends his hand and says, "True, sir; I was a gentleman among *canaille*"; and will take him off under his arm from the quiet group of Irving, Cooper, Hawthorne, Longfellow, and Emerson, and play him a new song on that instrument which he "fashioned from a woman's breast-bone," as Mr. Lang has elsewhere said. But from such company he will have the good sense to escape in the next world; and with Horace and Lucian and Ronsard and Molière, whose praises he sings so well in prose, he may forget the Stygian American.

We commend the book (which might well bear for its legend the idle line, "Where the bee sucks, there suck I") to all who prefer the dainty in literature with a tang of Scotch strength to whet the soon cloyed appetite of a Northern epicurean.

The Early Hanoverians. By Edward E. Morris, Professor of English in the University of Melbourne. [Epochs of Modern History.] With maps and plans. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886.

MR. MORRIS, the original editor of the "Epochs" series, has prepared this volume to fill the gap between his own 'Age of Anne' and Mr. Longman's 'Frederick the Great.' It comprises the reign of George I. and that of George II. down to the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. In his preface, Mr. Morris reminds his readers of the cardinal principle of the series, "to make the

division of history horizontal rather than vertical"—a principle which, it must be confessed, has been forgotten by the authors of some of the volumes. Accordingly, he has produced a good account, not merely of such familiar subjects as the Triple and Quadruple Alliance, the administration of Alberoni, the Pragmatic Sanction, and the War of the Austrian Succession—all of which touch English history closely—but of those more remote events, the Turkish wars and the War of the Polish Succession. The history of Peter the Great, which falls in this period, is omitted, having been fully treated in 'The Age of Anne.'

Mean as was the English nation and government during these years, there are many events of even romantic interest, and the reader will be grateful for the full exposition of Law's scheme, the South Sea Bubble, the Porteous riots, and Anson's famous but little known voyages of discovery. The rebellion of 1745 is the subject of a long and interesting chapter. Mr. Morris is strong in the delineation of character, and the comparison he draws between the two Pretenders (p. 147) is one of the best things in this line. "Probably neither," he says, "was deficient in personal courage, but the father lacked resolution, and had, except with reference to his own claims, a vacillating mind as well as a melancholy disposition; whereas the son showed the dashing bravery of a true Highlander, happier in attack than in defence, and had an elastic gayety of spirit, ever brighter when clouds were darkest. . . . If we seek for an explanation of the difference between them, perhaps we may find it in the Sobieski descent of the younger. It is important to notice this strain in him."

An interesting paragraph (p. 142) describes the conduct of the Irish brigade which decided the day at Fontenoy, and ends with the words of George II., "Cursed be the laws which deprive me of such subjects." But, to our surprise, we find no statement of these laws, and no other allusion to the English rule in Ireland during this period. This seems a strange omission. The Battle of the Boyne was a well-won victory, and established a dynasty in Ireland. This was the fortune of war. But the repressive and intolerant legislation which followed had no justification, and is one of the deepest stains upon English history. It was this that George meant when he cursed the laws that gave his enemies the assistance of the Irish brigade, and it ought, it would seem, to have received some notice in this volume.

The history of literature during the period under review is very full and good—that is, the literature of England and France, for no other nation had a literature that need be considered in a book of this size. The victory of Dettingen gives occasion to mention the Dettingen Te Deum; but music is otherwise neglected, although the age of Bach and Handel deserves for this reason, and this alone, to rank as a great creative epoch in art. Like all the volumes of the series, the present contains a number of excellent maps and plans, nine in number; also three genealogical tables.

Protestants from France, in their English Home. By S. W. Kershaw. With illustrations. London: S. Low. 1885. Pp. xii, 170. 8vo.

In this book Mr. Kershaw gathers together the principal historical data in regard to the various Huguenot congregations in Great Britain, and their connection with the Church of England. His position as librarian at Lambeth Palace has given him peculiar facilities for prosecuting his researches in this direction, and the numerous facts and extracts from the correspondence of the bishops and statesmen of the seventeenth century, in some cases from unpublished manuscripts, show that he has gleaned over a wide field. The earliest French congregations in England were those of Canterbury, gathered about 1548, and of London, in 1550. Three years later the English Prayer-Book was translated into French and printed for their use. From this time their numbers increased until, shortly after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, there were "thirty or more" foreign churches in London alone. Many of these, however, were very short-lived, and now one or two London churches, the French church still worshipping in the crypt of Canterbury Cathedral, and the French Hospital in London, are almost the sole remaining representatives of the Huguenot "strangers." In a valuable chapter on the "Refugee Documents and Archives," Mr. Kershaw indicates briefly the principal collections of historical material relating to his subject, the chief of which are the registers of the London churches preserved in Somerset House and the private collections of Lord Salisbury and the Marquis of Bath. The closing chapter is upon the present state of French Protestantism, and contains references to the important historical works on the Huguenots recently published in Europe and America. Though Mr. Kershaw has shown little literary skill in the arrangement of his materials, his book will prove a valuable guide to the student of this subject. He is in error, however, when he says of Meric Casaubon "that, while hiding in a cavern from his persecutors, he learned from his father his first Greek lessons." This was true of the latter, the far more famous Isaac Casaubon, who, when a lad of thirteen, was obliged by the massacre of St. Bartholomew to take refuge in the hills of Dauphiny with his father, a Huguenot pastor. Nor did James I. make Isaac a "Prebend of Westminster," but of Canterbury. Mr. Pattison says: "A stall at Westminster was named. This promise was not fulfilled."

Grammaire Latine. A l'usage des classes supérieures et des candidats à la licence ès lettres et aux agrégations. Par Salomon Reinach. Paris: Delagrave. 1886.

M. Reinach's 'Grammaire Latine,' like the 'Manuel de Philologie Classique' with which the stripling scholar astonished the world a few years since, is a bold attempt to meet at once the needs of the beginner and the demands of the advanced student. Aware of the serious disadvantage of shifting text-books, he has comprised in one volume the elementary outline and the abstruse problem, and the same guide teaches us to inflect *rosa* and to observe the concord of adjective and substantive that brings us face to face with the grave questions of agglutination and of sentence accent.

For the beginner there is a condensed view of accidence and syntax, in which the lead of Lhomond has been followed rather than that of Burnouf. Which of the two is in itself the better approach to Latin for Frenchmen, Frenchmen must decide; and it seems they have decided for Lhomond. Of this part of the grammar, then, there is little to be said, except that M. Reinach has departed from the French rule of appending translations to the illustrative examples, and has appealed to German authority for this innovation. German authority is not wholly on his side, and the departure does not seem to be a wise one. The examples ought to be selected as far as possible with reference to charm of style as well as to value of contents, and the translations ought to be made with the greatest care, so as to give the student models for his own renderings; and if M. Reinach's practical experience as a teacher were at all proportioned to his marvellous powers of search and appropriation, he would have modified this feature of his book. Nor will he, we hope, take it amiss when we suggest that if the mnemonic verses of Zumpt are as valuable as he thinks, it would have been better to translate them into French, and not to leave them in their native German to serve as an exercise in both languages. At least, no American grammarian would have dared to make the transfer so easy to himself. But while even the elementary portions of the book are enriched by notes that give evidence of the use of the best authorities, the chief value of the grammar for this side of the water will be found to lie in those sections that are intended for the advanced scholar. Here the student will find a bibliography that has absorbed Hübner's admirable work and complemented it by ransacking catalogues and transactions and journals. The book teems with the latest results, is alive with the latest speculations, and the special student of Latin grammar will find himself stimulated to research in every direction. To those who are in quest of subjects for theses, for dissertations, M. Reinach's grammar will be a godsend.

One interesting feature in this book is the emphatic assertion of the rights of French scholars, who have been doing excellent work in classical philology of late years, and, as American scholars are mostly, either at first-hand or at second-hand, of German training, and hence, being more German than the Germans themselves, are apt to look askance at French work, it is well that they should be made aware of what they may be losing. One of the foremost representatives of classical philology in France said a few years since to the writer of this notice, "We are officers without an army"; but they are officers worthy to lead the armies of any land. Large portions of M. Reinach's book are taken, always, of course, with due acknowledgment, from German authorities; but his debt to Thurot's lectures, to Weil's classical treatise on the order of words, to Bréal's linguistic researches, to Riemann, and to Havet is made especially conspicuous.

A work that bristles with so many details as a Latin grammar, and such a Latin grammar as M. Reinach's, can only be criticised duly in an educational or philological journal, and even there the ragged regiment of sins that can be paraded by any fairly equipped censor is apt to become wearisome. Here we must be content to give thanks for the unwearied industry, the keen scent, the quick vision to which we owe the collection of so much valuable material, so many luminous facts, so many pregnant hints. Of course M. Reinach will expect to irritate as many veterans as he will stimulate candidates. He despatches many favorite theories with a magisterial wave of the hand, and those whose hearts are set on a reform of spelling will be annoyed at his long-tailed j's and his *poco-curante* attitude toward this vital subject. To be sure, there are eminent sinners, such as Cobet, who still dares to write 'adolescens' and 'negligo' and 'quum,' but the too seductive Cobet, like Plato's heterodox poet, must be sent out of the country with every demonstration of affection and respect. It is dangerous to be lax about anything, and we have in mind a distinguished scholar who began his downward career by abolishing Greek accents as meaningless symbols, then became criminally indifferent as to his breathings, and was finally lost in a slough of bad etymology.

M. Reinach would have been untrue to the nation whose philology he represents if he had not enlivened his subject with epigrammatic *mots* of his own as well as of others; and in the closing chapter, "On the Decadence of the Latin Language," the only section in which he has an opportunity for a long sweep, he develops a rare charm of style. Still, as a necessary offset to all the good that has been said and intimated above, it must be added, in all candor, that M. Reinach's work, valuable as it is, does not produce on a

grammarian the effect of the work of a grammarian so much as that of a philologian who accepts grammar as a necessary part of his profession; and one misses the fresh breath that comes from his archæological writings. In spite of sharp self-assertion here and there, he is dominated by his material rather than dominates it, and his work lacks occasionally consistency of view and firmness of touch. It would, for example, be impossible for a grammarian in grain to tell us, on page 183, that in the notorious passage (Cic. ad Att. II. 1, 12), *Paetus omnes libros, quos pater suus reliquisset, mihi donavit,* the change to *reliquerat* would have required a change of *suus* to *ejus,* and yet, on page 215, to retain *suus* with the indicative form.

The English Catholic Nonjurors of 1715: being a Summary of the Register of their Estates, with Genealogical and other Notes, and an Appendix of unpublished documents in the Public Record Office. Edited by the late Very Rev. Edgar E. Estcourt and John Orlebar Payne. London: Burns & Oates; New York: Catholic Publication Society.

THESE lists were prepared in accordance with an Act (1 Geo. 1 cap. 55) obliging Papists to register their names and real estates—a measure intended, no doubt, as a menace to the friends of the Pretender. That it was complied with by so many is evidence of a much greater number who evaded the law, and, as a measure of precaution, it cannot be deemed harsh for that period. It is indeed difficult to understand the object of the present publication, as the genealogical information obtainable is scanty and of no especial value. But there seems to be a fashion in England to glorify the Catholic families of the last century, for no particular reason, just as the current here is running in favor of the Huguenots, as we pointed out in our review of Dr. Baird's history.

A Study of Dante. By Susan E. Blow. With an introduction by William T. Harris, LL.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1886. 8vo, xi and 102 pp.

THERE grows in the campagna of Rome a plant of the Jack-in-the-pulpit family which attains such perfection of development that its odor, to an unaccustomed nostril, becomes extraordinarily offensive, and a new-comer can only obtain specimens of the flower by sudden rushes at it, followed by immediate retreat from the infected neighborhood—always in danger of being overcome by the sick drowsiness it causes. Do not let us speak of an estimable author or authoress as a Jack-in-the-pulpit; do not let us refer to the sick drowsiness caused by the perfection of their development: let us only exhibit specimens of the flower obtained by sudden rushes at it, followed by immediate retreat. We gather from Dr. Harris the belief that Dante—like the other three "world poets," Homer, Shakspere, and Goethe—"used his vehicles of expression to reveal to all individual men their substantial manhood as embodied in the institutions of civilization." We believe we quote correctly, but the fatal drowsiness is upon us; and could that sentence read that "he never used his expressive vehicles to convey to men collectively the institutions of civilization as embodied in their substantial manhood"? Another rush, before we succumb—this time to the authoress. "It is evident"—to her, but, alas! at this moment nothing seems evident to us, except our own haste to get away—"it is evident that we may grasp the universe as an including totality, and yet apprehend very faintly its nature and end." In the present wild whirling of our brains, this sentence, the whole book, is to us as the universe. We grasp it as an including totality, we apprehend very faintly its nature and end.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Alma-Tadema, Laurence. Love's Martyr. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Angell on Highways. 3d ed. With Notes by G. F. Choate. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Archer, T. By Fire and Sword: A Story of the Huguenots. Cassell & Co. $1.
Arthur, J. C., Barnes, C. R., and Coulter, J. M. Handbook of Plant Dissection. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Bainbridge-Hoff, Commander W. The Avoidance of Collisions at Sea. D. Van Nostrand.
Baluffe, Auguste. Molière inconnu: Sa vie. Boston: Schoenhof.
Barr, Amelia E. A Daughter of Fife. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Bassett, J. Persia: The Land of the Imams. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Bayly, Captain G. Sea-Life Sixty Years Ago. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
Blair, L. H. Unwise Laws: A Consideration of the Operations of a Protective Tariff upon Industry, Commerce, and Society. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Blind, Mathilde. Madame Roland. (Famous Women Series.) Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.
Brooks, H. M. The Olden Times Series. Vol. II. The Days of the Spinning Wheel in New England. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Church, Rev. A. J. With the King at Oxford: A Tale of the Great Rebellion. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
Clandy, F. Goethe's Faust. First Part. Translated in the Original Metres. Washington: W. H. Morrison.
Claretie, Jules. La Vie à Paris. 1885. F. W. Christern.
Cooke, G. W. Poets and Problems. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Curry, Lily. A Bohemian Tragedy. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.
Davis, Rebecca H. Natasqua. Cassell & Co. 25 cents.
Dunn, J. P. jr. Massacres of the Mountains: A History of the Indian Wars of the Far West. Harper & Brothers.
Durrie, D. S. An Alphabetical Index to American Genealogies and Pedigrees. 3d ed. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons.
Falloux, Comte de. Études et Souvenirs. Boston: Schoenhof.
Fauriel, M. The Last Days of the Consulate. Edited by M. L. Lalanne. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50; also Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Flaubert, G. Salammbô. Englished by M. F. Sheldon. Saxon & Co. $1.50.
Furness, H. H. A New Variorum Edition of Shakespeare. Vol. VI. Othello. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $4.
Giffen, R. Essays in Finance. Second Series. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50.
Goethe's Faust. Translated by John Anster, LL.D., with an introduction by Rev. H. R. Haweis. George Routledge & Sons. 10 cents.
Gomme, G. L. *The Gentleman's Magazine* Library. Archæology. Part I. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Griffiths, A. Fast and Loose: A Novel. New ed. Rand, McNally & Co. 35 cents.
Halsted, G. B. The Elements of Geometry. John Wiley & Sons.
Hapgood, Isabel F. The Epic Songs of Russia. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Hittell, T. H. History of California. Vol. II. San Francisco: Pacific Press Publishing House.
Hudson, J. F. The Railways and the Republic. Harper & Brothers.
Hunt, Louise L. Memoir of Mrs. Edward Livingston. Harper & Brothers.
In Memory of Winfield Scott Hancock. Letters and Addresses Contributed at a General Meeting of the Military Service Institution, held at Governor's Island February 25, 1886. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Jackson, Helen H. Hetty's Strange History. New ed. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Jackson, Helen H. Mercy Philbrick's Choice. New ed. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Janes, L. J. A Study of Primitive Christianity. Boston: Index Association. $1.50.
Jaques, W. H. Torpedoes for National Defense. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Johnson, Virginia W. Tulip Place: A Story of New York. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Kelley, J. D. J. A Desperate Chance. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Kurtz, C. M. National Academy Notes and Complete Catalogue. 1886. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Lee, F. G. King Edward the Sixth, Supreme Head: An Historical Sketch. Catholic Publication Society.
Leighton, R. F. First Steps in Latin. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.22.
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Ludlow, J. M. The Captain of the Janizaries. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
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Matthews, B., and Hutton L. Actors and Actresses of Great Britain and the United States. Vol. I. Garrick and his Contemporaries. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Mayo, Isabella F. The Mystery of Allan Grale: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
McCarty, L. P. Annual Statistician. 1886. F. E. Grant.
Meredith, George. Evan Harrington: A Novel. New ed. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.
Morley, J. On Compromise. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Murray, J. D. C. Aunt Rachel: A Rustic Sentimental Comedy. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Noel, M. Buz: or, The Life and Adventures of a Honey Bee. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
O'Connor, T. P. The Parnell Movement: with a Sketch of Irish Parties from 1843. Benziger Bros.
Ohnet, Georges. Les Dames de Croix-Mort. F. W. Christern.
Porter, Noah. Kant's Ethics: A Critical Exposition. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.25.
Rae, G. The Country Banker: His Clients, Cares, and Work. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Report of the Eighth Annual Meeting of the American Bar Association. Philadelphia: Dando Printing Co.
Ribot, Th. German Psychology of To-Day. The Empirical School. Translated by J. M. Baldwin, with Preface by James McCosh. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Robinson, A. Mary F. An Italian Garden: A Book of Songs. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Sala, G. A. The Strange Adventures of Capt. Dangerous. Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Schilling, N. H. The Present Condition of Electric Lighting. Report made at Munich, September 26, 1885. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. 50 cents.
Schuyler, Eugene. American Diplomacy and the Furtherance of Commerce. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Smith, Mrs. J. G. Atla: A Story of the Lost Island. Harper & Brothers.
Smyth, J. P. How We Got Our Bible: An Answer to Questions Suggested by the New Revision. John Wiley & Sons. 60 cents.
Stoddard, W. O. Two Arrows: A Story of Red and White. Harper & Brothers.
Szold, B. The Book of Job, with a New Commentary. Baltimore: H. F. Siemers.
Todd, C. B. Life and Letters of Joel Barlow, LL.D., Poet, Statesman, Philosopher. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.
Trail, Florence. My Journal in Foreign Lands. 2d ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Van Dyke, J. S. Theism and Evolution, with an Introduction by Rev. A. A. Hodge. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 29, 1886.

The Week.

THE investigation of the "labor troubles" in the Southwest by the House Committee, which has just opened, promises to prove a curious sort of a performance. Nothing practical can come of the hearings (which the Chairman of the Committee says are likely to continue for two months), except in one way, and that is distinctly mischievous. The followers of Martin Irons hailed the proposition for a Congressional investigation as likely in some way to help them to a "victory" over the railroads, and the Knights of Labor took fresh courage for their hopeless fight as soon as they heard about it. The course which the inquiry is taking seems likely to strengthen this unfounded impression that Congress can help them out. Take, for instance, these passages from the examination of Powderly:

"Mr. Burnes, a member of the Committee—I would suggest, further, that it may be well to consider what, in your judgment, can be constitutionally done, and what might be done and ought to be done by amendments to the Constitution.

"Mr. Powderly—I shall do so, and I thank you for the suggestion.

"Mr. Buchanan, another member of the Committee—You promised to furnish the Committee with some views as to the legislative remedy for troubles of the kind now existing. Will you also, in considering that question, take into view the complex nature of this Government, and the divided responsibility between Federal and State legislation, so as to make your suggestions such as the national legislature can duly act upon?

"Mr. Powderly—I will do so."

As a bit of opéra bouffe in public affairs, this suggestion that Mr. Powderly shall institute changes in the Constitution under which this nation has existed for a century, is diverting enough, certainly. But when one reflects that this proposed Constitution-maker is a man who has been inciting to riot as truly as Martin Irons, if in more guarded terms, and that such an invitation to such a man from a member of a Congressional committee must strengthen the impression of ignorant strikers that this inciter of riot is a personage fit to be trusted with changes in the fundamental law of the United States, and even capable of making them, the matter loses its humorous aspect, and appears in its true light as a very serious encouragement by Congress of wrong notions in the conception of American liberty.

The address of Mr. P. M. Arthur at the meeting of the Locomotive Brotherhood is the mature judgment, not of a single individual, but of a great labor organization, which has been through the riot period of its existence and come out wiser and better men. The locomotive engineers have learned that the laws of the land and of all civilized lands are based upon the sum of human experience, which tells us that every attempt to curtail men's rights to earn their bread how and as they please (not infringing upon the equal rights of others) is an act of base and short-lived tyranny. This is the true gospel of labor as proclaimed by Mr. Arthur, but it is perhaps too much to hope that the society of which Mr. Powderly is the head will ever learn it except by their own experience and their own suffering. The tendency of modern industry, of the sober and humane and orderly kind which Mr. Arthur advocates, is everywhere giving to labor a larger and to capital a smaller share of the joint product of capital and labor. This is denied by philosophers of the Henry George school and by some of our college professors, who choose to ignore the number of laborers at different periods of the world's history, and take only the rate of wages per capita into their calculations. The truth is, that the rate of wages per capita is increasing as well as the proportion which labor gets as a whole, while the rate of profits is steadily diminishing in all countries, and nowhere is this course of events more marked and decided than in this country. Boycotts and causeless strikes and eight-hour movements and protective tariffs are the only present obstacles to this wholesome progress and tendency.

The movement to make eight hours a day's labor is just now very active—indeed, there has been talk of concerted action among the Knights of Labor for its enforcement on the first of May. There is an idea among some of the men—very few, we suspect—that as much work would be done in eight hours as in ten. What animates the bulk of the eight-hour advocates is the belief that while less work would be done in eight hours than in ten, the pay would remain the same, and employment would be furnished to large numbers who now have nothing to do. We see no objection in the world to the experiment being tried, if it be tried on the American basis of individual liberty—that is, if individual choice be allowed to determine in every case whether a man shall work eight hours or ten, and the employer be allowed to choose between the eight-hour men and the ten-hour men. To make it work satisfactorily, however, each man ought to be paid by the hour, and then both classes could work in the same factory or shop. But the important question for the public is *how* the experiment is to be tried. If it is to be carried out on the compulsory principle—that is, if the eight-hour men are all to provide themselves, like savages, with stones, bricks, clubs, and knives with which to kill or maim the ten-hour men, and if people who employ ten-hour men are to be boycotted, and their premises infested by hooting, howling mobs, and their machinery damaged, and their butchers and bakers warned off—then the American people will make short work of it somehow.

Mr. Edward Atkinson shows, in the last number of *Bradstreet's*, that in each 1,000 workers in the United States, only 100 are engaged in occupations upon whom an eight-hour law could be enforced, and that consequently the passage of such a law would simply operate to depress the trades upon which it could be enforced, relatively to all other trades. In the first place, agricultural labor, cattle and sheep growing, horticulture and fishing, could not be subjected to an eight-hour law, and if they could be it would ruin them. Blast furnaces, gas works, bakeries, restaurants, and all other employments requiring continuous heat could not be subjected to the eight-hour rule without instant destruction. Paper mills require continuous operation. So also do railroads. Then there are the great multitude of employments that the officers of the law can never reach, or know anything about, the people who work at home, such as seamstresses, washerwomen, carpenters, blacksmiths—in short, everybody who is his own employer. The only trades that could be reached are those in which large numbers of workers are collected together for the purpose of attending machinery, such as cotton and woollen mills, rolling mills, boot and shoe factories, and the like. These number not more than one in ten of the people of the United States who work with their hands. As to these Mr. Atkinson says, with his usual penetration:

"If the advocates of an eight-hour law should get it passed, the first efforts of the same men who had promoted it would be to find out how to work overtime to the best advantage in order to gain a better subsistence. The logical result of all such acts by which the free conduct of adults is restricted in certain specific cases is to limit the full use and benefit of labor-saving machinery, and thus to lengthen the necessary hours of work of the great mass of the people."

It is said that a majority of the Committee who have been investigating the telephone scandal will report in favor of exonerating all the Government officials from any improper connection with the Pan-Electric Telephone Company. It is also stated that the Republican members of the Committee will find that the Attorney-General was entirely honest in his relations to the matter, but allowed himself to be used by persons who were seeking to obtain the right to use the name of the Government for their own purposes. If the Republican members do find like this, they will be putting the worst construction possible upon the matter. There has been nothing in the testimony taken by the Committee to justify the assertion that the Attorney-General allowed himself to be "used." He refused to have anything to do with the proposal for a suit against the Bell people, and he has sworn that the consent to bring that suit which was subsequently granted, first by the Solicitor-General, and afterward by Secretary Lamar, was given without his knowledge, advice, or approval. If he had not been a holder of Pan-Electric stock, there would never have been any ground for impeaching his conduct in the case, and if he had rid himself of that at the outset, there would never have been any scandal.

A more unblushing argument in favor of the log-rolling system of legislation, as exemplified in the river and harbor steal, was never made than has just been submitted to the House by the Judiciary Committee in its adverse report upon the proposition for a constitutional amendment, giving the President power to veto separate items in an appropriation bill while

approving the remainder. The theory upon which the river and harbor steal is based is, that A will vote for B's appropriation on condition that B will vote for A's, and so on through the list. The theory of the Constitution, on the other hand, is, that Congress will consider every appropriation upon its merits; give A what he asks if he ought to have it without regard to B, or refuse what both A and B ask if neither ought to have it. Indeed, the theory of the Constitution would present every question of appropriation upon its merits, and it is only for the sake of convenience that the aggregation of a number in a single bill can be justified. To give the President the power of vetoing a separate item in a bill, without defeating all the others, simply restores the system of law-making to a constitutional basis, since, if time permitted, every item would be submitted to him in a separate bill. To talk about any danger of aggrandizing the Executive in such a restoration of the theory of the Constitution—and of common sense—is absurd in itself, and becomes ridiculous when one reflects that a similar power was conferred years ago upon the Governors of States like New York and Pennsylvania, which have a larger population than the whole Union had when Washington was inaugurated, and has been exercised by Governors of both parties in those States greatly to the public advantage. The river and harbor jobbers may be able to delay the application of the same system to the Federal Government, but it is a reform which is bound to come sooner or later.

There are a number of rich nobodies in the State of Vermont whose aspirations toward the Senate of the United States have been frustrated and brought to naught these many years by Senator Edmunds, who is somebody. Not that Senator Edmunds has ever taken any pains or made any exertions to get himself elected instead of them. On the contrary, he is almost the only member of either party now in the Senate who preserves the tradition that scheming and "electioneering" for that high office are unbecoming, and it may be set down as certain that he will not now or ever lift his finger or say a word to secure a single vote as against any other candidate in his party. The opposition to Mr. Edmunds is based solely on the ground that he did not actively support Blaine in the last campaign. He had entertained and expressed, privately but frequently, before the Convention met, opinions concerning Mr. Blaine's public record absolutely disabling any self-respecting Senator from afterwards publicly advocating his election to the Presidency. He voted the Republican electoral ticket in his State, which he might do with propriety as deeming the success of the Democratic party the greater of two evils; but when asked to go on the stump and tell a lot of lies he flatly refused. This refusal has greatly encouraged the rich nobodies in their endeavors to supplant him in the Senate, and they are "working it for all it is worth." One of their queer charges is that the Edmunds resolution calling for the papers regarding removals from office is a sign of purely spasmodic activity, intended to divert public attention from his "treachery" in 1884. An impartial observer, or careful student, like the man from the moon, would say that anything calculated to divert attention from the campaign of 1884 ought to be welcomed by the Republican party without distinction of color or previous condition of servitude, and that Senator Edmunds's diversion of public attention from Republican blunders to Democratic ones was the greatest possible party service.

Mr. Edward Cary is perhaps inspired by something else than the pleasures of memory to write an article in the current number of the *Forum*, under the interrogative title, "Would We Do It Again?" The question is whether the Independents would support Cleveland as against Blaine for President of the United States, with our present experience, if a new election were to take place now. Mr. Cary answers it for nobody but himself, but gives with his customary clearness and frankness the reasons why he would do so. These are, that the tone of governing circles has been improved since Mr. Cleveland came into office, and this notwithstanding the fact that the tone of the Republican party rank and file is normally higher than that of the Democratic party. What sort of change would have followed if Mr. Blaine had been the successor of President Arthur, can only be inferred from what we know of Mr. Blaine's career as Speaker of the House, from his personal eagerness to make money, from the wild South American adventures that he set on foot during his brief term as Secretary of State, and from his systematic fanning of the flame of Irish hostility to England. The policy of President Cleveland has been the reverse of everything that made Blaine a dangerous candidate. He has had no meddlesome foreign policy to exploit. He has cultivated peace with all the world. He has honestly sought to reform abuses in administration, and if he has not succeeded in all respects, or to the extent that might be desired, he has set a good example, and has driven a stake for civil-service reform that cannot be pulled up. The Treasury Department has made "a splendid record" under Mr. Manning, and a revolution has been effected, so silent that it has hardly been noticed, in "the disappearance of the Southern question as a controlling issue in national politics." For these reasons Mr. Cary thinks that "we would do it again," and would do it with even more relish and spirit than before. The unexpressed thought in the article is that we may have to do it again. The "Blaine crowd" are determined to "run" their man in 1888.

The introduction by a Republican Senator of a bill to repeal that section of the Revised Statutes which debars ex-Confederates from holding commissions in the Federal army, may be regarded as the burial of the bloody shirt. Mr. Riddleberger's proposition is sure to receive the support of his fellow-Republican from Virginia, Mahone; and two other Republicans, Cameron of Pennsylvania and Jones of Nevada, voted for a similar measure a fortnight ago. These four Republican votes, with those of the Democrats, insure its passage through the upper branch of Congress, and the lower branch will of course concur. Riddleberger and Mahone have done the country small service, but if they succeed in thus disposing of the bloody shirt, their career in the Senate will not have been altogether profitless.

The Blair bill may now be considered dead. The measure which passed the Senate about two months ago has since lain on the shelf in the Education Committee of the House, which considered the scheme so vicious that it felt justified in thus smothering it in committee. The Labor Committee, which Representative Willis a month ago picked out as certain to make a favorable report without delay upon a bill identical with the original measure, no sooner began to investigate the matter than it also decided the project to be utterly unjustifiable, and on Monday, after four weeks' consideration, only three out of thirteen members were found to favor its passage. In order to get rid of the subject, a majority voted to report back a substitute which proposes to devote the income from the sale of public lands to school purposes during the next ten years, but neither the Committee nor anybody else expects to see this scheme pass the House, to say nothing of the Senate and the President. Now that the scheme is dead, it only remains to bury it, and representative men in the South are lending a hand. A letter from the venerable John B. Minor, the distinguished Professor of Law in the University of Virginia, says:

> "I take much interest in the Blair bill, *very earnestly desiring its defeat:* first, because I think it a very dangerous infraction of the Constitution; and second, because communities, like individuals, are always enfeebled by having done for them what they can, and ought to, do for themselves. I can only bestow upon this scheme my heartiest malediction, and indulge the anxious hope that it will never again present itself in either house of Congress."

The resignation by Mr. H. T. Sperry, editor of the Hartford (Conn.) *Evening Post*, of the office of Insurance Commissioner in his State has been brought about by the pressure of public opinion, in view of his use of his official position to secure advertisements from insurance companies for a publication in which he is interested. Mr. Sperry's course as a civil servant of the State is interesting because his newspaper has long and constantly sneered at all the attempts that have been made to reform the civil service of the country. In his view, competitive examinations are a snare and a delusion, whose only effect is to embarrass political managers, and victories at the polls mean opportunities to get official salaries. It is well to call Mr. Sperry's attention to the fact that one thing which a reformed civil service is expected to secure is the impossibility of giving offices to men like him, who have already been found wanting in such positions, and whose only claim to them is their political services. Under President Arthur this Mr. Sperry was appointed Inspector of Stamped Envelopes for the Hartford district, at a salary of $2,500. He naturally looked on the position as a sinecure, and the result some months later was a report to the Post-office Department that Mr. Sperry "had either failed to comprehend his instructions and the object of

his appointment, or had wilfully disregarded them." Mr. Sperry will do well to withdraw from office-seeking for a time, and devote himself to instructing his readers on the subject of government reform.

Some light is thrown upon the wool tariff in the report of the Massachusetts Labor Bureau for the present year. This report contains a valuable chapter on "Profit Sharing," embracing a brief narrative of each experiment made in the United States on any considerable scale to enable workingmen to participate in the profits of manufacturing industry. One of the most methodical of these experiments is that of the Peace Dale Manufacturing Company of Rhode Island. The Peace Dale Company is one of the oldest in New England, the works having been begun in the year 1804, and having been continuously in operation since that time, under the direction of the Hazard family. The longevity of the company is itself ample proof of the skill and business capacity of the management. Very few manufacturing houses in this country can trace their lineage backward through the vicissitudes of eighty-one years. The company employs 450 operatives, two-thirds of them being of foreign birth. In the year 1878 Mr. Rowland G. Hazard decided to offer the employees a share in the profits of the company as an inducement to greater economy and efficiency of service, on certain terms which need not be now set forth. The basis was satisfactory to the employees, but the pecuniary results have been disappointing. Dividends have been made during but four of the eight years that the system has been in operation, the largest sum divided among the employees in any year being $5,999 65. No dividend was declared in 1884 or 1885.

The Peace Dale works are noted for the carefulness of the management, while the system of profit sharing has introduced and enforced very painstaking and economical habits among the employees. Yet, with all these conditions in favor of successful industry, the Peace Dale Company is barely able to keep its looms in motion, and we know from the frequent and extremely cogent essays published from time to time by Mr. Hazard, that the reason why his branch of trade is throttled and manacled, and why his laborers are prevented from gaining any perceptible advantage from the participation in profits voluntarily offered to them, is that a tax is levied upon their raw material (wool) ranging from 65 to 113 per cent. Is it not time for woollen operatives in this country to have something to say about a tariff which yields such disastrous results? A protest against the wool tariff was recently filed with the Committee of Ways and Means by a delegation of workingmen from Philadelphia. The suffering which has been endured by operatives in this branch of industry, resulting entirely from the mediæval tax on wool, is deepening every year. It will not be endured much longer. So far as repealing this particular duty is concerned, the Free-Trade League might close their rooms, draw down their curtains, and turn their work over to the manufacturers and their operatives to carry on the fight.

Every day casts fresh light upon the tyranny which would be established in this country if secret, oath-bound organizations like the Knights of Labor were permitted to have their way. It appears that they have already reached the point where they assume to dictate what newspaper a person shall read, and threaten to ruin his business if he does not comply with their dictation. Mrs. Vonderbrake is a widow who lives in New Haven and has a modest shop—a quiet and peaceable person of excellent character. For a number of years she has taken the *Journal and Courier* as the daily paper which she preferred. The *Journal and Courier* was recently put under a boycott because it would not employ Union printers, the boycotters threatening to destroy the property unless the owners would yield. The way in which they are trying to carry out this threat is shown by the following letter:

"New Haven, April 19, 1886.

"*Mrs. Vonderbrake:*

"Madam: It will be for your interest to stop your subscription to the *Journal and Courier* immediately, as that paper has been boycotted. Your customers will not patronize you while you take that paper.

"From Committee of Your Customers."

We are glad to say that Mrs. Vonderbrake contemptuously refuses to obey this order.

The arrest of thirty boycotters on Tuesday, in accordance with indictments by the Grand Jury, is likely to have a quieting effect upon all that class of law-breakers. There is good reason for believing that other indictments are to follow these, including some for the members of the Empire Protective Association who ordered the recent tie-up. The trial and conviction of a few of these professional meddlers and boycotters would do more to break up the boycotting business than almost anything else. It would show its advocates that this is, after all, a country of law and order—a truth which many of them have not yet been able to grasp. There is a great deal of nonsense talked about the boycott being a foreign importation, while the truth is that in no well-governed foreign country would it be allowed for a single day. It originated in Ireland, and to a certain extent is still practised there, but Ireland is not a country of law and order.

There were five very brutal assaults committed on employees of the Third Avenue Railroad Company. The Union says, of course, that they were committed by wicked outsiders, and it sent out "pickets" to see if they could catch any of the offenders. Singularly enough, they found none. But as a proof of their horror of violence, the strikers offered to police the avenue themselves, but, strange to say, their offer was not accepted. Their state of mind seems on the whole to grow more childish every day. Their last plan for defeating the company is to run a line of opposition stages to Harlem, which seems to please some of them very much. They apparently spend such time as is not passed in "picket" duty in a hall drinking beer, singing songs, and making boastful speeches, and living on the money of other people. This is a very odd phenomenon when one considers that it is all due to the belief of some thousands of poor men that the driving or conducting of a street car is a life office, or what the lawyers call an incorporeal hereditament, which it is not only robbery to take away from a man without his consent, but even to fill with some one else when he refuses to perform the duties, and the wages of which he and some of his friends are entitled to fix. Of course this sounds like very funny doctrine, but consider how much the loose talk of politicians and philanthropists has done to fix it in the ignorant man's mind as a sort of axiom. The sugar laborers who have been rioting over in Brooklyn all think they have a right to be hired by Havemeyer as long as they are able to work, on their own terms, and no wonder, when we consider how much vague rhetoric they hear about the "greed" and "tyranny" of capital—terms which no wise man should ever use now without strictly defining them, in view of the ignorance and passion of the audiences which catch them up.

The Louisville *Courier-Journal* alleges that the *Nation* "abuses roundly the striking laborers of certain railroads of New York, because they not only choose to quit work, but also presume to air their grievances too publicly." It is things of this kind which have often made us doubt whether any man should take up the profession of "journalism" before he was thirty-five years of age, and had his character thoroughly formed, and the habit of truth-telling firmly fixed. The man who wrote the above of course knew he was lying when he wrote it, but he probably writes so many such lies every week that his conscience takes no note of them, and he is just as happy and comfortable as if his occupation were that of a city missionary or a teacher of the blind.

The communication which the Superintendent of Prisons, Mr. Baker, has sent to the Assembly is a very unpleasant document for the temporizing statesmen who make up the majority of the Legislature to contemplate. Mr. Baker tells them that the $800,000 already appropriated for labor in the prisons will not be sufficient to keep the State-account system in operation till the end of the fiscal year, September 30, 1886; that $300,000 more is necessary in the two prisons where this system is in use; that after that date there will be no funds whatever for continuing the work; that in Auburn prison 500 convicts have been idle for months; that after November 30 there will be 130 idle men in Sing Sing, and that after February 28 next this number of idle men in the same prison will be increased to 900 through the expiration of existing contracts. In other words, the taxpayers of the State are now supporting part of the convicts in idleness, after September 30 they will be called upon to support a still larger number, and by the first of March next they will have the whole number thrown upon them—and this because the Legislature, in obedience to the clamor of professional labor agitators, has abolished the contract system of labor, which was not only more than self-supporting, but was beneficial to prison morality and discipline; and has refused, in obedience to the same clamor, to authorize the use of any other system in its place. The Legislature shrinks from voting the heavy appropriation which will be necessary for the support of the convicts, but vote it must.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 21, to TUESDAY, April 27, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND on Thursday sent to Congress a message on the labor troubles, in which he said: "In my opinion the proper theory upon which to proceed is that of voluntary arbitration as the means of settling these difficulties. But I suggest that instead of arbitrators chosen in the heat of conflicting claims, and after each dispute shall arise, there be created a Commission of Labor, consisting of three members, who shall be regular officers of the Government, charged among other duties with the consideration and settlement, when possible, of all controversies between labor and capital. A commission thus organized would have the advantage of being an able body, and its members, as they gained experience, would constantly improve in their ability to deal intelligently and usefully with the questions which might be submitted to them. If arbitrators are chosen for temporary service as each case of dispute arises, experience and familiarity with much that is involved in the question will be lacking, extreme partisanship and bias will be the qualifications sought on either side, and frequent complaints of unfairness and partiality will be inevitable. The imposition upon a Federal court of a duty foreign to the judicial function, as the selection of an arbitrator in such cases, is at least of doubtful propriety. The establishment by Federal authority of such a bureau would be a just and sensible recognition of the value of labor, and of its right to be represented in the departments of the Government. If such a commission were fairly organized, the risk of a loss of popular support and sympathy resulting from a refusal to submit to so peaceful an instrumentality would constrain both parties to such disputes to invoke its interference and abide by its decisions. There would also be good reason to hope that the very existence of such an agency would invite application to it for advice and counsel, frequently resulting in the avoidance of contention and misunderstanding. The commission which I suggest could easily be engrafted upon the labor bureau already organized, by the addition of two more commissioners, and by supplementing the duties now imposed upon it, by such other powers and functions as would permit the Commissioners to act as arbitrators when necessary between labor and capital, under such limitations and upon such occasions as should be deemed proper and useful. Power should also be distinctly conferred upon this bureau to investigate the causes of all disputes as they occur, whether submitted for arbitration or not, so that information may always be at hand to aid legislation on the subject when necesssary and desirable."

The message was on Friday referred by the House of Representatives to the Committee on Labor, with instructions to report upon it on or before May 15. A bill in accordance with its recommendations was introduced in the House on Monday.

The House Committee on Labor, of which Mr. O'Neill is Chairman, held a session on Friday. Representative Reagan, of Texas, made an eloquent address on the Education Bill. He opposed it because it was unconstitutional and inexpedient. Its effect would be to make the States mendicants, to come with craving hands to the Treasury of the United States, and to bow obsequiously before the Secretary of the Interior and the Superintendent of Education for instructions as to how they should manage their common schools. The State of Texas did not want the bill.

The Blair bill may now be considered dead for this session. The measure introduced by Representative Willis a month ago, which is identical with the original measure, was defeated in the Labor Committee on Monday evening, by a vote of 3 to 1. At the adjourned meeting at five o'clock the bill introduced recently by Mr. Crain, of Texas, was amended and adopted as a substitute for the other bill by a vote of 10 to 3. The Crain bill, as amended, provides for the appropriation of the proceeds of the sales of public lands not to exceed $7,500,000 annually for ten years in aid of education in the States. Industrial and manual-labor training schools are to be entitled to a part of the benefits of the donation which the bill practically makes to the States, as the fund is to be applied wholly under the direction of State authority. The distribution of the money among the States is to be made upon the basis of school population. The Committee on Education also held a meeting on Monday, and agreed to report the original Blair bill to the House without recommendation; but before adjournment that vote was reconsidered and the matter went over.

An adverse report was presented by the House Judiciary Committee on Thursday on a joint resolution proposing a constitutional amendment giving the President power to veto specific items in appropriation bills.

The Senate Finance Committee has backed down from the position it took in opposition to the confirmation of Colonel D. W. Bradley, nominated to be Collector of Internal Revenue for the district of South Carolina, and has submitted a favorable report thereon. Colonel Bradley's nomination has been pending before the Committee for several months, and many charges against him were made by his Republican predecessor and the latter's friends. This was one of the noted "test cases," the Secretary of the Treasury having refused to furnish the papers in the case. On Wednesday the Senate, in spite of the strenuous opposition of Mr. Edmunds, confirmed Mr. Bradley. Only fourteen Senators voted nay.

The Senate Committee on Public Lands has unanimously voted to report adversely upon the nomination of R. S. Dement to be Surveyor-General of Utah.

A decision was rendered in Salt Lake City on Wednesday in the noted Territorial office cases, which Governor Murray and the Utah Legislature split upon, the former declaring invalid the Territorial law which puts agents of the Church in the offices of Auditor and Treasurer, and the latter refusing to yield the incumbency, thus ignoring the Governor's nominations and his appeal to the organic act. Judge Zane sustains the Governor in every point, maintaining the supremacy of the national statutes and ousting the old incumbents.

The United States District Court at Key West, Fla., has declared the steamer *City of Mexico* forfeited to the United States, because of the filibustering enterprise on which it sailed.

The greatest excitement prevailed in Fort Pierre, Dakota, on Sunday, over the following order, which was served on all the residents of the village: "In accordance with the instructions of the honorable Commissioner of Indian Affairs, dated April 8,1886, you are directed to at once close your trading establishments on the reservation, and upon date of receipt of this you are allowed thirty days to leave the said reservation." Fort Pierre has a population of over 800 people, who have resided on that tract of land for the past ten years. Substantial business houses and dwellings have been erected, and to enforce this order would entail a loss of over $500,000. The settlers have decided not to move unless at the point of the bayonet.

Mr. Powderly told the Congressional Committee on Wednesday that the Knights of Labor number only 500,000, not several millions. He also said that he had not worked at his trade since March, 1877.

There was a meeting in St. Louis on Wednesday of prominent men who determined to boycott the boycott. This is but another branch of the order known as the Law and Order League, which has sprung into existence lately throughout the Southwest. Its principal objects are to assist the authorities in maintaining the law, and to support all persons who have been boycotted by the Knights of Labor or kindred organizations. If a person threatened with a boycott shows the white feather, the Law and Order League will have no dealings with him, but it will do all in its power to assist those who refuse to follow the instructions of the Knights of Labor or trades unionists against their own sense of right.

All the striking switchmen in the Lake Shore yards at Chicago went back to work on Friday afternoon, an agreement having been reached with the railroad company. It is alleged that the only concession made by the latter was that the eight non-union men who were the cause of the strike should in time be employed elsewhere. This is denied by the company.

The Third Avenue Horse-Car Company in this city still holds out against the strikers, and is gradually filling up with new men. More than seventy cars are running.

The boycott against Mrs. Gray, the baker of this city, has completely failed. She now has a larger business than ever before.

Mrs. Landgraf, the Bohemian baker, who has also been boycotted, is now doing a large business, and has received more than $500 from sympathizers. She will prosecute the boycotters.

There was rioting among the strikers of sugar works at Greenpoint, L. I., on Thursday. The police interfered. About thirty shots were exchanged and a number of people were injured.

Thirty-four men were arrested in this city on Tuesday, charged with conspiracy and coercion in carrying on the boycott against the tailoring firm of Cavanagh, Sanford & Co.

The New York Assembly on Wednesday passed the bills to repeal the Broadway Railroad charter and wind up its affairs.

Janeway & Co., of New Brunswick, N. J., have been awarded $179,000 damages in their suit against the Pennsylvania Railroad in the Federal Court at Trenton, N. J. The suit was a result of the collision at New Brunswick on the morning of February 7, 1885, of an oil and a freight train. The oil took fire, and a blazing stream swept down the neighboring streets. In its course it set fire to Janeway's extensive wall-paper factory, which was burned to the ground.

Solomon L. Withey, U. S. Judge for the Western District of Michigan, is dead.

Father A. J. Ryan, known as the poet-priest of the South, died in Louisville on Thursday night. He was forty-six years of age. During the war he was with the Confederate army as chaplain, and has since written much about the "lost cause." A volume of his poetry has had a large sale in the South.

FOREIGN.

An ultimatum was despatched to Greece on Wednesday night, intimating that the Powers were in perfect accord in fixing a limit to the time within which Greece must disarm, and that otherwise serious steps would be taken to enforce their demands. The Greek Prime Minister denies that the Greek Consul has been fomenting a rebellion in Crete.

A despatch from Athens on Thursday said: "On Tuesday night the Turkish advanced posts attempted to surprise the Greeks who had been engaged on the previous day in erecting earthworks within what is alleged to be the neutral line. Their effort, however, was not successful, they being smartly repulsed by the Greeks, who pursued the Turks and captured two of their guns. The Greeks then occupied three positions within Turkish territory, which the Greek Government has ordered them to evacuate."

France refused to join the Powers in coercing Greece, but sent her Government a letter advising peace. On Monday it was announced that Greece had yielded to this advice and would disarm at once.

Notwithstanding the report of peace, it became known late on Monday that Greece's reply to the Powers was regarded as unsatisfactory. A conference of the foreign Ministers was held at the Italian Embassy in Athens for the purpose of drawing up and signing an ultimatum, holding Greece answerable for the consequences unless she deferred without reserve to the wishes of Europe. This ultimatum was immediately presented to Greece. As a result it was announced from Athens on Tuesday that a royal decree had been issued disbanding the reserve forces.

The Irish Land-Purchase Bill, which the House of Commons on April 16 gave Mr. Gladstone permission to introduce, was issued on Thursday. It covers twenty-six pages. The bill is divided into five parts. There are fifty-three clauses and four schedules. The bill provides that a landlord who desires to sell his property shall apply to the State authority, who shall refer the application to a Land Commission, which, after making an inquiry, shall fix a price at which the property shall be sold, unless the landlord and the State authority have previously come to an agreement. If the landlord objects to the price fixed by the Commission, he may withdraw his application on paying the costs. When a sale of property has been effected, the Commission shall pay the creditors before making any other distribution of the purchase money. Certain rent charges may be bought outright by the State authority, or payment may be continued from the tenants' repayments. In cases of property whereon there is reasonable cause to suppose that valuable minerals exist, the Commission shall add to the purchase money a fair sum therefor, and the minerals realized from said property shall be vested in the State authority, or such local body as the Irish Legislature may provide. The Irish Receiver-General and deputies, who are to execute the financial part of the act, shall be appointed to hold office as permanent civil servants, subject to the authority of the Treasury.

The measure empowers the Treasury to create three classes of permanent annuities, bearing interest respectively at 3, 2¾, and 2½ per cent., which shall be charged to the Imperial Consolidated Fund. Strict rules are provided by the bill which forbid the subdividing or subletting of a holding so long as it is subject to any State charge; but the State authority is empowered to relax these rules where he may think it advisable. The other points of the bill were fully covered by Mr. Gladstone's speech.

A great Liberal meeting was held at Newcastle, England, on Wednesday night, attended by 4,000 people. Speeches were made by Earl Spencer and John Morley, and resolutions were enthusiastically adopted supporting Mr. Gladstone's policy. Mr. Labouchere, in a speech at Chiswick on Wednesday, maintained that the mass of the Liberal party supported the views of Mr. Gladstone. He said that he confessed that he should like to see taxation and representation go together, and undoubtedly amendments to Mr. Gladstone's plans in this direction would be made in committee.

A great mass meeting of Liberals and Radicals was held in London on Thursday night, and addresses were made by Mr. Labouchere and others. A resolution congratulating Mr. Gladstone on his endeavor to secure the permanent union of England and Ireland, and expressing the hope that the Home-Rule Bill would become a law after being so modified as to harmonize with the desires of the Radicals, was unanimously adopted.

Lord Selborne, Liberal, formerly Lord Chancellor and one of Gladstone's strongest supporters, in a letter to the London *Times* attacks certain features of Mr. Gladstone's Home-Rule Bill. He pronounces the measure hopelessly faulty from the fact that not one of the restrictions provided excepts from the powers of the proposed Irish Legislature any matter relating to the lives, liberties, and properties of the Queen's Irish subjects. "The magistrates, the judges, and the police in Ireland," says Lord Selborne, "will be the servants of the Dublin Government." Referring to the fact that Mr. Gladstone's measure excludes from the powers of the Irish Legislature all matters relating to the army and navy, Lord Selborne says there is still no reason why a volunteer Irish army cannot be raised without passing a bill. Lord Selborne also strongly attacks the Land Purchase Bill. He asks, upon the ground that £150,000,000 will be required to buy out the Irish landlords, how the shares in the first £50,000,000 provided are to be selected?

Lord Hartington, in a speech before his constituents in Lancashire on Monday evening, said that no alterations would remove the objections to the Irish scheme. He did not wish to coalesce with the Tories, but hoped, with the assistance of Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. Trevelyan, Mr. Goschen, Sir Henry James, Mr. Bright, Earl Selborne, Earl Derby, and the Duke of Argyll, to create an independent party, or to induce the withdrawal of the measure. His address was frequently interrupted. Mr. John Bright sent a letter in which he said: "It would be a calamity for the country if measures of the transcendent magnitude of Mr. Gladstone's should be accepted on the authority of any leader, however eminent. The present sad division in the Liberal party has arisen through the introduction of the Irish measures before the public mind was properly prepared for them." The meeting passed resolutions merely thanking Lord Hartington for his address, and wishing that any legislation adopted might be for the peace and prosperity of Ireland.

Mr. Gladstone has written a letter to the London *Chronicle* in which he says: "It is not my custom to comment on statements made by hostile newspapers, but, having sincere respect for the *Chronicle*, I would call attention to an allegation made by it in a leader, that I have heretofore taught that home rule in Ireland would be a source of imperial danger. I will not challenge proof of the assertion, which was doubtless made in good faith, but it is entirely an error. I have always asked for an explanation of the meaning of home rule, in order to make clear the question whether or not it would be a source of danger. We have now learned the demand of Ireland from five-sixths of her chosen representatives. Such home rule is, in the language of my address of September last, a source not of danger, but of strength. The danger, if any, lies in refusing it."

The London *World* says that Parnell and his friends have already begun to constitute the Irish Ministry. Parnell will be President of the Irish Council, and the distribution of other offices is surmised as follows: Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. A. O'Connor; Minister of the Interior, Mr. Sexton; Minister of Agriculture, Mr. Biggar; Minister of Education, Mr. J. M'Carthy; Minister of Public Works, Mr. T. P. O'Connor; Minister of Justice, Mr. Chance; Attorney-General, Mr. Healy; Solicitor-General, Mr. D. Sullivan; Minister of Commerce, Mr. Harrington. It is also intended to appoint a minister who shall have charge of the relations of Ireland with the Irish in America, and it is probable that Patrick Egan will be taken to England to fill that position. Mr. John Dillon is to be Speaker of the new Irish Parliament.

A collision between Orange and Catholic ruffians occurred after the holding of a Loyalist meeting at Glasgow on Friday. Four arrests were made. At a later hour an Orange mob attacked a Catholic chapel, which was crowded with worshippers, and smashed all the windows. The few police who were present were powerless to prevent the mob's work of destruction. The priest conducting the services in the chapel ordered the doors to be locked, and thus prevented the mob from doing further mischief.

Advices from Mandalay, Burmah, say that a British expedition sent against the Kachyen tribe has been compelled to retreat. The rebels in overwhelming force made a desperate attack on the British, charging into a battery of guns, and driving the expedition back. The rebels have captured the Mezgandet Police Station. They bound the garrison with cords and massacred twenty-three persons. The Viceroy of India attaches little importance to these reports. He says that only two British soldiers have been wounded so far, and none killed.

The Queen's Proctor, after testing the evidence in the divorce case of Crawford vs. Crawford and Dilke, has intervened, and the case will be reopened.

The judgment of the court in the *Oregon* inquiry at Liverpool was delivered on Thursday. The decision was in favor of the owners and officers of the steamer on all the questions submitted to the court. The court found, however, that the first officer was somewhat remiss in his duties, but not to a sufficient extent to warrant it in inflicting punishment upon him.

Lionel Tennyson, the poet-laureate's son, died recently on board a steamer on the way from Calcutta to London. He was born in 1854, educated at Cambridge, married a daughter of Frederick Locker, the poet, and was connected with the Indian Office. He leaves a widow and three children.

Baron Alfred Frederic Ameil, a distinguished General of the French Army, is dead, aged seventy-five years. He was captured with his troops at Sedan.

The death is announced of Louis Xavier Ollier, a well-known French surgeon, the author of a number of works on surgery, and an officer of the Legion of Honor. He was sixty-one years of age.

M. de Brazza has been gazetted as Governor of the Congo and Gaboon colonies.

The strike of the watchmakers of Grammont, in East Flanders, is becoming serious. Reinforcements of gendarmes have been summoned. The strikers barricaded the bridges over the Dender River, and made an attack with stones upon the gendarmes. A fight ensued, resulting in the rout of the rioters and the arrest of a large number of them.

The Spanish Senatorial elections have resulted in the return of 128 Ministerialists, 28 Conservatives, 6 Independents, 4 Republicans, and 2 members of the Dynastic Left.

An explosive was placed inside one of the large hollow candles on the altar of the Church of San Luis, in Madrid, on Friday. The explosion took place before the congregation had arrived, badly damaging the building and seriously burning two sextons. It is supposed that the criminal hoped to rob the church of valuable plate during the panic.

The condition of affairs at Stry, Galicia, among the people who lost their homes by the great fire is most pitiable. Most of the victims are without food or means, and are rendered desperate by the thought of starvation. The farmers in the vicinity have been visited by mobs of men who first demanded food and then, if refused, stole it. It is estimated that 123 lives were lost. It will cost $1,200,000 to rebuild the town.

Three-fourths of the town of Lisko, Galicia, has been burned.

It has become known that custom-house officials at Odessa have been defrauding the Government for years. The amount embezzled is placed at several million rubles.

The report is confirmed that the Emir of Harrar, in Eastern Africa, has massacred all the Europeans in his capital, including the members of the Italian scientific expedition under Count Porro.

It is reported at Ottawa that an American vessel has been seized off Cape Breton for a breach of the fishery laws. She was within the three-mile limit.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND ON ARBITRATION.

THE special message sent to Congress by President Cleveland, recommending the establishment by law of a national commission to arbitrate labor disputes, would have been regarded twenty years ago as a very long stride toward centralization, and one quite incompatible with any just conception of the principles and traditions of the Democratic party. But State rights, regarded as a code of political principles, have long since disappeared. The small number of such rights that are written in black and white in the Federal Constitution are still in force, because so written, but even these are being whittled away by constructions which would have appalled Thomas Jefferson alive, and might even now cause agitation in his revered remains. What would the sage of Monticello have said if he had read a message from one of his successors proposing to send Federal peacemakers into the States, under that clause of the Constitution which guarantees to each State protection against domestic violence? "The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and on application of the Legislature or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence." The plain signification of this clause is that the only concern of the Federal authority in the premises is to suppress public disorder in the States when, in the judgment of its constituted authorities, it shall have become too formidable to be dealt with by themselves. This is not merely the text and spirit of the Constitution, but it is an eminently wise provision, in this, that while it reserves the right it also imposes upon the local subdivisions of the nation the duty of regulating their own affairs, including the preservation of order up to the measure of their ability. It will be a serious mistake if this clause of the Constitution is to be construed in such fashion as to lower the sense of local responsibility by casting upon the general Government all the disagreeable duties of State Government, even supposing that the former were capable of performing them.

There is another clause of the Constitution, which says that the President shall from time to time give Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to it such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient. Under this clause President Cleveland has sent in his message in favor of a bureau of arbitration. The information which he gives, if it can be considered "information of the state of the Union," is extremely vague. It is all embraced in the following paragraph, the remainder of the message being in the nature of argument upon the state of facts disclosed:

> "The present condition of the relations between labor and capital is far from satisfactory. The discontent of the employed is due in a large degree to the grasping and heedless exactions of employers and the alleged discrimination in favor of capital as an object of governmental attention. It must also be conceded that the laboring men are not always careful to avoid causeless and unjustifiable disturbance. Though the importance of a better accord between these interests is apparent, it must be borne in mind that any effort in that direction by the Federal Government must be greatly limited by constitutional restrictions. There are many grievances which legislation by Congress cannot redress, and many conditions which cannot by such means be reformed."

It would have been much more satisfactory if the President had given the exact facts which he thought called for a special message. It would have been helpful if he had stated his own opinion whether the relations of labor and capital had lately taken on any new phase, and whether they are more disturbed now than at any former time. It was incumbent upon him, if he wished to impress thoughtful men, to define labor, and tell whether we are to include in that term the 10,598 contented laborers on the Missouri-Pacific Railway, or only the 3,717 who struck without assigning any reason for striking. In default of any precise information, we are driven to other sources of knowledge. The last collection of the statistics of strikes published by *Bradstreet's* showed the number of men out of employment by their own choice in the whole country to be about 39,000—not a very alarming percentage in a population of about sixty millions. Mr. Powderly, who is supposed to represent the only organization that is making much disturbance, testified before the House Committee that the Knights of Labor numbered 500,000, the number having been "raised" by as much as 200,000 since the date of Mr. Powderly's circular published last month.

The most serious defect in the President's message, however, is that what he proposes is not arbitration, although he gives it that name. We are all in favor of arbitration—Jay Gould more than anybody else—and there is a pretty general agreement as to what it means. Mr. Weeks, in his recent excellent treatise on the subject, assumes that everybody knows what arbitration is. He defines it incidentally on page 39 as "the system of dealing with labor differences by boards or committees made up of both employers and employed." This is the principle which governs both legal and voluntary arbitration in all the countries and places where arbitration has ever been employed. It is the very soul of arbitration that the parties whose claims are to be passed upon shall be represented by persons of their own choosing. It is needless to say that this is the only kind of arbitration that will ever accomplish any good.

But the arbitration proposed by the President is of quite another sort. He recommends that a commission of three men be appointed at Washington to arbitrate everywhere and on everything, "under such limitations and upon such occasions as should be deemed proper and useful." The chief limitation upon such a commission is that it would have no moral support because it would not represent either party. The President does not propose giving it any authority to enforce its decisions, but he holds that it would gain an authority akin to that which has been gained by some of the State Railroad Commissions. These Commissions were appointed to compel certain corporations holding public franchises in the nature of monopolies to perform their duties to the public as common carriers. They have nothing in common with the duties sought to be conferred on the proposed Commission, which has to deal with the purely private concerns of employers and employees. The kind of arbitration which the President suggests might suit Mr. Martin Irons and others who insist upon arbitration between each individual employer and the whole body of Knights of Labor—that is, between each employer and the employees of all other employers—but it will not suit any system of industry that has any chance of becoming permanent, or of yielding any useful results.

STRIKES, LEGAL AND ILLEGAL.

WE find in the last number of the *American*, a protectionist weekly newspaper published by Mr. Wharton Barker in Philadelphia, several assertions concerning English and American law on the question of strikes and boycotts which are really curiosities of inaccuracy. Referring to the provisions of our Penal Code on the subject of conspiracy, the *American* says:

> "This section is derived from the old English law of 'conspiracy in restraint of trade'—built up by judicial rulings—the whole of which Parliament repealed in 1864. In English law and practice, now, that is lawful for an association which is lawful for an individual, and the law takes cognizance of no 'conspiracy' which does not seek its ends by unlawful means. The same is the law in Pennsylvania and in Michigan, but the old English views still linger in the legislation of most of the States."

The only statement in that paragraph which is not false is the one that the language of our code is derived from old English law. All the rest of it is pure fiction. The old English law of "conspiracy in restraint of trade" was not "built up by judicial rulings," but by a long series of Parliamentary enactments, beginning with the Statutes of Laborers, passed in 1349–50, and ending with the "Conspiracies and Protection of Property Act" of 1875, the "whole of which" were not repealed by Parliament in 1864 or at any other time. The course of English law upon this question is so interesting and instructive that we will give a brief outline of it, in the hope that it will prove valuable to other persons as well as to the muddled legal expounder of the *American*.

Prior to 1825, the English Statutes of Laborers so elaborately provided for every species of offence by a workman against his employer that there was no need of invoking common-law doctrines in his behalf, and, with the exception of one case of doubtful authority, there is no case reported in the books of an earlier date than 1825 which was not decided under one or more of these statutes. In 1825 there was passed an act which, after specifically providing for the punishment of particular offences calculated unduly to restrain and interfere with trade, provided that it should not be unlawful for persons to meet together for the sole purpose of consulting upon and determining the rate of wages or prices which they might demand for their work, or to enter into an agreement among themselves for the purpose of fixing the wages or prices or the hours during which they would work. Shortly after the passage of this act the leaders of a trade union in London, who had no immediate personal interest in the matter, insisted that an employer should pay his men a certain rate of wages, and, in order

to compel him so to do, prevailed on his men to leave his employ until he did so, and prevailed on others not to enter his employment. This was held to be an indictable conspiracy at common law, Mr. Justice Earle holding that workmen might, if they thought proper, combine together for their own protection and to obtain such wages as they chose to agree to demand, but "a combination for the purpose of injuring another is a combination of a different nature, directed personally against the party to be injured; and the law allowing them to combine for the purpose of obtaining a lawful benefit for themselves gives no sanction to combinations which have for their immediate purpose the hurt of another." This decision was followed in a number of cases, all based upon the principle that combinations which tended to impede and interfere with the free course of trade and commerce were indictable at common law. The same principle was established in New York independently of these ralings and as long before them as 1810.

In 1859 Parliament again interfered, and defined by statute precisely what offences of this nature should be punishable and what should not; and a series of enactments ensued, as cases arose which were not satisfactorily provided for in the original statute. Finally, in 1875, Parliament passed the statute which is at present in force, known as "The Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, 1875." By this act it was provided that: "An agreement or combination by two or more persons to do, or procure to be done, any act in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute between employers and workmen shall not be indictable as a conspiracy if such act committed by one person would not be punishable as a crime." The statute then proceeds to define what acts committed by one person shall be punishable as a crime, in language which contains no comfort for boycotters or their sympathizers. It provides:

"Section 5. Where any person wilfully and maliciously breaks a contract of service or of hiring, knowing or having reason to believe that the probable consequence of his so doing, either alone or in combination with others, will be to endanger human life, or to cause serious bodily injury, or to expose valuable property, real or personal, to destruction or serious injury, he shall on conviction thereof . . . be liable to a penalty not exceeding £20, or be imprisoned for a term not exceeding three months, with or without hard labor.

"Section 7. Every person who, with a view to compel any other person to abstain from so doing or to do any act which such other person has a legal right to do or abstain from doing, wrongfully and without legal authority,

"1. Uses violence or intimidates such other person, or his wife, or children, or injures his property; or

"2. Persistently follows such other person about from place to place; or

"3. Hides any tools, clothes, or other property owned or used by such other person, or deprives him of or hinders him in the use thereof; or

"4. Watches or besets the house or other place where such other person resides or works or carries on business or happens to be, or the approach to such house or place; or

"5. Follows such other person with two or more other persons in a disorderly manner in or through any street or road, shall on conviction be punished as provided in Section 5."

The legal expounder of the *American* will find the substance of these provisions, and often the very language of them, embodied in our Penal Code, sections 673 and 653. Of course, an agreement or combination by two or more persons to do or procure to be done any of the acts described in section 7, in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute between employers and workmen, is indictable as a conspiracy. Such is the plain intent of section 5, and so eminent an expounder of the criminal law as Sir James F. Stephen, in reviewing these enactments, refers to the part played by the judges between 1825 and 1859, "in defining, and, indeed, in a sense creating, the offence of conspiracy." "They defined it," he says, "I think too widely; but that their definition was substantially right is proved by the fact that the act of 1875 has made provision for punishing practically 'all the acts which they declared to be offences at common law.'" It is very evident that this high authority had not heard that the "old English law of conspiracy in restraint of trade" had been "repealed by Parliament in 1864."

The *American's* assertions about the law in Pennsylvania and Michigan are equally inaccurate. In the former State the existing statute is the act of June 14, 1872, Penn. Laws, 1875, which declares:

"It shall be lawful for any laborer or laborers, workingman or workingmen, journeyman or journeymen, acting either as individuals or as the members of any club, society, or association, to refuse to work or labor for any person or persons, whenever in his, her, or their opinion the wages paid are insufficient, or the treatment of such laborer or laborers, etc., by his, her, or their employer is brutal or offensive, or the continued labor by such laborer, etc., would be contrary to the rules, regulations, or by-laws of any club, society, or association to which he, she, or they may belong, without subjecting any person or persons so refusing to work or labor to prosecution or indictment for conspiracy under the laws of this commonwealth.

"Provided, That this act shall not be held to apply to the member or members of any club, society, or association, the constitution, by-laws, rules, and regulations of which are not in strict conformity to the Constitution of the State of Pennsylvania, and to the Constitution of the United States.

"Provided, *That nothing herein contained shall prevent the prosecution and punishment under existing laws of any person or persons who shall in any way hinder persons who desire to labor for their employers from so doing, or other persons from being employed as laborers.*"

The Supreme Court of Pennsylvania has recently decided that the offence of conspiracy is still punishable at common law in that State, except as restricted by statute, and as the statute merely authorizes workmen, alone or in combination with others, to *refuse to work*, any combinations designed to coerce employers or other workmen by the various expedients known as "boycotting" are, of course, still unlawful. The law in Michigan is apparently in an equally satisfactory condition. The act of February 14, 1877, provides:

"Section 2. If two or more persons shall wilfully and maliciously combine or conspire together to obstruct and impede by any act, or by means of intimidation, the regular operation and conduct of the business of any railroad company, or any other corporation, firm, or individual in this State, or to impede, hinder, or obstruct, except by due process of law, the regular running of any locomotive engine, freight, or passenger train on any railroad, or the labor and business of any such corporation, firm, or individual, such persons shall on conviction thereof be punished by imprisonment in the county jail not more than three months, or in the State prison for a period not exceeding one year.

"Section 3. This act shall not be construed to apply to cases of persons voluntarily quitting the employment of any railroad company or such other corporation, firm or individual, whether by concert of action or otherwise."

In other words, in England, Pennsylvania, and Michigan, as well as in New York, Illinois, and Missouri, it is entirely lawful for workmen singly or in concert to refuse to labor for a particular employer, or beyond a certain number of hours, or for less than a fixed rate, or except upon such conditions as they may choose to demand; but it is also the right of the employer to refuse such terms, and to employ anybody who is willing to work for him upon his terms; and any combination or agreement between the dissatisfied workmen for the purpose of coercing the employer or fellow-workmen to agree to their terms is unlawful, provided some act be done to effect the object thereof by one or more of the parties to the agreement.

But the *American* does not stop with the slight exploit of overturning English and American law. It goes further, and rebukes an American judge for decreeing that the law must be obeyed. In the same issue of the paper from which we have quoted above occurs this passage:

"Much in the same spirit as the New York Code is the decision of Judge Pardee in the United States District Court in Texas, in the case of the strikers on the Texas Pacific Railroad. The road is in the hands of a receiver appointed by the court, and this was used to bring them within the court's jurisdiction for 'contempt.' With the merits of the case, so far as it concerned violence offered to persons or property, we are not here concerned. But we observe that Judge Pardee ruled that 'the employees of the receivers, . . . where they combine and conspire to quit, with or without notice, with the object or intent of crippling the property or its operation, commit a contempt, and all those who combine or conspire with employees thus to quit, or as officials of pretended labor organizations issue pretended orders to quit or to strike, with an intent to embarrass the Court in administering the property, render themselves liable for contempt of court.'

"It is law like this from American benches which has earned for the United States the contempt of English jurists as that of a country apparently incapable of legal progress. But such decisions have a much worse effect than to make us a laughing-stock of the British bar. They sow the seed of class bitterness. They help to carry the idea to the working classes that courts and law are on the side of the rich, and that the employee need expect no such consideration as is given to his employer. The receivers of the Texas-Pacific may 'conspire' to dismiss every man in the service of the road, with or without notice, and thus embarrass each and all of them in the management of their finances. But if they conspire to dismiss the road they commit a misdemeanor. The use of the words 'combine and conspire' shows where Judge Pardee got his law from. It is the old notion of 'conspiracy in restraint of trade,' introduced into the case law of the United States courts from English case law. The United States never enacted any such restraint upon individual action, and England has repealed it. The United States courts profess to hold themselves free of the traditions of English common law which prevail in our State courts. Whence comes this doctrine of 'contempt of court,' which allows a judge to subject to an unlimited penalty, from which there is no appeal, any person who is guilty of even constructive disobedience of the judge's order? Here is a point for Congress to consider."

A vital point for "Congress to consider" would be the propriety of legislating that no incurable ignoramus should be permitted to edit a newspaper. Judge Pardee's decision, in the light of the summary which we have given of the English law, is the only one which he could have given without winning the contempt not only of English but of all other jurists. The principles laid down by him are precisely those which have always been maintained by the English courts. A very interesting case bearing upon this point

is cited in Sir James F. Stephen's 'History of the Criminal Law of England,' vol. iii, p. 225. We quote it for the benefit of all friends of boycotts and "tie-ups":

"In 1872 certain gas-stokers struck, the result of which was that a great part of London was for a time involved at night in complete darkness. They were indicted for a conspiracy to coerce or molest their employers in carrying on their business, and it was held that this was on two grounds an indictable conspiracy, though no offence was committed under the statute. The first ground was that it was an indictable conspiracy to force the company to carry on their business contrary to their own will by an improper threat or molestation. *It seems to have been considered that the great public inconvenience which such a strike would cause, and the nature of the employers' known engagements, might cause a threat to strike suddenly to be an improper molestation.* Also, a threat of a simultaneous breach of contract was regarded, and was pointed out to the jury, as a conspiracy to prevent the employer from carrying on his business. Upon this second charge the defendants were convicted and sentenced to eight months' imprisonment. This case substantially decided that although a strike could no longer be punished as a conspiracy in restraint of trade, it might, under such circumstances, be of such a nature as to amount *to a conspiracy at common law to molest, injure, or impoverish an individual, or to prevent him from carrying on his business.*"

It is precisely this principle, which the English judges invoked in 1872, and which, except as modified by the act of 1875, is in force in England to-day, that Judge Pardee applied to the Texas strikers. The property affected being in the hands of the court, the acts done to cripple its operation, which would have been conspiracy had the property been in the hands of individuals, became contempt and were punishable as such. The absurd comments of the *American* upon the Judge's action do not call for this elaborate refutation, except as they are typical of much of the current newspaper comment upon the law relating to labor disturbances. The notion that the laborer is in some way raised above the law has penetrated a great many newspaper offices, and from them has been communicated to the laborers, where it has worked infinite mischief. Such observations as the *American's* about the "courts and law being on the side of the rich" would be simply silly, were it not for the harm they do when they get into undisciplined minds. The courts and the law are on the side of both the poor and the rich so long as they obey the laws; and the daily and hourly duty of every decent newspaper is to preach that neither the rich nor the poor can violate the law without suffering the consequences.

THE PROPOSED IRISH PARLIAMENT.

THE full text of Mr. Gladstone's "Government of Ireland Bill" has now reached us, and an accurate account of its provisions is at last possible. The restrictions on the jurisdiction of the proposed Irish Legislature cover much the same ground as the restrictions on the power of State legislatures in this country. That is to say, it is forbidden to legislate on ny of the following matters:

1. The status or dignity of the Crown, or the succession to the Crown, or a Regency;
2. The making of peace or war;
3. The army, navy, militia, volunteers, or other military or naval forces, or the defence of the realm;
4. Treaties and other relations with foreign states, or the relations between the various parts of her Majesty's dominions;
5. Dignities or titles of honor;
6. Prize or booty of war;
7. Offences against the law of nations; or offences committed in violation of any treaty made, or hereafter to be made, between her Majesty and any foreign state; or offences committed on the high seas;
8. Treason, alienage, or naturalization;
9. Trade, navigation, or quarantine;
10. The postal and telegraph service, except as hereafter in this Act mentioned with respect to the transmission of letters and telegrams in Ireland;
11. Beacons, lighthouses, or sea marks;
12. The coinage; the value of foreign money; legal tender; or weights and measures; or
13. Copyright, patent rights, or other exclusive rights to the use or profits of any works or inventions.

It is also placed under the prohibition imposed by the American Constitution on Congress touching the establishment of religion and the free exercise thereof, and is also forbidden to impose any disability or confer any privilege on account of religious belief, or to interfere with the right to establish any denominational schools, or to impair the rights, property, or privileges of any existing corporation. Each Parliament is to sit for five years unless sooner dissolved.

The powers of the Parliament are in fact traced very much on American lines, but the division of it is decidedly original. It is to be composed of two "Orders," which are, however, to sit together, and vote together unless the majority of either Order should call for a separate vote. They are then to vote as separate legislative bodies, and if they do not agree the question is decided in the negative—that is, either body can tie up the other. The first Order is to consist of 103 members, almost the number of the present Irish representation in the House of Commons. Of these, twenty-eight are to be the Irish peers now sitting in the House of Lords, and the remaining seventy-five are to be elected, and each must be the owner of property bringing him $1,000 a year, and can only be voted for by electors owning or occupying land or tenement worth at least $125 a year. One-half of the elective members are to retire every fifth year, and their term of office is to be ten years. The peers of the first Order are to hold office for thirty years, and their places to be filled as at present—that is, by election by the whole body of the peers.

The second Order is to be chosen by the existing constituencies, and is to start off with the present Irish members of the House of Commons, and contain altogether 204 members. The Royal University may be empowered to send two members in addition. No qualification is required for the members of this body. The weak point in this part of the scheme is undoubtedly the constitution of the first Order. The existing Irish peers have now but little weight or popularity in Ireland, and there would be nothing particularly imposing about seventy-five men with $1,000 a year each from accumulated property. So that the source from which an upper house made up in this way is to draw its strength or power of resistance, does not clearly appear.

The financial part of the scheme is, of course, a very important one. The Imperial Government reserves to itself the right to levy customs and excise duties in Ireland in order to raise the sum of $23,010,000 annually to pay the Irish share of the interest on the national debt, of the contribution to the sinking fund, of the cost of the army and navy, of the cost of the imperial civil expenditure; and to pay for the constabulary and Dublin police, which are to remain for the present in imperial control. In fixing the amounts of the Irish contributions to the National Exchequer, the Irish proportion is put down at one-fifteenth of the whole, or thereabouts. Outside the above amounts the whole field of taxation is open to the Irish Legislature, but it is not to have power to make any appropriation or levy any tax, except in pursuance of a recommendation of the executive made through the Lord Lieutenant. This is probably intended to protect landlords and Protestants and other minorities, about whom the English public is alarmed, from being taxed out of existence.

The Lord Lieutenant, who is to be appointed and paid by the Crown, is to be the supreme executive officer, and the Irish Parliament is to have no power to legislate regarding his office or functions. There is probably nothing in all the English discussion of the Irish question which has been found so puzzling as the provision of a substitute for our Supreme Court to pass on the validity of acts of the Irish Legislature, or, in other words, to decide whether in any given case it has gone beyond the powers conferred on it by the organic law. The Supreme Court does this work here indirectly by decisions in suits between individuals. Mr. Gladstone proposes that in the case of Ireland it shall be done directly by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, which is already the final court of appeal in all Colonial and admiralty cases. Whenever the question of the constitutionality of an Irish act is raised, it is to be referred to this tribunal by the Lord Lieutenant, but for the purpose of passing on it there are to be added to the Committee as many Irish judges as the Queen may deem advisable. The final appeal in ordinary law cases is still to lie to the English House of Lords.

Finally, the organic law is to be altered and modified in only two ways. The first is an act of the Imperial Parliament assented to by the Irish Parliament in an address to the Queen. The second is an act of the Imperial Parliament, for the passing of which twenty-eight Irish peers shall have been summoned to the English House of Lords, and one member from each Irish constituency (or two from constituencies having four members) summoned to the House of Commons—such members to be selected, however, by the Irish Parliament.

We have no space now to criticise the plan in detail. But we may say, in general terms, that the only portion of it which seems, in the light of experience, and on principles of human nature, to be likely to prove unworkable, is the division of the Legislature into orders, and the composition of the first Order. A careful examination of the arguments directed against it by Mr. Gladstone's English opponents shows clearly that they all resolve themselves, in the last analysis, into the

thesis that the Irish are a peculiar people and unfit for self-government, and that, therefore, no scheme of which they are to have the management will succeed. In other words, the great and fundamental defect of the bill is that it is a concession to Irishmen. But the force of this argument is, of course, weakened by the fact that all concessions of this kind made by the Imperial Parliament to men of any race or class have been opposed on similar grounds. It was used against the Americans, against the Colonies, against the Catholics, against the Dissenters, and against the English constituencies created in 1832, in 1867, and in 1885. It is, therefore, not an argument likely to stand many hard knocks.

THE PRINCES OF CONDÉ.

PARIS, April 8, 1886.

VOLUMES iii. and iv. of the 'Histoire des Princes de Condé,' by the Duc d'Aumale, have appeared this season, and have attracted much attention. It was well known that the author had employed all his leisure hours for fifteen years in collecting and studying the original documents concerning the Great Condé and his father. Some chapters on the first campaigns of Condé had been read in the French Academy and had appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. I have been told that, when the Duc d'Aumale read to his colleagues of the Academy the account of the battle of Rocroi, won by Condé over the Spaniards, he read with so much warmth and effect that one of the Academicians was heard to say to his neighbor, "He too would have gained it." It has been my privilege to hear many chapters read in Paris or at Chantilly, before a few friends and members of the Orléans family, and I did not doubt that the work would have as much success with the general public as it had in this small circle. There was something impressive and almost poetical in these private readings. I can see now the Duke sitting at his table, with his notes before him; I hear his fine, commanding, military voice; I see the great library, with its walls glittering with old bindings, the escutcheons of the companions in arms of the Great Condé painted on the ceilings of the fine hall, on the chimney an old terra-cotta bust of young Condé, with his wild countenance, his eagle nose, his thin and hard features —so dark with age that the bust looks like one of the old bronzes of the Renaissance; and round the great table, all listening and giving their attention, the nephews, the nieces, the grandnephews, the grandnieces of the royal author. I wondered at the time what thoughts came across the minds of these girls and boys when they heard all these names which to them are so familiar. For centuries, the history of their house has been the history of France. It was certainly interesting to see these children of France receiving such lessons and in such a way.

The third and fourth volumes of the 'History of the Princes of Condé' are devoted to only two of these Princes. The first, Henri de Bourbon, who was the third Prince of Condé, was the father of the "grand Condé"; he fills the greater part of volume iii. The end of this volume and the whole of volume iv. show us the early part, only, of the life of the famous warrior, who will ever be remembered not only by his great victories, but also by the magnificent oration pronounced at his tomb by Bossuet. In every picture gallery there are portraits which are treated somewhat differently, with more or less minuteness. The figure which has chiefly attracted the attention of the Duc d'Aumale has been the figure of the Great Condé; he has not dwelt with so much particularity on the figure of his father. It was, indeed, a somewhat ungrateful task to tell the life of the third Condé; he had none of the qualities of his predecessors or of his successors, or he had them in a much smaller degree, and combined with defects which make him one of the least attractive personages of his time. He was unlucky: he lived in one of the darkest hours of French history; under Henri IV. he appears only in a painful situation, as his wife had inspired a passion in the King, and he could only protect his honor and the reputation of his wife by flight. He escaped to Flanders, and we see him in communication with the enemies of France. He appears again after the murder of Henri IV., coming back, full of anger, and we see him at once chiefly occupied with his own private interests. Malherbe writes of him: "We shall be quit with him on the augmentation of his pensions." He reunited himself with his wife, but the reconciliation was merely formal. He was not long in quarrelling with the Queen Regent, and in taking his place among the discontented of the new régime.

It would be tedious and difficult to speak in detail of the revolts of the Princes, of the treaties of peace made with the Crown, which were never anything but short truces. Each lord was looking for his own interests, each wanted governments and pensions. The excuse of the revolts was the audacity of the new favorites, of the Italian Concini and his wife, afterwards of Luynes; there was nobody who could take the place afterwards taken by Richelieu and by Mazarin, who could or would govern for the real interests of the State. Condé had not character enough, he had no large views, he inspired more fear than respect; he was fond of intrigue, restless, discontented, jealous, unsafe. He had been at first the hope of the Protestant churches, and the Huguenots thought that they should find in him a great leader, that he would accept the whole inheritance of his glorious ancestors. But they were soon disappointed; and, after having tried to use them and having given them some hope, he finally became their most bitter enemy.

The Duc d'Aumale does not think himself obliged, like many biographers, to admire everything in his heroes; he confesses that Monsieur le Prince was laughed at at the Court of Marie de Médicis for his "bourgeois tastes, his parsimony, his debauchery, his vices, real or supposed." He liked the company of the scholars of the University, of the young lawyers; he preferred "la robe" to "l'épée." He had the reputation of drinking, and he did not drink with men of quality. He did not care for the society of ladies, and had nothing of Henri IV., "le vert galant." He was accused of being "bon seulement aux traits de plume et non aux coups d'épée." At the peace of Loudun, Condé received immense advantages for himself. He saw, at the end of the conference, D'Aubigné, who looked sullen and discontented, and who was leaving "this fair of private perfidies and of general cowardice." "Adieu, D'Aubigné," said Condé; "go to Dognon" (the château of the famous author of the 'Tragiques'). "And you," said D'Aubigné, "go to the Bastille." He was a true prophet; the triumph of Condé had been too great. Some time afterwards he was arrested at the Louvre, on September 1, 1616. "What! would you arrest me?" said he to Thémine, who had received the orders of the young King Louis XIII.; "are you captain of the guards?" "No, but I am a gentleman, and obliged to obey the commands of the King, your master and mine."

Condé remained in prison no less than three years. His wife asked and obtained permission to share his captivity. After a while he was transferred from the Bastille to Vincennes. He was only released in October, 1619. His attitude was completely changed from that time; his long detention had broken his unruly character; he abandoned the part of a great leader, he became docile, and at times almost servile; he threw himself passionately on the side of the royal authority and of the Catholic supremacy. How much fear and how much conviction had to do with this transformation, it would be difficult to say exactly. It is natural that the Duc d'Aumale should as much as possible represent him as matured and fortified by misfortune, and as a sincere partisan of the state.

Condé was among those who constantly incited Louis XIII. to the destruction of the Huguenots. He was employed in the last wars fought by the Protestants, but always played a secondary part. His military talents were not equal to his ardor, and Richelieu had no desire to give him too prominent a place in the country. He always kept him more or less at a distance, in fear of disgrace, uneasy, anxious, far from the King and from the Court. The Condé campaign in Franche-Comté added nothing to his reputation; after that we see him living chiefly in his governments, always busy with his estates, his lawsuits, surrounded with lawyers and scribes, entering into the most minute details, visiting his domains, the smallest towns of his governments, in Bresse, in Burgundy, in Berry, in Bourbonnais. Sometimes he was obliged to assist at the great ceremonies of state; but he disliked pomp, and he was very simple in his dress. The Duc d'Aumale cites a letter in which Perrault writes to the Prince: "M. de Bourdeaux forgot himself so much this morning as to say to your Highness that the Cardinal (Richelieu) told him to say to you that when you go to the King you must wear a clean and honest garment, have yourself shaved, put on clean boots—in short, appear as he does himself, and to do that for the love of him and constrain yourself; and that, the first time he sees you, he will thank you for it."

The chief residences of the Prince were, at Moulins, the old château; at Bourges, the hôtel which was called the *logis du Roi;* at Dijon, the magnificent palace of the old Dukes. The government of Burgundy was the most important of all those which were given to him. The Great Condé, however, was not born at Dijon, but at Paris, on September 8, 1621, at a time when his father was in Berry. The Prince did not wish the child to remain in Paris, and, breaking with old traditions, he established him in the château of Montrond, at the confluence of the Cher and the Marmande, isolated on the top of a hill with an immense horizon. The child was left under the care of a few women of modest condition.

The Prince of Condé gave an excellent education to his son (but we will return to this subject when we speak of the fourth volume of the 'History of the Princes of Condé'), and prepared him for a great destiny. As for himself, he spent the latter part of his life in a somewhat inglorious position, always in fear of Richelieu, anxious to be employed by him in the great enterprises which the Cardinal conducted against the enemies of France, but incapable of playing the great part which he claimed in virtue of his name and of his rank. Richelieu had tried him in the operations in Franche-Comté; he tried him again in the operations in Spain. The Prince was again unsuccessful, and the command was definitively taken away from him when the King went in person to the frontier of Spain in 1641.

"Henri II. of Condé," says the Duc d'Aumale, "always felt the great want in his education which we have pointed out—a want which in his time was very essential: he was not trained to arms. Those who have accused him of cowardice have calumniated him: he gave proofs of courage. Before Montpellier, Bassompierre was

struck by his coolness; at the siege of Dôle he remained calm in his hut under a shower of bullets; he was often in danger during the campaign in Languedoc, as well as at Fontarabia. He had no *élan;* he neglected the combat; he administered war. His soldiers did not see him often; he kept far from his troops. This habitual distance gave rise to unpleasant comments: he generally appeared too late. He never acquired the authority which is given by assiduity, by personal and constant action. He was not a safe man. Persevering in his hatreds; supple towards whoever had anything to do with the depositories of power; absolutely attached to his creatures, often unjust and brutal to all others; disposed to disavow at the first accident those who were not his complaisant tools; incapable of using men of any value, who cannot always be used easily, he could neither impose obedience nor make it easy, and he found himself, in short, ill-obeyed and badly served. With much application, a right sense, the desire to do well, a neat mind, a rapid conception, he could not bring any military enterprise to a good end. He was too fond of his ease; and when people reproached him with his fondness for the table, he answered rather meanly, 'They say that I have not left the cabaret since I left Paris; I have only been there twice!' It must be admitted that his health was failing, that he was often tormented with the gravel. In short, if he has been too severely judged, it is certain that, as a soldier, he was out of the traditions of his race: it is not by his military conduct that he can attract the attention of posterity."

He deserves more attention as a father, as an educator. The education of the Great Condé has been described, with the most minute details, by the Duc d'Aumale; and as the general and current opinion was that Condé was an *enfant de génie*, who had learned nothing and who understood everything, it will not be without interest to show how in his case genius was helped by culture.

Correspondence.

SUUM CUIQUE!

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The very able criticism of Mr. Waldstein's 'Essays on the Art of Phidias,' published in the *Nation* of April 1, credits Mr. Waldstein with "the identification of a head, which had lain undistinguished in the Louvre, as that of a Lapith in one of the metopes of the British Museum." This is a statement which would go to prove that if Mr. Waldstein is very well acquainted with Greek classical art, the authorities of the Louvre Museum are quite deficient in archæological acuteness. Now, the truth is that the head in question, which is sadly mutilated, was purchased by the authorities of the Louvre *because* it was recognized to belong to the metopes of the Parthenon. Mr. Waldstein came independently to the same conclusion, and had the right of publishing the discovery as his own in the *Century* and in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*. Bnt M. de Villefosse, keeper of the Greek and Roman antiquities in the Louvre, communicated to the Société des Antiquaires, at the end of the year 1882, the *procès-verbal* of the Committee's sitting at which the Lapith's head had been purchased, proving that before Mr. Waldstein's publication the head in question had been perfectly valued by the French archæologists. As the note read by M. de Villefosse was printed at the beginning of 1883, it is very surprising that Mr. Waldstein did not think proper to mention it in his book published two years afterwards. He thus leaves the public under the impression—which could not possibly be his own at the time he wrote—that no one in the Louvre understands anything about Attic art.

Personally disinterested in the debate, I may be allowed to find fault with this *peccatum per omissionem*, as I regret, on the other hand, that, after having triumphantly announced the discovery of original terracottas from Phidias's hand, Mr. Waldstein states *in a note* the facts which your critic has put in the light, which prove beyond a doubt that the terracottas in question are forgeries. Having examined with care the fragment in the Louvre, purchased with the Campana collection, I have come to quite the same conclusion.—Truly yours,

Salomon Reinach.

Paris, April 13, 1886.

JUST MISSED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When the small boy disports himself in fishing, with his legs hanging over the end of a wharf, a great part of his enjoyment, if the water is clear enough, consists in seeing the fish smell of the bait, play round it, dart off to a distance, and then come floating slowly back.

On Thursday, the 15th inst., Mr. Logan delivered in the Senate a manly and, for his political reputation, a very judicious speech in favor of removing the seal of secrecy from the executive sessions of the Senate. At one point, after saying, "This mysterious thing of doing in secret what you will not do openly is not manly: it gives the chance for men to vote in secret one way and talk in open Senate another," he was interrupted by Senator Hoar in words which I will venture to quote:

"May I ask the Senator whether his reasoning would not require that all committees of the Senate also should have their meetings openly and in public so far as conveniently may be done? . . . I suppose there is nothing which takes place in secret session so interesting and important to the people of this country as the proceedings of the Ways and Means Committee of the House and the Finance Committee of the Senate, and especially the proceedings of the committee of conference from those two bodies, when revenue questions are up. I wish to inquire of the Senator, if it does not divert him from his argument, whether he thinks that also should be made open and public."

This was a side attack for which Senator Logan was evidently not prepared, but at all events he did not lose his presence of mind:

"I have always recognized the astuteness of the Senator from Massachusetts. Whenever a proposition is made that is not exactly in accord with his notion, if he can draw you off the track on to something else he is always anxious to do it. We are not discussing the question of committees, but we are discussing the question of executive sessions of the Senate of the United States, and committees have nothing whatever to do with this proposition."

May I set down, after the fashion of *Hamlet* to the players, "a speech of some dozen or sixteen lines," in the hope that Senator Logan may consider it for a future occasion?—

"The Senator from Massachusetts tries to frighten me from one conclusion by showing that it involves another. I am not to be so frightened. To the Senator's question I answer distinctly, Yes. The greatest evil under this Government is, that its most important affairs, including the national finances, are manipulated by secret and irresponsible bodies of whose motives and actions the people know nothing. The work of the Finance Committee should not only be public, but it should be conducted on the open floor of this House. That is not possible at present, because the multiplicity of business blocks the way. Of the 7,000 bills and resolutions introduced in a session no one has a right of precedence over any other. The result is a scramble and a struggle for footing which prevents all intelligent action, and leaves but too much room for those who are skilled in secret intrigue. If, as was recommended by the Senate report of February 4, 1881, signed by eight Senators of both parties, the members of the Cabinet were given seats on the floor of the Senate, the important branches of Government affairs would receive their proper share of attention. Public discussion of them would bring out in strong light the motives and character of individuals, and would result in some organized system in place of the present hopeless confusion. We propose at present to make public the executive sessions of the Senate, but the Senator from Massachusetts can rest assured that the Finance and all the other committees will have their turn ere long."

G. B.

Boston, April 24, 1886.

THE RESPONSIBILITY FOR MOBS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I notice that you do not hesitate to place the responsibility for the recent loss of life and destruction of property in East St. Louis upon Governor R. J. Oglesby. I presume you do not wish to be unjust in making such an accusation against him, and I hope to be able to point out to you an object more deserving your severest condemnation than either of the Governors of Illinois and Texas.

The law as it now stands, in cases of a breach of the peace, requires the municipal authorities to exert their powers to quell the disturbance. When that fails, the sheriff is called upon, and he must swear in a force of deputies, when, if this is inadequate, the Governor of the State may call out the militia.

It is true in this case that the sheriff called for the military force before it was sent there, but the Governor could hardly have justified his compliance with that request under a strict construction of the law. The fact is, the sheriff had not fairly attempted to exercise his power as the law contemplates and directs, and had the troops been called out at that time, and no bloodshed occurred, the Governor's action would have received still greater condemnation from the taxpayer. I believe his action was right, and in strict compliance with the letter and intent of the law, and I hope that such a compliance with the law, on the part of all governors under like circumstances, will in time open the eyes of the people of this country to the folly of our methods of dealing with mobs, so wasteful as they are of blood and treasure. It is only another sacrifice of blood, offered up to that political sentiment known as "State rights."

When a mob of frenzied men meets and overpowers a force which the law opposes to it, its spirit and courage become exalted; and when the sheriff and his posse comitatus have been met and overpowered, as they almost invariably are, a mob is in right good working order to deal with militia. In the meantime blood has flowed, and when the militia has been worsted, the next step in the bloody tragedy consists in calling upon the President for the regular army, when, with perhaps still further loss of life, that peace which could easily have been maintained by a few regular soldiers is restored. This is the history of most of the serious riots which have occurred in our country. Suppose it was known that the moment the municipal authorities were unable to preserve the peace, it would be given over to those who make war and its dangers a profession; would the mob be as ready to open the ball? The history of the Pittsburgh riots of 1877 will answer the question.

The soldiers and officers of the regular army are always ready, know just what to do, will keep cool; and mobs understand this well, together with the foolish manner in which the hands of the State authorities are tied by the existing laws. While the few regular soldiers in St. Louis, paid and fed by the Government, could easily have maintained peace, their use was impossible, owing to our wise laws, and we must therefore take men and boys from their peaceful avocations, which they really do not want to leave, and face a danger they cannot avert or settle half as easily as the regulars could do it, and with no additional expense. And why is this impossible? Because it is said by many wise

men that the liberties of 60,000,000 people would be endangered if the regular army was used for such purposes. Whether the 60,000,000 citizens who *could* be enslaved by even a regular army of 100,000 men would not then be occupying the position for which they were best fitted, is a question for serious consideration. Therefore, Mr. Editor, blame our foolish laws, based upon that State-right nonsense, and do not blame the man who simply executes them.

S. J. Bumstead.

Decatur, Ill., April 22, 1886.

ARE STRIKES RIGHT?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Under the ample mantle of a generality often lurks a host of fallacies which are completely disguised from the cursory survey of the average intellect. Even mental microscopes of a very high power ofttimes fail to detect them, and the germ of the concealed danger only makes itself known by its after ravages in the intellectual system, which has swallowed the seemingly pure draught. The proposition that *the individual has the right to work or not to work at will*, seems so obviously true that, with most people, it is accepted without challenge. Like one who, wearing the uniform of our own army, is permitted to pass through the lines without examination, or even so much as being asked the password, it enters the camp on the terms of a brother-in-arms. But may not its colors be a mere ruse? At any rate an inquiry into its loyalty will do no harm, if it be true, and if it be false, we shall know how to deal with an enemy.

Physically the individual can or cannot work at will, as long as he will or as short a time as he will. The question is, however, Has the individual not merely the physical power but the moral right to work or not to work at will? It may be replied that in a very loose sense the proposition is sound. Generally speaking it is within the option of any man to labor or not. If I am in the employ of a capitalist at a rate of wages which I regard as an inadequate compensation for my labor, I have the right to quit. Even if I consider the compensation adequate, still am I privileged to withdraw from his service. But does this hold true without exception? Will this same hold good in all circumstances and under all considerations? Let us take an instance which is not only quite possible, but highly probable. We will suppose that a railroad has in its employ, in a remote and very sparsely inhabited district, a man whose duties are those of telegraph operator and signal man combined. This employee tires of his position. It is too lonely and dull, and, becoming dissatisfied, he determines to resign his post. He telegraphs to headquarters that he is going to quit work. Would he have the right to leave his post before the company has had time to substitute a man in his place? Assuredly not. The safety of many lives and the security of a vast amount of property depend upon his faithfully remaining. Here it is very evident that he is morally bound to wait until his successor has arrived to fulfil the necessary duties which he is about to leave. This is a case so patent that the common sense of every one instantly declares that it is his *duty* to remain. But suppose the railroad company telegraphs in reply to our signal man that it is utterly impossible for them to fill his position with a competent man short of a fortnight. Is he morally obligated to remain at his post during the interval? In this latter instance his obligation may seem not so clear, for it may be argued that the failure of the company to supply the vacancy is not his fault, and, as it is the company's place to care for the lives and property in its trust, their safety or danger is entirely beyond the question of his leaving. While it is undoubtedly true that it is the company's place to see the post competently filled, and equally true that the company is liable for any injury to life or property in its charge, it is also undoubtedly false that the company's responsibilities relieve the signal man from his obligation of remaining for the fortnight required to fill his place. The reason is not far to seek; for, as a matter of fact, the safety or danger of the life and property on the road is not beyond the question of the signal man's leaving. His obligations here take a wider range than mere duty to the company, for on his stay or his departure depend the safety of many lives and the security of valuable property, and these relations, which morally bind him, absolutely forbid the desertion of his post. Outside of his duty toward the company, the broader and higher duty to his fellow-man and the rights of property obligates him. This instance, therefore, *the right to work or not to work at will does not cover*, and there are innumerable other instances to show that a general proposition does not always apply.

So much for individual cases. But how does this conclusion fit into the larger question of strikes, when organized labor throws down the pick and refuses to lift a finger in the cause of industry until its grievances, real or imaginary, have been adjusted? Under certain circumstances it is evident that the individual cannot quit at will, even with just cause. Does the same hold true with regard to organized labor, when it acts as a corporate body? Let us here take as an example not only a probable case, but one which more than once has occurred—the preconcerted cessation of labor on a vast system of railways, such as is commonly known as a strike. And it must be noted that a strike means to a labor organization not only that its members shall leave off work, but that no work shall be done at all; otherwise, striking would be futile, and forfeit the very object it endeavors to accomplish. The grievance on account of which the strike has been ordered we will suppose legitimate, and in justice demands rectification. Wages have been reduced ten per cent., and the men refuse to continue work unless the old rates are reestablished. At once several thousand men quit, leaving the roads inactive. Now, a large section of country is dependent upon these roads as the highways of its traffic and its commerce. Through these channels its industries are fed and its prosperity nourished. Agricultural products are conveyed to their markets over these railroad lines, and in turn the cities send forth their manufactured products and provision stuffs to the rural districts and towns. What results from this choking off of the arteries of commerce? In the first place the capital invested in the property of the roads themselves stands idle and immediately becomes unproductive, yielding neither earnings to the investors nor wages to labor. Business at once stagnates and industry languishes. Factories, mills, and foundries shut down for lack of supplies; their capital, like that of the railroads, lies non-productive, and the labor dependent upon it is thrown out of employment. Prices at once ascend the scale, owing to a dearth of supplies, which increases as long as the strike continues. Provisions and fuel become dearer, and labor itself suffers even to starvation and utter misery. For how will labor live under the distress which it has brought upon itself? This hardly looks like coöperation—labor starving labor to right its wrongs. Surely this is a picture of a house divided against itself; the cutting off one's right hand to avenge the left. Moreover, to aggravate its hardships, labor taxes labor to support itself through the trying ordeal; for labor must live, and since it refuses to accept the wages capital proffers, it can only live upon itself, and this means self-consumption—in the end, suicide. Besides, capital suffers in being paralyzed, and the crippling of capital is but another blow at labor; for it is out of the enterprise of capital that labor is paid, and capital that earns nothing can pay nothing. In short, the entire community suffers—the manufacturer, the merchant, the mechanic, the hod-carrier, all alike. Capital and labor both feel the disorder, the latter of course more keenly. The endless injurious consequences of this stagnation of all commercial activity ramify in a thousand and one directions, causing distress and harm incalculable. Pitiless retaliation! it is labor itself which is forced to bear the brunt of the war. It is as if one-half of an army turned upon the other half, and, levelling their muskets at the breasts of their fellow-soldiers, delivered a merciless volley, in the deluded belief that somehow or other their missiles of destruction would reach the enemy.

Balancing, therefore, in the scales the end aimed at as the ultimate good of the strike, and the widespread disorder actually resulting from the refusal of labor to perform its duties in the great workshop of industry, which side morally outweighs the other? Is the advance of wages ten per cent. sufficient compensation for all the harm inflicted by the methods employed? In point of dollars there is no question of the disproportion, for the loss to capital and also to labor in this respect is incomparably greater than the gain of ten per cent. Certainly industry and capital have gained nothing, but suffered much. Outside of its loss in money has labor gained anything worthy of its tremendous sacrifice, blind though it has been? This can only be determined by taking into consideration the end in view and the means employed to reach that end. The supposition is that the end is good, namely, the obtaining of just wages. The means have plainly been hurtful to all concerned, causing a huge waste of the substantial things of life by crippling industry, prostrating commerce, and paralyzing the uses of capital. In consequence labor itself has suffered, poverty and misery of all kinds following inevitably upon the track of this forced inactivity of all branches of livelihood; contracts have been violated by the thousand; disease and crime have battened upon this unnatural condition of things, and the moral tone of the community lowered in proportion to these disastrous results.

Associated, therefore, with the means have been inevitable consequences, which, if we reflect, are seen to be in reality a part of the means; for the object of labor in striking has been to force these results upon capital, in order to injure it, and by so doing compel it to resume operations upon terms dictated by the frightful necessity of the emergency, or, in other words, upon the terms dictated by labor. That this is true becomes evident when it is seen that labor strikes only become effective by bringing about a demoralized condition of the community. The mere cessation of labor is not all the means, but this with its necessary consequences. It is clear, therefore, that the means are in themselves bad. Can it be said that the end justifies them, in the sense that they are the last resort of a desperate population in self-defence? There is some truth in this view of the matter. If labor be so ground down by the tyranny of capital that its only method of self-preservation is a final resort to the pernicious means of a strike, then are such methods justifiable. But this is a state of affairs which, in view of the nature of the country's institutions, is likely always to remain hypothetical. Capital, generally speaking, can never afford to strangle the true interests of labor, for its dependence upon labor is manifest, although in many isolated cases we have witnessed the cruel pressure brought to bear upon the laboring

classes by greedy monopolists. If capital were universally to resort to a system of extortion from the wages of its employees, it would simply be making the rope to go around its own neck. There may be here and there a capitalist so blinded by greed as not to see this. But the intelligence of capital in general, it is to be trusted, is never likely to permit itself to stumble into such a pitfall. If the glitter of gain should ever blind it to the frightful consequences, the retribution which awaits it is certain.

The only compensation which can be argued in favor of a strike is its moral effect in clearly demonstrating to capital the latter's dependence upon labor, and the necessity of dealing fairly with it. The first point needs no demonstration, for capital cannot help but see that an absolute condition of its use is the employment of labor. On the other hand, it may be said that a strike equally demonstrates the necessary dependence of labor upon capital, for labor starves unless paid by capital. There is, however, a moral point gained in practically showing capital that it must be just in its dealings with labor, and this is the sole good that can ever flow from a strike. Does this gain warrant the means? Comparing the immense evils concomitant with the use of the means, it cannot be doubted that the sin, the misery, the crime, the disorder, and the general demoralized condition of the community largely outweigh the good attained.

The means being bad in themselves are immoral, and only on the supposition that they are a last resort in a desperate necessity are they tolerable, and then only on the grounds of self-defence and the principle that of two evils the choice of the lesser is allowable. The question therefore resolves itself into this: Are strikes (using the word in its fullest sense as a means of preventing the uses of capital) the only means labor has in its power to obtain redress for its grievances? Most assuredly not under our form of government, where the laboring classes have an equal share with capital in making the laws and in building up the institutions of the country. Through legislation, arbitration, public opinion (and labor makes up a large part of public opinion), the end can be gained without violence or lawlessness, and until these have failed, redress by means of strikes is both unwise and immoral.

If strikes were merely a discontinuance of labor, with neither positive nor negative interference with the enterprises of capital, then, indeed, there would be no question of right or wrong. But in its very nature a strike cannot be this. It must interfere with capital in order to gain its ends. It goes without saying that positive interference is wrong. What about a negative interference, that is to say, when labor is so well organized and combined that its simple withdrawal effects all the results which a positive interference under other circumstances alone could bring about? Still would it be wrong, for whatever the method the same results obtain. Disorder reigns, and the community suffers in the thousand various ways which have been already shown.

In addition to the evils which we see resulting from a strike, there is another phase of such movements which amounts to an assumption of tyrannical authority. Congress itself has not the power to suspend the traffic of the country. Yet such is the very nature of a strike, and that with direct intent. Strikes are nothing more nor less than a declaration that all traffic must cease, and that commerce must wait upon the adjustment of labor's grievances. To be effective, strikes must attain this end. It cannot be too often repeated that this is the intended result of strikes, and that it is a mere quibbling to argue that the suspension of traffic is only an indirect and accidental result. The object is to attain a redress of grievances, and the mere cessation of labor without interference will never gain this end. Positive or negative interference must be brought to bear, and either is wrong except as a means of self-preservation when all other means fail.

To work or not to work at will is not, therefore, a proposition applicable under all circumstances. Besides the employee's duty to his employer, in many cases there is the larger and more binding obligation to the community; and to obtain redress of private wrongs at the costly price of violating all those duties which man owes to his fellow-man and to society is a wrong which will in time bring its own revenge. The individual, therefore, who abets and allies himself with organized lawlessness, whose purpose is to sacrifice the public good to gain its own ends, commits a public crime, and such movements as strikes are nothing more than organized immoralities. To do a *little* good, a *great* wrong may not be done. CONDÉ B. POLLEN.

A GOVERNMENTAL BOYCOTT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A paragraph is going the rounds of the Virginia papers to the effect that "the Indemnifying Board of the State, consisting of the Governor, two Auditors, Treasurer, and Attorney-General, are about to have published [posted?] a list of names of the taxpayers who tender coupons in payment of their taxes. In this way it is expected that the cold shoulder will be shown to merchants and others who"—take advantage of the constitutional law of the United States!

Is not this a shameless proceeding? and has Governor Lee the right thus to hold up to public contempt the names and characters of those who are fully as honest as himself, and whose only crime is that they prefer one sort of lawful money to another? VIRGINIA.

GRIMM ON ROMAN VANDALISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your note in the current number, page 320, first column, you do inadvertent injustice to Prof. Herman Grimm in the statement that the outcry of the clerical press of Rome against the destruction of monuments "has been incautiously caught up in Germany" by him. His article in the March *Rundschau* ("Die Vernichtung Roms") has the form of a letter from Rome, and claims to be based upon personal observation of the alleged vandalism.—Respectfully yours,

MELVILLE B. ANDERSON.

KNOX COLLEGE, GALESBURG, ILL., April 17, 1886.

STYLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Gossip about the secrets of style is never untimely nor out of place, and a little touch of it enlivens the pages of that melancholy book, Amiel's 'Journal.' The advice that he bestows on himself as an author brings to mind much that other authors have said about the art of writing, and thereby becomes the more interesting and suggestive.

Speaking of the use of synonyms, M. Amiel says (in other language) that it is well one's team of words should be adapted to the subject and occasion; a writer should sometimes drive at full speed with a single epithet; sometimes with four, magnificently; sometimes, *à la Russe*, with three; sometimes even with a tandem; perhaps more safely with the usual two. Or, in Amiel's own phrase: "The use of the single word gives force, the doubled word gives clearness by stating the two extremities of the series [rather, one might feel, by each word indicating and emphasizing the shade of meaning to be attached to the other], the tripled word gives completion by furnishing the beginning, middle, and end of the idea [?], the quadrupled word gives richness by enumeration." He points out that a multiplicity of phrases which are so many corrections and successive approximations, indicates a "gropingness" of intelligence (*le tâtonnement*), and he counsels (himself specially) to practise the use of the single word—"the off-hand stroke"—no "repentir" (known to painters as a "pentimento"). He adds: "There is a sort of courage about singleness of phrase which implies self-confidence and clearsightedness."

All this may connect itself, indirectly, with what Rivarol said of Dante's verse, not with perfect truth, however, that "il se tient debout par la seule force du substantif et du verbe sans le concours d'une seule épithète." And it suggests the style for which Montaigne animatedly avowed his liking—a style "simple et naïf, . . . succulent et nerveux, court et serré, . . . véhément et brusque"; where, in his untranslatable phrase, "chasque loppin y face son corps," every bit is a whole.

But the most interesting, perhaps, of Amiel's remarks is this: "I certainly feel that at bottom there is but one right expression"; and his English editor has done well to bring to recollection in a note the insistance on the same conviction by La Bruyère, who says: "Among all the different expressions which may render a single one of our thoughts, there is but one which is fitting: we do not always come across it in speaking or writing: it is certain, nevertheless, that it exists, and that anything which is not it is feeble, and does not satisfy a thoughtful man who desires to make himself understood."

Flaubert believed not that we "come across" this fitting expression easily always, but that always we may discover it: "By force of seeking I find the right expression, which was the only one, and which is at the same time the one harmonious in sound. The word never fails when you have the idea." And this takes us back to Montaigne, again, where he says: "Horace does not content himself with a superficial expression—it would play him false; his wit picks the lock of and rummages in (*crochette et furette*) the whole magazine of words and figures to clothe itself."

M. Amiel, in another connection than the passages already quoted, declares that Renan—and he does not count it to his shame—is more heartily a writer than a man of science. "If need were, he would sacrifice exactness to fine phrases [*le dire exact au bien dire*]." "Son but, c'est le style." "A beautiful page is ten times more precious to him than the discovery of a fact or the rectification of a date. And on this point I am of the same mind, for a beautiful page is beautiful by virtue of a kind of truth truer than the record of authentic facts. Rousseau was also of this opinion. A chronicler may find inaccuracies in Tacitus, but Tacitus survives all the chroniclers. . . . If I desired anything, it would be to be a writer, a great writer."

How glad one would be if there were a few more *crochetteurs et furetteurs* in our day than there are; not, like our modern euphuists, draping their puny thoughts in unfitting garments of elaborate splendor, but stalwart wooers of the word, like Flaubert, who strictly meditate the muse, and who feel with Montaigne that the mastery of admirable expression, "je ne dis pas que c'est Bien dire, je dis que c'est Bien penser." Yet, after all, in the deepest sense, no one by taking thought can add a cubit to his style, any more than to his stature. As Amiel says:

> "Quiconque est loup agisse en loup,
> C'est le plus certain de beaucoup."

A PICKER AND STEALER.

IMPERFECT TRANSLATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a leisure moment it occurred to me to compare Carlyle's translation of Goethe's 'Wilhelm Meister' with the original. I found my work profitable and interesting. Opening the original at random, and beginning with book 4, chapter 16, of the "Lebrjahre," I found the following imperfections in the first paragraph: Carlyle confounds "abmerken" with "aufmerken," and translates it 'to note down,' instead of 'to catch, divine, discern, detect, or apprehend.' Thus, "Sie merkte Wilhelmen seine Grundsätze ab," is rendered 'She noted down the principles of Wilhelm.' It should be: 'She caught Wilhelm's principles.' Again, "Sie befliss sich des Singens ihm zu gefallen," is translated 'She took pains in singing for his pleasure.' It should have been: 'To please him she sang diligently,' in the sense of to practise and study singing. The conclusion of this latter sentence is wholly changed in the translation and made a mere commonplace, while the original is an observation that excites thought. Other objections that could be made to the same paragraph might be considered hypercritical, and yet the whole is not the best conceivable reproduction of the original. On the other hand, it is difficult to believe that, taking the entire work, another than Carlyle would have done as well.

Surely, the ability to translate correctly is a rare gift. It requires not only a thorough knowledge of both languages, but also the ability to fully comprehend the author and accurately reproduce his thoughts, coupled with unflinching devotion to one's task, surrender and subordination of self, and last, but not least, time, ample time. A "photograph," as suggested by "A Lover of Trustworthy Work" in his despair, is hardly possible. Every translation seems of necessity an interpretation. Now let some one of our critics try his hand! Oscar Reuter.

Denver, April 20, 1886.

Notes.

The place of the late Sampson Low, as agent for nearly forty years of Harper & Bros., in London, is to be filled by Mr. James R. Osgood.

The same publishers have nearly ready 'George Eliot and her Heroines,' by Mrs. Abba Goold Woolson; and 'Joseph the Prime Minister,' by the Rev. W. M. Taylor, D.D.

'Socialism and Christianity,' by A. J. F. Behrends, D.D., will be published in May by Baker & Taylor.

Apropos of the announcement that the London Browning Society has authorized Mr. Arthur Symons, of Nuneaton, to publish a history of "Sordello," we can state there has been a call for a reprint of an article on that poem, by Mrs. Caroline H. Dall, written more than thirty years ago, and published very incorrectly in 1872. Two hundred copies of this pamphlet of thirty-six pages are offered to the public through Roberts Bros., Boston, at thirty cents each. A second edition of Mrs. Dall's recent summary Life of Shakspere is in the binder's hands.

The second part of Count Leo Tolstoi's stupendous novel, 'War and Peace,' has now been issued in Harper's Franklin Square Library. It pictures the invasion of Russia in 1807-1812. The translation is still Clara Bell's, "revised and corrected" for the latitude of the Copyright Office: but the genius of the author shines through all the defects which were pointed out in these columns in the previous instalment, and which examination or casual reading will surely discover in the present.

Under the title "Macmillan's Summer Reading Series," Macmillan & Co. propose to issue during the next few months a cheap, fifty-cent series, in paper covers, of popular novels and other works suitable for holiday reading. New stories by Mrs. Oliphant, W. E. Norris, and others, and new editions of Mr. Crawford's, Mr. Shorthouse's, Charles Kingsley's, and Miss Yonge's well-known tales, will compose the series, in which 'Mr. Isaacs' leads off. The same firm will shortly have ready, in their "Globe Readings from Standard Authors," a fifty-cent edition of Palgrave's 'Golden Treasury of English Songs and Lyrics.'

Appleton's 'Annual Cyclopædia for 1885' closes a ten-year series, and includes an index to the ten volumes. It would have been worth while to recapitulate here alphabetically, under "Obituaries," the several names recorded during the decade; and we must again call the editor's attention to the defect in the regular Obituary Department, by which no notice is given of longer biographies of deceased persons arranged under the general alphabet, *e. g.*: McClellan, Grant, McCloskey, etc. General Grant's military career, by the way, is reviewed in twelve pages by Gen. Horace Porter. Under Canada we find a convenient narrative of the Riel rebellion. Under Knights of Labor one may read their Declaration of Principles; but, on the whole, the account of the organization is meagre—perhaps inevitably so. Typographically, the full-face letter employed in this volume is too condensed for ready legibility. The portrait and other illustrations are numerous. A good map or two would have been welcome.

As the persons who stand in need of 'Don't' (D. Appleton & Co.) would naturally desire to carry it about them, the vest-pocket form just given it by the publishers approves itself. Its red borders, rounded corners, and full-gold cloth binding make it very pretty.

The 'Life and Adventures of Baron Trenck' have come round again in "Cassell's National Library." Goldsmith's "She Stoops to Conquer" and "The Good-Natured Man" make another volume of the little series edited by Prof. Morley; the 'Voyages and Adventures of Sir John Maundeville' a third.

Somewhat larger in size and of equal cheapness is "Routledge's World Library," which is begun by John Anster's version of Goethe's 'Faust,' also, by the way, printed in Harper's Handy Series.

Mr. Appleton Morgan has undertaken to carry forward the Shakesperian bibliography which is one of the great features of Allibone's 'Dictionary of Authors.' His 'Digest Shakespeareanæ'—we must remark once more on the solecism of this feminine genitive singular—has begun to be published in the Papers of the New York Shakspere Society. Part 1 includes titles A–F, topically arranged, no authors' names appearing in the alphabet.

We have already commented on several of the papers of which abstracts are published in the Proceedings of the American Historical Association at Saratoga last September, just issued by G. P. Putnam's Sons. In this pamphlet we have also glimpses of the debates or conversation which ensued upon the reading of the papers.

From John Murphy & Co., Baltimore, we receive the pamphlet Report of the Organization of the American Economic Association, of which Dr. Richard T. Ely is secretary. This organization took place at Saratoga at the time of the sittings of the American Historical Association. Its "statement of principles" implies a leaning toward state socialism, but a foot-note expressly reserves liberty of opinion to members.

Nos. 2-3 and 4 in the fourth series of Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science deal with Town Government in Rhode Island (William E. Foster), the Narragansett Planters (Edward Channing), and Pennsylvania Boroughs (W. P. Holcomb).

We have also received two numbers in the new Philosophical Papers published by the University of Michigan—the first, on University Education, by Prof. G. S. Morris; the second, on Goethe and the Conduct of Life, by Prof. Calvin Thomas.

Our readers have been kept abreast of the *Century* from month to month, and there is little need to speak of the bound volume (ix. of the new series, November, 1885–April, 1886) now before us. The war papers; Mr. Cable's Creole songs and dances; the Italian tour of Mr. and Mrs. Pennell; the illustrations of Barye's works, and the series of dog types, are among the most notable features. Mr. James's 'Bostonians' was brought to a close in this volume.

In the March *Macmillan's* much sense and humor distinguishes an unsigned article on "A Century of Books"—or the lists of the hundred best to be recommended which the *Pall Mall Gazette* extracted from Ruskin, Swinburne, and others, on a hint given by Sir John Lubbock in a lecture at the Working Men's College. "If a reader vaguely wishes to 'improve his mind,' how," the writer asks, "can any list be made? The thing is absurd, unless you know what little there is to be known about the intellect in question. . . . Of all feeble folk the feeblest are those who meander about asking to be educated." "The literature is good for us which we find to be good in our progress through books and among men—not the literature which is highly recommended to us."

The article "Shelley and Vegetarianism" in the April *Booklore* (New York: D. G. Francis) presents the poet in a phase little known to the public at large, and gives a facsimile of the title-page of his excessively rare 'Vindication of Natural Diet' (1813). His poetry may be said to be its best vindication. Seldom can one obituary review in *Booklore* cover three such eminent names as those of Edward Edwards, formerly of the British Museum, afterwards librarian of the Manchester Public Library, and a voluminous author and editor; Henry Bradshaw, of the Cambridge University Library; and Henry Stevens.

The *Manchester Quarterly* for April opens with a paper on "Thomas Rowlandson and His Works," by Harry Thornber, who has drawn freely from Grego's life of the great caricaturist, and has been permitted by Mr. Grego to copy some of Rowlandson's designs in his possession. Eight in all are reproduced in facsimile from this and other sources.

A writer in the *Auk* for April (New York: L. S. Foster) is impatient over the multiplication of monographs on the bird which furnishes a name to the magazine. Mr. Symington Grieve, in his great quarto published last year, goes into an elaborate discussion of the number of skins of the Great Auk preserved in the museums, and from his enumeration as corrected by his reviewer it would appear that there are 78 or 79.

At a time when the shade of Beaconsfield is being invoked by the despair party in English politics, Cassell's *Magazine of Art* for May secures Mr. Saintsbury's pen for letter-press which is, after all, but an excuse for a number of portraits of the Jingo statesman. Not conclusive, certainly, as argument, but highly amusing, is the page of grouped caricatures of Dizzy redrawn from *Punch* (1844-1882), from Doyle to Linley Sambourne, by way of Charles Keen, Leech, John Tenniel, and Harry Furniss. We notice in this number of the magazine some very successful applications of "process" to photographs, especially from statuary.

The *Portfolio* for April is unusually attractive, in text and illustrations. The Laocoon group is discussed with the aid of copies of the original

and of a seal in the possession of Lord Arundell of Wardour, from which latter (if its antiquity be guaranteed) we may surmise the true action of the restored limbs. Mr. Hamerton's chapters on Imagination in Landscape Painting are accompanied by a fine mezzotint after Salvator Rosa's "Mercury and the Woodman." Another mezzotint is interesting as an attempt to reproduce the effect of water-color by novel devices in the etching, which we need not specify. The editor regards it as successful, and so it seems to us. We mention finally Helen Zimmern's sketch, with numerous facsimile reproductions, of the life of Daniel Chodowiecki, the great book illustrator of the last century, the publication of whose illustrated diary is one of the pleasures in store for us.

In Nos. 522–525 of *L'Art* (Macmillan) there is one preëminent engraving, an etching after Franz Hals's portrait of his son Harman, in which subject and treatment alike call for admiration. We must not omit, either, a forcible etching after Delacroix's Dante and Virgil in their Styx voyage. Some exquisite vases are depicted in the articles on the Stein collection. The only literary paper is a short one, by Arthur Heulhard, on Charles Carmoy, an artist who was the contemporary, friend, and neighbor of Rabelais; the writer being of the mind that while Rabelais's alleged artistic ability cannot be established, he can be shown to have been in friendly relations with many French and foreign artists.

With its twelfth annual series of autotype views, the Society for Photographing Relics of Old London brings its most intelligent and laudable labors to a close. The prospectus of the twelve photographs deliverable during the coming month is before us. They embrace St. John's Gate, Clerkenwell; old houses in the Strand; Great St. Helen's; Tennis Court, James Street, Haymarket; Lady Dacre's Almshouses; Queen Anne's Gate; Court-room, New River Company; three doorways, and as many chimney-pieces; and a sheet of bric-à-brac, so to say—minor architectural features. A few mounted copies of each of the twelve sets (1875—1886) are still procurable at a cost of ten guineas; these, when exhausted, will not be replaced. Single sets may also be procured for a short time. Early notification should be sent to the Honorary Secretary, Mr. Alfred Marks, 155 Adelaide Road, London, N. W.

Mr. Christern sends us the illustrated catalogue of the current International Exposition in Black and White and Pastels and Aquarelles at Paris. The list comprises 1,414 entries, of which just 100 have been reproduced by "process." Some of these are book illustrations; not a few are "after" Holbein, Raphael, Phidias, Ziem, the Dresden "Chocolate Girl," etc., and imply very useful and instructive renderings. Those which will perhaps make the catalogue most prized intrinsically are the dozen or more portraits of painters sketched by themselves, such as Jules Breton's, or Henner's—in which latter the artist's dislike of a firm outline is as marked as in his brush work.

Again the essay is made to establish a *Public Opinion* weekly newspaper in this country—this time at Washington, where, so far as we know, the experiment is novel. The publishers seem to think that city "the best point of observation," though what the exchange table and the scissors have to do with the point of observation is not clear. The first number has some good features.

'The Nineteenth Century Almanac' (Philadelphia: Allen, Lane & Scott), is a convenient collection of calendars, 1800-1900, with a passable collection of anniversary and (from 1876) of centennial dates.

The most significant passage in the eighth annual report of the Providence Public Library is that which relates to an understanding with the Athenæum and the Brown University Library in regard to the purchase of a certain class of books. A single copy may serve the purposes of the entire city, and according as it should more fitly be accessible in one or other of these collections, its purchase is ordered or avoided by the others. This economy might well be practised in other cities.

South America is the sole topic of No. 121 of the Journal of the Berlin Geographical Society. H. Polakowsky begins a contribution to the history of the discovery and conquest of Chile, and there are two papers on the expedition so successfully planned and executed in October of last year by Gen. Benjamin Victorica, the Argentine War Minister, to the Gran Chaco. A map shows how he pushed the military frontier back to the line of the River Bermejo, thus cutting off the access of the wild Indians of the central Chaco to those of the southern, and guaranteeing security to the settlers who, it is now expected, will be attracted in great numbers to the fertile tableland lying to the south and west of the Bermejo.

The Dominion Government last year ordered a report on the agricultural colleges and experimental stations of the United States, and this has just been published at Ottawa from the pen of Prof. William Saunders. We presume that nowhere else can such a summary view be had of these institutions, their constitution, scope, and practical influence.

An important monograph on 'Insects Affecting the Orange,' by H. G. Hubbard, illustrated with numerous cuts and colored plates, has just been issued by the United States Department of Agriculture.

In Matvei Ivanovitch Muravieff-Apostol, who died in Moscow early in March, at the age of ninety-four, Russia probably lost the last of the notable Dekabrists, or December-men, as are called in her history the actors in the military insurrection of December, 1825, which aimed at preventing Nicholas from ascending the throne made vacant by the death of his brother Alexander I., and at the substitution of a liberal constitutionalism for Czarist autocracy. His brother Sergei was one of the most active and prominent leaders of the conspiracy, and, after a fight in which their brother Ippolit fell and he himself was wounded and captured, was executed on the gallows in St. Petersburg. Matvei was sent to Siberia, and there he remained to near the close of his long life. On his coronation in Moscow, Czar Alexander III. restored to him with his own hand the cross of St. George, which he had forfeited in 1825. The Muravieff-Apostols are a branch of the ancient boyar family of the Muravieffs, a family largely and variously represented in the modern history of Russia.

—"A Lover of Trustworthy Work" sends us, apropos of the discussion over *préau* in the sense of meadow, the following illustration of this sense being ("inusité," perhaps, as Littré asserts, but) not "entirely obsolete." The extract is from page 54 of the second volume of Turgeneff's 'Mémoires d'un Seigneur russe,' translated by Ernest Charrière (1885):

"J'ai un voisin qui est . . . chasseur. . . . Je me rendis chez lui à cheval et lui proposai d'aller chasser à la caille. Il y consentit. . . . Nous partîmes. . . . Arrivés à l'exploitation, nous entrâmes dans des taillis. 'Attendez-moi ici sur le *préau*,' dit mon voisin. . . . Nous regagnâmes le *préau*."

—The first number has appeared of the *Political Science Quarterly*, edited by the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia College. Each member of the Faculty contributes an article. The introduction is by Prof. Munroe Smith, in the form of a short paper on the "Domain of Political Science," his object being to make clear the relations and the distinction between the science of the State and the other sciences that treat of men in their social relations. Prof. Burgess discusses "The American Commonwealth: Changes in its relation to the Nation." Prof. Goodnow writes on the "Collection of Duties," comparing the provisions of our customs law for the prevention of undervaluation with the safeguards adopted in other countries. Prof. R. M. Smith examines "American Labor Statistics," with a result that can hardly be called flattering te our statisticians. Of the sixteen bureaus of industrial statistics maintained in this country, five have as yet published no reports, and ten others have pursued such defective methods in the collection of data, or have collected on so meagre a scale, as to have substantially nothing to offer that is worth considering. The Massachusetts bureau alone, under the able management of Commissioner Carroll D. Wright, has succeeded in producing work that can be regarded as possessing statistical value. Even in the Massachusetts reports Prof. Smith finds that many of the averages are made on a faulty principle. His article merits careful attention on the part of our collectors of labor statistics. Prof. Whitridge treats of "Legislative Inquests," and concludes, from a review of their use in this country, that the powers of inquest and of committal for contempt have been greatly abused and ought to be restricted. Prof. De Leon contributes a lengthy paper on the Berlin Conference on the West African question. He goes very fully into the history of negotiations between the countries of Europe in reference to the Congo question, making the German intervention of 1884 the objective point of his treatment. The motives and consequences of that intervention he describes with clearness and vigor. He is justly severe on the conduct of the American representatives at the Conference, Messrs. Kasson and Sanford. In addition to these leading articles, the *Quarterly* contains a number of short notices of books in political science. Altogether, the first number gives promise that the new publication will fill a useful place among our periodicals. The typography and general appearance are inviting. The style of the articles, if not brilliant, is at least clear and effective. There is perceptible here and there a slightly socialistic flavor in the way of regarding the state that may prove harmful if it should be allowed to grow stronger. But there is little danger of that, we apprehend.

—Critical readers of the first number of the *Quarterly* will be likely to find more from which to dissent in Prof. Burgess's article than in any other. His whole point of view is not likely to commend itself to Americans who value their institutions. It is a Frenchman's view of Federal Government, a doctrinaire view, rather than the practical view of an Anglo-Saxon. Prof. Burgess's main thesis is a virtual denial of the possibility of Federal government as a permanent arrangement. The doctrine that our Constitution rests on a basis of "immutable and indestructible States" he rejects as nonsense. He regards the States as merely convenient districts for "jural and police" purposes. Of sovereignty they have no part. As colonies they were subject to the English Crown and Parliament. At the Revolution the sovereignty wrested from the English King passed by devolution to the Continental Congress. The new-born States, as matter of law and right, held the same relation to the Congress as they had previously held to the English Crown. The assumption of any greater powers or freedom in the early State constitutions Prof. Burgess sets down as usurpation. This usurpation, he admits, was ratified by

the Articles of Confederation; but the Constitution placed the usurping States back again in their proper position of subjection. The course of things since 1789, he holds, has lowered still further the position and powers of the individual State. Its present position between the two "natural elements" of our system, the nation and the municipality, he regards as precarious and in the long run untenable. In proof of this he compares recent State constitutions with those of the early days, and finds that the powers of the State Legislatures and Governors have been greatly abridged. The fallacy of this reasoning consists in the assumption that the powers taken away from the State Legislatures have been lost to the States. The fact is, that the restrictions imposed on the State governments are in the main wholesome restrictions suggested by experience. Many of them would probably have been imposed on Congress also if the process had been as easy and simple as it is in the case of the State Legislatures. Further, if the people of any State have imposed limitations on the powers of their representative bodies, they are free to remove the limitations at any time. Such restrictions surely imply no loss of power or dignity on the part of the State itself. As well might one argue that the limitations and restrictions placed on the action of Congress lessen by so much the sovereignty of the United States.

—The widow of Wendell Phillips died in Boston on Saturday evening, at the age of seventy-three. This event will cause only gladness in those who have known the forlorn condition in which the wife of the great orator and philanthropist was left, when he was taken away from her who had no other solace and support. Long years of invalidism had made her nearly bed-ridden, and, between her real sufferings and her apprehensions, her life for the past two years has been pitiable in the extreme. Mrs. Phillips, whose maiden name was Ann T. Greene, was related to the Chapman family, of which the late Mrs. Maria Weston Chapman was a member by marriage, and at the house of Mr. Henry Chapman she was married some fifty years ago to the young lawyer whose life-work she was largely to determine and to support. The Chapmans were already deeply involved in the anti-slavery movement, and after the Boston mob of October, 1835, Mr. Phillips was ripe for the dedication of his genius to the same cause. The result was a social isolation which Mrs. Phillips's feeble health only emphasized, but her sick chamber became a well-spring of cheer and inspiration to her husband's anti-slavery zeal and activity, to which he bore many touching testimonies in public and private. Her benevolence in other ways ran parallel with his own, and no memorial to him would be complete which denied her an equal share of human sympathy, self-denial, and even courage. That she should outlive him seemed not only contrary to nature, but to the perfect union which subsisted between them.

—Persons whose attention has not been specially directed to the philosophy of the subject, after supposing consumption to be inherited and ague to depend on swamps, group diseases generally under two heads: those that are "caught," like measles and scarlet fever, and those that "happen," like apoplexy and heart disease. Beyond that is mystery. Such will find 'The Pedigree of Disease,' a course of six lectures on temperament, idosyncrasy, and diathesis, delivered before the Royal College of Surgeons by Mr. Jonathan Hutchinson, and beautifully reprinted by Wm. Wood & Co., attractive and instructive. Although addressed to a professional audience and presupposing a professional acquaintance with certain fundamental facts, the style is clear and easy, and the general reader will probably be led by its fluency to think he understands it all, while really absorbing a part of it by mere intellectual contact. Such observations as these any one would be interested in: "The comparative immunity of those who use the fish oils as articles of food, and the prophylactic virtues of cod-liver oil among ourselves, are, I believe, established facts, and their lesson is of considerable importance in reference to the dietetic causes of scrofula" (p. 64). "Just as a man who has yielded to intemperance is in danger of becoming a drunkard, so it is with the tissues. The oftener they yield to any special process of inflammation, the more prone are they to yield again" (p. 81). "The occurrence of great difference in color between the eyes and the hair, the eyes being much lighter than the hair—as, for instance, black hair with blue eyes—is probably an indication of delicacy" (p. 14). "The rufous complexion is due not merely to deficiency but to peculiarity in quality, and is probably usually the result of a mixture of dissimilars" (p. 14). These are heteregeneous sentences casually selected.

—Dr. Julius Göbel, who has recently concluded a course of twelve lectures upon German literature at Johns Hopkins University, has contributed to the *Deutsche Schriftsteller Zeitung*, Stuttgart, for March 1, a letter upon "Amerikanisches Piratentum," which may be recommended to German readers in the United States for thoughtful perusal. The writer, who gave evidence of his earnest desire for the best future welfare of his kinsmen in this country in a series of letters addressed to Prof. Karl Biedermann, and published in 1883, under the title, "Ueber die Zukunft unseres Volkes in America," contends, in this article, that the answer to the question so often propounded in Germany, Why is there no original German-American literature developed in this country? must be sought for in the absence of honest relations between the authors of Germany and the piratical publishers of this country. The present "robber system," as he calls it, is denounced as a shame which should be suppressed as quickly as possible. The flooding of the country with dishonestly obtained and consequently cheap reprints, against which the native-born German authors cannot successfully compete, renders it impossible for the latter to earn a livelihood by literary work; and this suppression of home authorship tends to check the healthy growth of the German language in this country:

"Because," Mr. Göbel thinks, "whoever is clear-sighted will probably admit that it is not sufficient for the preservation of the German language in this country to simply import enough German books. Our American-Germans rightfully demand that their own world here, with its joys and sorrows—which is a very different world from that of our fatherland writers—should, sometimes at least, be presented to them in the mirror of art. Especially is this required by our native youth, who will only in this way understand German speech and manners and learn to love them, whereas now they turn mostly to works in the English language, because they do not understand the authors of Germany, and our own fail to satisfy this need."

—A convention for the protection of literary property, therefore, not only would be advantageous to the authors of Germany, but would benefit the German people in the United States. In the meantime, so long as no convention exists, Dr. Göbel suggests that the prominent publishers of Germany enter into negotiations with the more respectable American booksellers either to send over to the latter stereotype plates, or, through a common agent, arrange for the publication of a simultaneous authorized edition. This method would undoubtedly give the authorized American publisher the advantage incident to being first in the field, but Dr. Göbel is in error in believing that such an edition could obtain under our copyright law such protection as would enable the authorized American publisher to pursue and enjoin piratical reprints. He has been misled by supposing that the claim of "copyright" made upon the pirated editions published by George Munro, whose case he cites in illustration of the financial feasibility of his plan, secures to the publisher any rights which would be protected by our courts. Our copyright law does permit the publisher of pirated books to mark his own name upon the stolen wares, but does *not* protect books so marked as the rightful property of the thief. The case related of the fraudulent action of the publisher of a projected journal whereby the editor and designer was dispossessed of his literary property, demonstrates the need in this country of what the Germans call "Verlagsrecht," that is to say, a more clearly defined law of contracts governing agreements of all kinds between authors and editors upon the one side and printers and publishers upon the other.

ANOTHER DIARIST.—II.

Remarks and Collections by Thomas Hearne. Edited by C. E. Doble, Master of Worcester College, Oxford: for the Oxford Historical Society. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1885.

For books, printed and written, Hearne's eyes and ears are, we may be sure, very sharp, for his own sake, for the sake of letters, and for the Bodleian Library's sake. Sometimes he gives us a glimpse into rare volumes at what has caught his own eye. Thus he has seen a folio volume "in French, fairly written and curiously illuminated, containing the History and Deposition of Richard the Second. What I value it most upon," he says, "is the several Habits of that Age, which are to be known from it. Amongst the rest there is an Irish King, without Stockings, and in a very odd Bonnet upon his Head. 'Tis there said that his Horse cost him 400 Cows. Remember to ask Mr. Cherry for a Sight of this Book." No one, we think, with the least tincture of the antiquarian in him, can keep himself from sharing the wish to see it, and perhaps some of us may be so happy as to find it in the 'Chronicque de la Traison et Mort de Richart deux Roy dangleterre,' of the British Museum, or in some translated shape, illustrations and all. Hearne's was a well-guided eye. Among "the several Habits of that Age," what chiefly struck him was the head-gear of the royal barefoot, which was "very odd"; while we, who have seen a thousand times as many Irishmen as Hearne ever saw (very many of them descendants and heirs of kings), wonder first at "the Habit of that Age" of giving 400 cows for a charger, for in our day three or four pretty good cows ought to be worth a pretty good horse. We see that this kingly steed is as far out of proportion as the horse made by the dole-full Danaäns, which frightened Laocoön, and Capys, and many another Trojan man of sense. To bring the proportion right, one might have inclined to propose the shrinking of the kine into those other milch cattle, strong of head and strongly smelling, which follow the fortune of transplanted Irishmen in the outer streets of our large cities. For the queer-looking bonnet, one might at once have offered a bold guess that it was made of what remained of the stockings so conspicuously wanting to the King's feet. Hearne's staid enthusiasm lays a timely check upon any hasty critical suggestions.

It is curious to find ourselves abreast of "the IId. Edition of Psalmanazar the Formosan's Book giving an Account of his Country," and it is comfortable to find our Hearne (apparently) gratified that he was "still counted a Cheat in London." At the same time, so great and so ready were

Psalmanazar's abilities and learning, that it was no shame to be taken in by him, as many clever and learned men were. It is interesting, too, to stumble upon a critical correction of the text of Shakspere, before the days of "folios," and "quartos," and Colliers, made in a very purpose-like way. In an account 'De Nomine & Familia Barnes,' we find that one eminent member of the family "in Tragoedia *Macbeth* per errorem dictus est Steward, pro Siward." Whoever now looks at the list of characters of that play will find the name written rightly.

Mentions of books are endless, and glimpses into them abundant. Of those of that day which made a stir, Hearne's own party friends wrote their share. Leslie, known to many still as author of 'Short and Easy Methods' (with the Deists, with the Presbyterians, etc.), was busy in political as well as ecclesiastical writing. He was at Oxford at one time as Mr. Smith. Dodwell, a layman, learned as Hearne was, but engaged, as Hearne was not, in the burning discussions of the time, comes up here incessantly: he had been an early friend and had been a teacher of our diarist. One book of his was 'Epistolary Discourse, showing, from Scripture and the first Fathers, that the Soul is a Principle naturally mortal, but immortalized actually by the Pleasure of God, to Punishment or Reward, by its Union with the divine, baptismal Spirit; wherein is proved that none have the Power of giving this divine, immortalizing Spirit, since the Apostles, but only the Bishops.' This was attacked fast enough and sharply enough to keep its author warm with work. He believed "the Air the Receptacle of all souls, good and bad; these, till the Day of Judgment, being under the Power of the Devil, the Prince of the Power of the Air," who "can inflict on the souls of really good Men only some Disquietudes and Molestations, wherein they may be relieved by the Prayers of the Living."

The ticklish temper of the times in which so many pillars of the state were shaky, and none knew which were not, and in which the great body of the clergy were dissatisfied and apprehensive, is curiously shown in the case of a single pamphlet which figures in these pages almost as a living being, raising commotions, now in one place, now in another a great way off. This was '*The Memorial of the Church of England;* wherein divers Intrigues of a great Minister of State are discovered, and the Designs of the Whigs for destroying the Church are manifested.' "The Messenger of the Press is ordered, if possible, to discover the Author, Printer, and Publisher of *The Memorial of the Church of England*, there being several things in it that give great offence at Court, whilst those of the other side are wink'd at, as *The History of the Court of Poland, etc.*" Here a man was suspected of having written it; there another was taken up on that charge. Now it was "said that some great Men have given Bayle upon Mr. Stevens the Printer's appearing Evidence against them"; now several were under arrest. The Duke of Buckingham is at one time said to have written to the Lord Treasurer Godolphin to search no further, as he himself acknowledges the authorship, and is prepared to defend every statement; at another Mr. Lesley (Leslie) is said to have been required to give bail in one thousand pounds to answer for it. There was a 'Vindication of The Memorial,' and it was answered "paragraph by paragraph." The Memorial was presented by the Grand Jury, and burned by the hangman at sundry places. A Sir William Pittett, or Mr. Pettass (qu. Petty?), is "discharged from custody" for a pamphlet in connection with the burning of it. At length the Memorial goes out of the way of living men, like those once famous, evermore forgotten books of Don Quixote's library. Before that time our Hearne had comforted himself with Leslie's discovery that "the Author of *The Memorial of the Church of England* is for the independent State of Nature, & all Government to have its Original from the People, . . . an evident token that 'twas writ by . . . the Whiggish Party, and fathered upon the Honest men, on purpose to bring an odium upon them; just as Mr. Stevens (that notorious Whigg & Fanatick) his Letter . . . was layd upon High Church Men," but "was written by De-Foe, who was pillor'd for it, & glories in it, to this day."

But Hearne's sharpness of eye and ear in matters of Church, and University, and affairs of state may be judged of by his expressions in every direction. It may be granted that his party was pure, as persecuted parties are proverbially said to be. Bishops, priests, and people in it had suffered deprivation. Of the busy writers, Leslie had lost high preferments in the Church; Dodwell, a professorship at Oxford; and so with the rest. Hearne's pen puts things (about non-jurors and their opponents) strongly, and we must make some allowance for him, but cannot allow everything. Bishop Burnett, of course, comes in for suspicion and censure: in one case they are outrageous. Others, too, we may believe, get sometimes more than they deserve of praise or blame. Few English, Irish, Welsh, or Scottish people ever came under his eye without their party color, and certainly party spirit ran high and party lines were strictly drawn. It was such a time that "The Archbishop of Canterbury, 'tis said, will suspend the Prolocutor [Speaker of the Lower House of Convocation (or Synod)] next Convocation, if they continue obstinate, as the last"; and "when the Lower House . . . were ordered by the Bishops to assent to the Address to her Majesty, of their drawing-up, or else give their reasons, the Lower House, instead of giving Reasons for their Dissent, drew up Reasons why they should give none." They were standing for their rights to act and speak freely, if they acted and spoke at all. Convocation (the representative body of the Church) was near the edge of that arbitrary suspension by the state which kept the Church of England, for one hundred and fifty years, without corporate action, or deliberation, or voice—the most enslaved church whose slavery was ever called "establishment."

In one funnily-grave case (which was thoroughly worth an illustration by Hogarth), Hearne seems to be trying to administer a prosaic justice without regard to his non-juror instinct at least, if not without partisan feeling for his own university. Three Oxford dons, the Master of University, the President of Magdalen, and the Provost of Queens, had had a mighty cloud of evil speaking raised about them. They ("and perhaps some others"), says our author, in answer to Dr. T. Smith, an Oxford man in the country, "had stay'd till 9 of the clock, one evening, at the Warden's of New College," but, as to any story of their having been lighted home with nothing but silver tankards taken by mistake for lanterns, and not having found this out till it was found out for them, an ill-savored story of this sort is not to be accepted. "'Tis highly scandalous to say that they drunk to excess; the Warden of New College not being in a very good state of Health, & neither of the others noted for being hard drinkers. However, 'tis true that [the Master of University]'s boy . . . instead of carrying the Lantern, took away a Silver Tankard, which was not perceived till they came home; because the President of Magd. & Provost of Queen's accompany'd him & their men had Lantern's at the same time." Whether this judgment of our author in favor of the three Oxford great men is as satisfying or as fair as Robie Burns's in his own case,

> "We are na fou: we're no that fou,
> But just a drappie in our e'e,"

the reader shall determine after taking in one more fact from Hearne: "THE BOY . . . (who has been guilty of other such crimes) *is since turn'd off*." Did any reader ever know the guilt clapped on the wrong shoulders?—especially a master's upon a servant's? At any rate, we shall all agree, perhaps, that Hogarth could have made as good a thing of this as of any doing of his "rakes" and revellers.

Coming volumes will be fuller.

RECENT FICTION.

A Girton Girl. By Mrs. Annie Edwards. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Two College Girls. By Helen Dawes Brown. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Markof. By Henry Gréville. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers.

Roses of Shadow. By T. R. Sullivan. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Stories from Provençe. From the French of Alphonse Daudet, by S. L. Lee. Harper's Handy Series.

A Country Gentleman.—A House Divided Against Itself. By Mrs. Oliphant. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

A Cardinal Sin. By Hugh Conway. Henry Holt & Co. (Leisure Hour Series.)

Lester's Secret. By Mary Cecil Hay. Harper's Handy Series.

'A Girton Girl' and 'Two College Girls' would seem at first sight to furnish the means of comparing the English and American students, but the first title is a misnomer. 'A Would-be Girton Girl,' or 'Why Marjorie Bartrand did not go to Girton,' would have been more exact, for she gets no nearer to it than a Cambridge lodging-house. Nevertheless, we have a pleasant story of the idling life of English people in the picturesque setting of a Channel Island. Tutor and pupil present almost too obvious a combination in the first chapter, but their fortunes are so closely and cleverly interwoven with those of another pair, an artist and the beautiful wife to whose charms he is absurdly blind, that the reader has the chance for a good deal of speculation before the happy ending. The work is not so fine, so well proportioned, as Mrs. Oliphant's. The difference is most marked in the attempt at bad characters. Not that the adjective here means anything more than the universal distinction between good and bad: vanity and selfishness are the worst traits with which Mrs. Edwards has to deal; but the minor vices are the most difficult to set forth naturally. Neither the artist nor the lady who tempts him away from his wife is strongly done. She is not attractive enough to justify his inclination for her, and his conduct to his wife in that regard, as contrasted with what we are told of their former life, is nothing less than cowardly. In point of style, and still more of incident, the book is bright and attractive; far surpassing, in that last respect, American books of its class. Ours seem in contrast, to use one figure, thin, or, in another, patched with bright bits, but with long spaces of dull hue between.

In certain important respects 'Two College Girls' offers a pleasing contrast to some previous novels of the same general purpose. The author has hardly a style of her own, but she tells simply and entertainingly the story of four years of life in a college which she does not name, but which the reader will need no help from the reviewer to identify. Her heroines are chosen on the old plan of foils, and are true to the old conventional types in such stories. The unsophisticated country girl of brains and ambitions, with

sturdy New England principle at bottom, of course finds in her roommate a radiant blonde from Chicago, as scatterbrained and shallow as can be made consistent with cleverness and generosity later on. The life is one of frolics and gayeties, toned down by rare glimpses of recitation-room and chapel, and by one sad episode, plainly after "Arthur" in 'Tom Brown at Rugby.' The hero is duly provided at the outset, and the little romance is worked in and out to a fit climax over the heroine's roses in the glory of Commencement Day. Neither in scene nor in incident is there anything novel. No figure is drawn strongly enough to waken any warm personal interest, and it is possible that the author's design was to picture the general life of the place rather than individuals. The story is made superior to all its predecessors by its perfect good taste, and by a tone which pervades it throughout, and which we only imperfectly describe by calling it moral high-mindedness.

When thus much has been said, we believe we have done the book full justice. What it lacks brings us to graver questions. There is nothing in it, from the first page to the last, that is beyond or above the level of a good boarding-school. There is nothing of growing and deepening maturity, nothing of the sense of the heights and depths of learning—in short, nothing of the intellectual life. The incidents are "candy-pulls," parties, theatricals, picnics, over and again. From such a book, why should it not be thought that the life is, as one girl says her friends believe it to be, "one series of junketings"? It is not because these things are in it that we find the book so gravely at fault, but because there is nothing else. We do not forget how much of festivity there was in the life of the Oxford Tom Brown. Or, by way of extreme illustration, the extravaganza of 'Verdant Green' might be taken. Certainly that hero knew little enough of the intellectual life, but the book gave the sense that he was living in the midst of it. All the fun was intensely heightened by the contrast. Neither in that nor in Hughes's story is it possible for a moment to forget the intellectual atmosphere of the university. The question is serious. Was the author herself unable to see or to portray the real life of the students, or has she, as a faithful witness, betrayed the grievous trouble about her college? Under the last supposition, it would be a pity that the book was much heralded and has been commented on as vivid and truthful. Whether a book has something more or less in it, is a minor matter. What is the actual condition of the colleges (now no longer new) for women, is of much concern. Sensible people saw at the outset that in some things they must differ from colleges for men, but in essentials they must be one. There can be no difference in spirit if the college is the foster-mother, the home of learning, the place where the things of boyhood and girlhood are put by and the serious life of man and woman begun. (That boys and girls are often still boys and girls in college, is not to our point. It is of the spirit that must rule the place to make it worthy the name, that we are speaking.) In Miss Brown's college, lights must be out at ten o'clock. The teacher can be proud "of a fine bit of detective work." There is no moment in which dress is not of paramount importance. There are no books and no talk of books except text-books and novels, and only rarely of either. "To be uninteresting is, to the college girl's mind, the most hopeless of misfortunes." To be a senior is "a perfect social position." Perhaps this is enough for our purpose, which is to induce those who have an intelligent interest in the college education of women to read, to ponder, and to inquire. Has there not been a tendency to the comfortable conclusion that it was all-sufficient to found the colleges? It should not be forgotten that, as yet, life provides no such tests of their excellence and their effectiveness as for the old establishments for men. To make anything like what is known and valued as intellectual life out of purely feminine elements is certainly a heavy task, for at best it takes a constant guard to keep feminine life from growing trivial. All the more it is the all-important, the most imperative duty. As one step in the work, a satisfactory proof that 'Two College Girls' is not a faithful picture would be welcome.

There is nothing in 'Markof' to alter the judgment of Mme. Gréville's work recently expressed in these columns. It has been brought forward as a musical novel, but it bears no comparison with the well-known examples of the type, which more than one language has long since supplied to fiction. Sin, not less sinful because it is not actual crime, is presented as a mere incident of brilliant worldliness—no harm, no dishonor to any one. Besides the moral perversion, the story is spiritually false, for no man over whom the whirlwind has swept was ever left unscathed. That Markof should turn to the little idyl with Hélène, the instant the tempest of passion has passed, is as impossible as that one represented so noble and gentle as he should have publicly insulted her, "because it was the vengeance he had at hand" upon another woman.

Some unfavorable comment can obviously be made upon 'Roses of Shadow,' beginning with the fanciful ambiguity of the title, and going on to the broken and often interrupted plot; for the author, with the lavish hand of inexperience, starts off with three heroes, two heroines, and several side figures of consequence enough to play leading rôles for themselves. He has brought forward again the governess *rediviva*, slightly disguised as a sort of lady-help, but he is not able to justify to the mind of the reader the power she exerts over the three men. Charlotte Brontë could show it in Jane Eyre, or Becky Sharpe would be a better illustration, for Miss Gérard is a cold-blooded little fortune-hunter. Thackeray could give, so that the reader could see it, the charm that made men the worthless woman's slaves. The book as a whole is not equal to its parts, and the parts are worked out so unevenly as to fulness of detail as to make it at times a kind of Chinese perspective. Granting all these defects, the book is still very entertaining, and does not in the end leave the impression of sadness threatened by the Niagara episode. The style is at once easy and refined, conveying most happily that atmosphere of good breeding and polite society which is indispensable to the novel of manners, but which so many of them lamentably fail of. The descriptions have the pleasant quality of not too much, except perhaps the scenes at Niagara, and those are fine in themselves, only they over-weight the story. The bits of Boston are picturesque and original, and this last means the more that they come after both Mr. James and Mr. Howells. Of characters we find far more interesting than any of the leading personages an Italian artist and his New England wife, of an incongruity and a sympathy each equally delightful. The book unquestionably promises a future.

Under the title of 'Stories from Provençe,' the Harpers have published a translation of Daudet's 'Lettres de mon Moulin.' To readers of French (beyond novels) they need no commendation, and they will find only new admirers in their present shape. Though of Daudet's earlier work, they are of a style and fashion upon which he has never since improved. They are unrivalled in grace, humor, and pathos, while now and then a light, swift gleam of satire crosses the page. The visit to the poet Mistral is the most important contribution to literature in the book, but there is enough to satisfy the most different tastes, from a pair of exquisite miniatures in "An Old Couple" to the brilliant dramatic effects in the streets of the Algerine Milianah. The English version is far above the average. Probably the translator would be the first to say that the innermost charm, the delicate perfection, is as impossible of reproduction as the fresh scent of the lavender out of which the curlews called around the old mill.

The two stories by Mrs. Oliphant which oddly ran parallel in the magazines last year—oddly because one is the sequel of the other—seem her least successful work, though she still surpasses all others of to-day in her own line. The difficulties of a marriage between persons of unequal rank, aggravated by innate peculiarities of temper, was not at the outset, so to speak, a happy subject. Mrs. Oliphant is at home only when she comes to the daughters of the house. The dutiful girl, loyal to her lonely father and yet yearning for the mother whom she cannot remember, makes the sort of portraiture in which Mrs. Oliphant is at her best.

'A Cardinal Sin' and 'Lester's Secret' are put together for the sake of a common quality, not because the central idea of each is the same. Each has a lost heir, and in each he or she comes to his own, by marriage, more or less unwitting, with the possible supplanter. Both are crowded with incidents of the usual sort—forgery, kidnapping, burglary, murder; and the thread of the plot is so cunningly and provokingly entangled that no one of the class to whom such stories are addressed will drop it unfinished. It is a class in intelligence and taste far above the readers of dime-novels, and yet almost as far below the class who demand in fiction the permanent elements of literature. The books of both writers have been enormously read. They are standards in their grade. This makes very important the trait for which we have brought them forward. They are very remarkable for their entire purity. This, of course, does not place them any higher in the literary scale, but it is a strong argument against the dangerous theory that novels cannot be made interesting and exciting enough for common people without the stimulants of appeal to passion. Hugh Conway has imagined, near the close of his book, a new situation which is so powerfully worked out as to be quite out of place in the stock scenes and incidents of the rest of the book. An old man, brought up in the faith that confession means forgiveness in this world and the next, deliberately determines to sacrifice his own soul for his son, exactly as he would have laid down his mortal life for his sake. Mr. Conway puts it strongly enough to silence for the moment doubts of probability, and it may be reckoned as a strong imaginative contribution to one side of the discussion of the old question: When is confession not a duty?

RECENT HANDBOOKS OF PHILOLOGY.

THE revolution in the methods of linguistic research which has characterized German science since the year 1876, has thus far found expression almost exclusively in scattered monographs, and in such special investigations of detail as offer little attraction to the unmitiated. The seeker even for mere outlines of information could until recently be referred only to the various important discussions which are to be found scattered through the pages of Kuhn's *Zeitschrift*, Osthoff and Brugmann's *Morphologische Untersuchungen*, Paul and Braune's *Beiträge*, the *Sitzungsberichte* of different learned bodies, and in the special works of men like Leskien, Osthoff, Brugmann, Schmidt, De Saussure, Hübschmann, Sievers, Paul, Kluge, and Bartholomae. The old

standard handbooks are hopelessly obsolete. Papillon's 'Manual of Comparative Philology,' which has been much used in this country and England, never possessed any independent value, and is now worse than useless. Leo Meyer's 'Vergleichende Grammatik der griechischen und lateinischen Sprache' even in its second edition (1882) is, in point of method, a generation behind the times. Fick's 'Vergleichendes Wörterbuch der indogermanischen Sprachen' (3d edit. 1874-76) can be used only with extreme prudence, and the same must now be said even of the carefully prepared fifth edition of Curtius's Greek Etymology (1879). Vaniček's dictionaries are valuable solely for their bibliographical completeness. Corssen's 'Aussprache, Vocalismus, Betonung der lateinischen Sprache' (2d edit. 1868-70), by virtue of its admirable collections of material, will always remain a valuable compendium, but is confessedly unreliable in its explanations of the phenomena with which it deals.

It is with gratification, accordingly, that we notice of late a tendency to produce books of a summarizing character, which shall present in systematic form the results of the most recent investigations. The pioneer book of this sort was the well-known Greek grammar of Gustav Meyer (1880), which is to appear within the next few weeks in a second edition. Kluge's 'Etymologisches Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache' (1st ed., 1883, price 10½ marks), of which the fourth edition is already in preparation, is abreast of the times and the best existing etymological dictionary of any language. In May of 1885 appeared the admirably succinct Greek Grammar of Brugmann (Freiburg in Baden) and Latin Grammar of Stolz (Innsbruck), both contained in the first volume of Iwan Müller's 'Handbuch der classischen Altertums-Wissenschaft' (price per volume, 11 marks). Next followed in October, 1885, from the pen of the Strassburg professor, Hübschmann, 'Das indogermanische Vocalsystem' (price 4½ marks), a book which, essentially based upon the results of the labors of Osthoff and Brugmann, presents in clear, well-ordered form the phenomena of the Indo-European ablaut as they are understood to-day. The entire material of word-form involved is cleverly arranged in six series (*ă-, ĕ-, ŏ-, ā-, ē-, ō- Reihen*), each of which admits of the four vowel-grades (*Stufen*); *e. g.*, *dhō-* in Gothic *dōms*, 'judgment,' *dhē-* in τί-θη-μι, *dhə-* in θε-τός, *dh-* in Sanskrit *da-dh-másí*. The book presupposes no especial acquaintance with the subject, and with its fulness of illustrative material forms a most admirable handbook.

For the Germanic dialects the press of Niemeyer in Halle has been furnishing an excellent series of concise grammars from the pens of recognized authorities like Sievers, Paul, and Noreen. Now follows a supplementary series, the first volume of which, by Friedrich Kluge (Jena), 'Nominale Stammbildungslehre der altgermanischen Dialekte' (108 pp.), displays the same complete mastery of his material, the same judicious caution in pushing back among prehistoric formations, and the same marvellous compactness of statement, which characterize his etymological dictionary. A similar work for the Greek is much needed. An historical review of German syntax by Professor Behaghel (Basel) is to follow directly, and a 'Mittelenglische Grammatik,' by Kluge, is also in preparation, both to be published by Niemeyer.

Since general attention has been called to the great value of the inscriptions for an exact knowledge of the Greek dialects, a great variety of monographs upon the single dialects has appeared, all finding their point of departure in Ahrens's great work, 'De Graecae Linguae Dialectis,' now being reëdited by Richard Meister of Leipzig. For the Attic dialect as set forth in the inscriptions various valuable collections of material have been made by Wecklein, 'Curae Epigraphicae' (1869), Cauer in Curtius's 'Studien,' vol. viii, and Van Herwerden, 'Lapidum de Dialecto Attica Testimonia' (1880); but since the appearance of the 'Corpus Inscriptionum Atticarum' (Kirchhoff, Koehler, Dittenberger, 1873-83), no attempt has been made to summarize the entire material involved. We now have, however, in neat and compact form, a 'Grammatik der attischen Inschriften,' by Karl Meisterhans (Weidmannsche Buchhandlung, 1885; price 4 marks). The author, hitherto unknown to science, is now professor in the gymnasium at Solothurn (Soleure) in Switzerland, and the basis of his work was, as we understand, a doctor's thesis of the University of Zurich. This work, which covers syntax as well as word-form, will be of the highest value not alone to the linguist, but to the text-critic and classical philologian in general. Important will prove, among many other things, the fixing of doubtful points in orthography—*e. g.*, ὀβολός (not ὀβελός), but in derivatives ὀβελίσκος, διωβελία; πεῖ, χεῖ (names of letters), not πῖ, χῖ; Ἐρχομενός, but Ὀρχομενός only after 271 B. C.; ἐμπόριον, not ἐμπορεῖον; ποεῖν, ποήσω, πόησις, but before an *o*-sound ποιῶν, ἱεροποιοί, etc.; ἕνεκα, not ἕνεκεν. A few more or less important additions are suggested by Otto Reimann in the *Revue de Philologie*, ix. 169 ff.

So much we have. For that we are thankful. Meantime Brugmann is bringing to completion a 'Compendium der vergleichenden Sprachwissenschaft,' which will appear simultaneously in German and in English translation, and Osthoff is busied with the preparation of a much-needed Latin Etymological Dictionary. This unmistakable turn of the tide in the direction of completed works and systematic compendia will be welcomed by many a bewildered student and bookbuyer.

Physical Expression. Its Modes and Principles. By Francis Warner, M. D. D. Appleton & Co. 1886.

THE title of this book is somewhat vague, and so frequently is its style. The author either naturally lacks the art of literary grouping, or else he had not sufficiently reasoned out his subject to enable him to express his thoughts in clear, unmistakable language. Evidently he felt this himself, for he has appended to several of the chapters special summaries which are almost as long as the chapters themselves. Dr. Warner believes that motion, which has been so carefully and satisfactorily studied by the physical experimentalist, has not been sufficiently studied by the physiologist: "I think that movement in living beings is capable and worthy of detailed study. Following on these lines of thought, this work has been written, showing how largely the expression of vital functions may be described in terms of movement—and movement is capable of physical investigation." Expression, then, refers to the outward manifestation of any hidden force. What these vital and mental forces are the author does not attempt to investigate; and to remove all occasion for doubt he coins the special word "mentation," meaning "that physical action of the brain which is associated with the phenomena of mind." Why not the term "cerebration," commonly used in the same sense?

A distinction is made between direct and "empirical" expression. Thus, a pink flower on a geranium expresses the fact that the plant has a feeble constitution, not directly, because there is no direct causal relation between pink flowers and weak plants, but, empirically, because experience has shown us that pink-colored geraniums are found on plants whose leaves are highly colored and deficient in the chlorophyll which is essential to the plant's proper nutrition. The numerous illustrations and analogies drawn from plant life constitute one of the novel features of Dr. Warner's book, as compared with previous works on expression. And he constantly endeavors to give a practical turn to his conclusions. A useful lesson, for instance, is drawn from the analogy which children present to sensitive plants. Experiments described on page 114 show that the poorer the soil in which these plants are grown, the less robust but the more sensitive are they to the touch. Extreme sensitiveness in a child, therefore, expresses insufficient nutrition, and thus becomes a sign of value to the educator and doctor. Doctors, indeed, will be more likely than any other class of readers to reap profit from a perusal of Dr. Warner's book. The remarks made in several of the chapters are valuable as new and accurate descriptions of certain pathological states, especially epilepsy and chorea; and the remarks on and illustrations of the "nervous," the "feeble," and the "convulsive" hand, etc., in chapter ix, are a useful contribution to the study of postures. The curious fact is pointed out that the posture of the hands of the Venus de Médicis is exactly similar to the posture so often seen in nervous children.

Other matters of artistic interest are discussed in the last three chapters. In his analysis of the emotion of beauty, Dr. Warner falls into an old mistake of the Scotch school of philosophy. "A well-dissected anatomical preparation," he says, "may excite in one man the expression of the sense of beauty, but in another it may excite the expression of pain." The feeling excited by such a preparation is an *intellectual*, not an æsthetic emotion; and it is by not distinguishing these that so much confusion has been created by writers on "taste." On the other hand, in the chapter on expression in the eye, it is pointed out that the varying size of the pupil is a mode of expression, thus correcting the erroneous view, held by Magnus and others, that the eyeball itself is void of expression, the muscles surrounding it being alone responsible for the signs of emotion in that part of the countenance. The problem as to the relations between beauty and intellect is repeatedly alluded to, but no new light is thrown on it. Dr. Langdon Down's remark, concerning idiots, that "the prognosis is, contrary to what is so often thought, inversely as the child is comely, fair to look upon, and winsome," may find its explanation in the fact that such a child is apt to be more delicately organized and less robust than one of the opposite qualities.

That the common notion that a man who has just suffered some great disappointment makes "a long face" is not a mere figment of the imagination, is clearly shown on page 202. Dr. Warner has ascertained by accurate measurement that one side of a paralyzed face may be three-quarters of an inch longer than the other. "A relaxed condition of the facial muscles, allowing the face to fall and lengthen, is the outcome of feeble nerve-currents coming down from its nerve-centres. A long face may, then, indicate a weakened brain-force, and this often accompanies the mental condition following from a sudden disappointment. Another factor in producing a long face as a temporary condition is the falling of the lower jaw."

Studies of Family Life: A contribution to Social Science. By C. S. Devas. Catholic Publication Society. 1886.

THIS is a tract by a follower, one judges, of M. Le-Play, in the interest of the rehabilitation of the family for philanthropic and religious ends. It falls, however, into two tolerably distinct parts: one learned and scholarly, in which the constitution of the family in Pagan civilization is broadly described, and the other expository of Catholic

dogma and Protestant mischief, in which the Christian family is similarly treated. With the former, one is concerned only to observe that it is a capital summary of the legal or religious family rights and customs in China, in Roman law, in ancient Egypt, etc., and secondly that the author turns aside from his main purpose to offer several considerations in opposition to the theory that monogamy is developed out of communal marriage. To this point he argues with acumen and force, mainly by insisting that the phenomena thought to bear traces of communal marriage have been so massed as to give them an unjustifiable prominence and weight relatively to the whole body of the phenomena; and he further attempts to turn the flank of his opponents by suggesting eight or ten hypotheses other than that of an original community of wives, to explain the facts brought in evidence.

This elaborate study is made to bring out in its true relief the great boon to civilization of Christian, and especially Catholic, marriage, which is lucidly explained on the theological side; and as it was necessary for the author's purpose to show that later departures from Christian marriage, and that of Rome in particular, were instances of degeneration, both moral and social, the Mohammedan and Protestant family are finally considered. In this part Americans will find interest and entertainment, for the capital example of degeneration—next, perhaps, to that involved in the "civil" marriage of the irreligious French peasantry—is the home of the "north-eastern Americans," by which generally speaking is meant New England. For the descendants of the Puritans to see themselves as Mr. Devas sees them will not be a cause of pride. The worst of it is, that he has built up his idea of Massachusetts and Connecticut homes, to no inconsiderable degree, out of the mouths of those persons among us, mainly clergymen and scholars, who, in their vehement cry for reform in certain features of our life, have denounced with thoughtless generality and conscienceless rhetoric some of our institutions, notably the public schools. But even the most hardened reformer will stand aghast at a description of our public schools which presents them as a nursery of filial ingratitude and precocious vice—an intellectual and moral pest-breeder. That Mr. Devas, who appears to be a scholarly and rational man, though with a pronounced *Tendenz*, should be able to support, and superficially to ground, his characterization of a Massachusetts school on quotations and reports from native observers, should be a lesson in truthfulness and the moral responsibility of speech to some of our agitating reformers. How far he is from the facts, however, is illustrated by his speaking of Chicago as "morally in the Northeast, though physically in the West," and then lumping that city with Boston and referring to the awful turpitude of "young America" along the whole parallel. This Pompeian debauchery of our most cherished institution, however, is only one of the charges against our "after-Christian" civilization. The practice of divorce and the infertility of American women of the old stock, of course, complete the case, which has as a clincher the tendency of the law to view the wife as independent of, and in some respects hostile in interest to, the husband.

It is beside our purpose to argue against this view of the decadence of family life in "the Northeast." To some of the features insisted on by Mr. Devas we have continuously drawn attention, and we invite notice to his book now because, notwithstanding its painful or ludicrous exaggeration and fabrications, it is a serious discussion of serious matters. It is but fair to add, however, that the most universal and active cause of the loosening of family attachments here, namely, the settling of a vast extent of country in a brief time by a general migration of individuals, is not alluded to by the author; and in this cause there is no social or moral unsoundness. Upon this branch of the subject a whole chapter might be written. The conception of marriage as a civil instead of a religious union has much less to do with the matter than this, and in comparison sinks out of sight. Mr. Devas fails here because he has not taken into account the national conditions under which our institutions are working. In the other parts of his work he has better success and is worth attention.

Berlin som tysk Rigshovedstad. Erindringer fra et femaarigt Ophold. Med mange större og mindre Afbildninger. Af Dr. Georg Brandes. Copenhagen: P. G. Philipsens Forlag.

Doctor Georg Brandes is at present engaged upon a thorough revision of his great work, which appeared simultaneously in Danish and German, and of which the German title is 'Hauptströmungen der Literatur des neunzehnten Jahrhunderts.' This work, in five large octavo volumes, of which the last was published in 1882, describes the currents and forces predominating in the literature of England, France, and Germany from the beginning of the century down to the year 1848. It is not only remarkably comprehensive and exhaustive, but is at the same time enlivened by a style which has secured the author the enviable title of the Taine of the North, though the work differs widely in plan and scope from Taine's 'History of English Literature.' In 1877, Doctor Brandes, failing to secure the much-coveted prize of a professorship in the Danish University, and feeling keenly the force of the old saying that a prophet is not without honor save in his own country, retired into voluntary exile, and became domiciled in Berlin, where he remained five years. Here he continued his literary labors, and, being a perfect master of the German language, he also succeeded in finding abundant employment and appreciation of his rare talents as a public lecturer. Leading German magazines vied with each other in securing essays from his pen, and these were in due time gathered and published in book form. We are not writing a history of Brandes's literary life, but may note the fact as evidence of his remarkable industry and fertility that, although he is but forty-four years of age, his published works already number *twenty-one* volumes. Only one of these ('Benjamin Disraeli,' published by the Harpers in the Franklin Square Library) has, we believe, appeared in English, and it seems strange that no English or American publisher has been found for so conspicuous a contribution to the world's literature as his 'Hauptströmungen,' especially since the fourth volume treats exclusively of English literature in the first half of the present century, with Byron as the central figure in the group therein portrayed.

In the spring of 1883, Brandes's Danish friends invited him to return to his native city. The invitation was coupled with an offer of 4,000 *kroner* (about $1,000) a year for ten years, the money being raised by voluntary subscriptions, on condition that he should reside in Copenhagen and deliver a course of lectures on literature every autumn. The terms were accepted by Doctor Brandes, and each year when his lectures are delivered the rush to hear him is so great that standing room is not to be had, and although the same lecture is given two evenings in succession, still many fail to secure admittance.

The last work by Brandes reviewed in our columns was his 'Moderne Geister,' a series of sketches of eminent literary men of this century, among whom were John Stuart Mill, Paul Heyse, Ernest Renan, etc. Dr. Brandes had personally known the most of the characters portrayed, and his description of his intercourse with them is not the least fascinating element in that book. Since its publication in German, 'Moderne Geister' has appeared in a Danish dress, styled 'Mennesker og Værker i nyere europæisk Literatur' (Men and Works in Modern European Literature), though some of the persons sketched in the German have been omitted, and others added, in the Danish edition. Then followed a volume, 'Det moderne Gjennembruds Mænd' (The Representations of the Modern Revival in Scandinavian Literature). It contains pen portraits of Björnstjerne Björnson, Henrik Ibsen, I. P. Jacobsen, Holger Drachmann, Eduard Brandes (a younger brother of the author), Sophus Schandorph, and Erik Skram. These seven writers represent the new realistic tendency or school in modern Scandinavian letters, and in a spiritual sense they may all be called sons of Georg Brandes. Some of them are much older in years than Brandes, but it was he who first hoisted the realistic banner and founded in the north the so-called European school.

The founder of the Danish drama and of modern Danish literature is the Norwegian Ludvig Holberg, who was born in Bergen, Norway, December 3, 1684. The anniversary of the second centennial was celebrated throughout Scandinavia, but particularly in Bergen and in Copenhagen, with great enthusiasm. In connection with this event, Dr. Brandes published his 'Ludvig Holberg,' a handsome octavo volume of over 300 pages, which will always rank with his ablest productions. It gives us a most charming description of Holberg's youth, of his contemporaries, of his travels, of his character, of the sources of his literature, and of his struggles for existence. It is a model biography, showing a profound knowledge of the age in which Holberg lived and a thorough acquaintance with all his works. Holberg is frequently represented as having simply adapted Molière to the Danish stage; but Brandes meets this charge, and shows most skilfully and conclusively, from contemporaneous history and biography, that the characters represented in the comedies actually existed in Holberg's time in Denmark. Brandes also succeeds in demonstrating that Holberg was, contrary to what has generally been asserted, a friend of womankind. He produces passages from Holberg's works showing that he was far in advance of his time in regard to the question of woman's rights, and that he advocated her emancipation in a manner that would have delighted the heart of John Stuart Mill. The whole work abounds in new views and new suggestions, and expresses the old facts in a fresh and fascinating manner.

'Berlin som tysk Rigshovedstad' (Berlin as a German Metropolis) is a volume of 566 octavo pages, profusely illustrated, and contains the author's reminiscences of his five-years' residence in that city. About forty portraits of distinguished persons, and as many other pictures, adorn the work, which is written in the form of letters, the first dated July, 1868, when the author received his first impression of the city, and the last October 30, 1882, when he bade good-by to his Berlin friends and returned to Denmark. Brandes is a sort of "looker-on in Venice," and presents a bird's-eye view of life in the metropolis, discussing all manner of subjects—politics, art, religion, the markets, theatres, literature, science, museums, elections, society, Christmas festivities, music, and so on *ad infinitum*. In one letter he discusses the Socialists and the Socialist Law, in another the Emperor, in another types of German women; then we have epistles on Bismarck, on the Jews in Germany (Brandes is himself a Jew), on a ball at court, on the would-be assassin No-

biling, on Russian atmospbere in Berlin, etc. Brandes looks upon the city, not with the eyes of a tourist, but rather with those of an adopted citizen. In other words, the book is more a discussion of the physiognomy and life of the city than an external description of its galleries, theatres, halls, churches, and dens. He has not visited Berlin for the purpose of describing it, but he has unconsciously become naturalized, and thus he writes his letters almost with the sympathy of a native. The intrinsic value of this work may not be very great. It is, as we have indicated, rambling and disjointed, but Brandes never fails to be interesting. He never fails to get at the vital point, and his fascinating style never forsakes him. For leisure-hour reading 'Berlin' is an admirable book.

Books and Bookmen. By Andrew Lang. George J. Coombes. 1886.

THESE agreeable essays—on Literary Forgeries, Curiosities of Parish Registers, The Bookmen at Rome, Bibliomania in France, etc., etc.—are mostly informal *précis* of books. Reviews they cannot be called, though many of them have appeared in reviews. They are the clever surface play of a mind stored with abundant and varied reading, and in them Mr. Lang's characteristic humor is mingled with and sometimes heightened by unexpected applications of his classical scholarship in particular. Collected and printed without his supervision or correction, their ephemeral quality has not been lessened, or their careless origin disguised, as when, in the chapter on Bibliomania in France, we are twice told in the course of four pages that Bossuet detested Molière. Nor will posterity, without a commentary, comprehend Mr. Lang's sly allusions to passing events like that in the story of the future Pope Innocent X.'s pilfering: "'What a shame that such a man should have such a book,' said Pamphilio to himself, and proceeded to make his frontier more scientific by slipping the history under his *soutane*." However, posterity has not yet arrived on the scene, and there is certainly a present charm in Mr. Lang's "unmethodic *causerie*," as he calls it, and irrelevant chat as we must sometimes pronounce it when it wanders so far from the immediate title and pretext as it does in the paper on Bookbindings. And quite enjoyable are the ballades "of the Real and the Ideal" and "of the Unattainable," which usher in and close the collection of essays.

The publisher has striven to make a pretty book, and has succeeded fairly well with the aid of the Riverside Press and by dint of numerous illustrations—two bindings reproduced in color; title-pages and printers' emblems in the chapter on Elzevirs; and specimen ghosts in the discourse on Japanese Bogie-books. The initials, head and tailpieces, etc., however, being "process" copies of pen-work, are out of key with the excellent typography, as is usually the case.

Curiosities of the Old Lottery. No. 1 of the Olden Time Series: Gleanings chiefly from old newspapers of Boston and Salem, Mass. By Henry M. Brooks. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

AN hour or less may be spent very pleasantly over this little volume, in which we should criticise chiefly a certain disorder, or rather avoidance of natural arrangement and juxtaposition, in the selections. Thus, the paragraph at the head of page 29 should have occupied the same place on page 26, and that at the head of page 31 should rather have concluded page 41—the topics in both cases being identical. Mr. Brooks makes 1826 the approximate date at which lotteries began to be prohibited in Massachusetts by law; but long before that, as he shows, the public conscience was uneasy on the subject. A genuine "Friend to Religion" inquired through the *Columbian Centinel*, in 1791, whether the General Court of Massachusetts might not "grant a Lottery for the purpose of supplying every person in the eastern part of the Commonwealth with a Bible, who is unable to purchase one, and for the pay of a missionary." This was hardly satirical, considering how often the advancement of religion and of education was adduced as a motive for investing in lotteries, as well as for passing the acts which established them. Churches, schools, and colleges resorted to this means of raising the wind. The laudable "disposition of Government to foster our infant manufactures" was likewise manifested in 1791, but lotteries became a clumsy instrumentality after the protective system had been forced upon New England and the country by the South in 1824, and they disappeared almost simultaneously, as we have noticed above. It is painful to infer in 1760–62 an "unfriendliness" in the public mind towards gold. The managers went as far as they dared to the rescue of the debtor class in announcing that "Gold as well as Silver will be received for Tickets, and the Prizes paid off accordingly." Their considerateness was further shown in devices for turning blanks into prizes. Dartmouth College in 1796 offered, among others, four prizes of $500 each, one to be "placed to the first drawn blank, and the other three to the three last drawn blanks." Harvard improved on this in 1811, and distributed from $20,000 to $50,000 to the "adventurers" who drew blanks. Failure to call for one's prize was taken to argue a large-hearted benevolence, and the money was swept into the net earnings. Due publicity was given to the good fortune of servant girls, apprentices, and Africans, sometimes with the simple comment that "it has excited a smile in the cheek of poverty, nor diminished the pleasure of those in easy circumstances"; but sometimes with a devout poem, like that on the "Castalian Fount," inspired by the prize of $1,500 being drawn by the poor widows of Marblehead, and "written there" in 1790.

Mr. Brooks has added much to the intrinsic quaintness of his text by reproducing the old advertising cuts, tail-pieces, bands, etc.

Geschichte der Jüdischen Literatur. Von Gustav Karpeles. Berlin. 1886. New York: Westermann.

THIS book fills a gap in general literature, and does it very creditably. It is comprehensive, yet free from all bibliographic pedantry; popularly attractive by its form and diction, and yet abounding in information and reflections valuable to the learned. In six sections, it offers a grand view of all Jewish literature—Biblical, Hellenistic, Talmudical, Arabo-Iberian, Rabbinical, and modern. The historical background and environments are clearly, and often strikingly, illumined at every period in special introductory chapters. The poetical portions of the literature are reflected in ably though freely translated fragments. The grouping of facts and observations is very skilfully carried out, and nothing is neglected that is calculated to cast a pleasant light upon the vast, complicated, and to most readers little known subject. But in this very rich anthological illustration and bright illumination lies also the weakness of the work. The author sins by an excess of enthusiasm for his subject, which he evidently feels, and by excessive efforts to communicate it to his readers. He has composed a glowing epopee of the Jewish mind, viewed in its original national creations, its varied adaptations and endless struggles. The shadowy sides of its development and its aberrations are but gently touched upon, or apologetically extenuated. Its thorny path across the long centuries of persecution and darkness appears strewn with roses. Severe criticism is exercised only where—as in the case of the scandalous forgeries practised by Jewish writers of Alexandria under the Ptolemies—no decent excuse can be found in hostile external pressure. In Biblical matters preference is generally given to critical views not characterized by radical destructiveness. The author indulges freely in extracts from other writers, duly furnished with quotation marks, but without the mention of a name or a title. The book is entirely without references or notes, and offers throughout a smooth and handsome appearance. To readers unfamiliar with works like those of Zunz, Jost, Sachs, Geiger, Graetz, or Derembourg, it will be a mine of curious information. To anti-Semites it will be shocking.

North Borneo: Explorations and Adventures on the Equator. By the late Frank Hatton. With biographical sketch and notes by Joseph Hatton. Illustrated. London: S. Low. 1885. Pp. xiv, 342, 8vo.

THE story of Frank Hatton's short life is quickly told. Born in 1861, he very early showed evidence of fondness for scientific studies, which his father, the well-known author, wisely encouraged by sending him to the Royal School of Mines in London. Here his ability was so marked that the British North Borneo Company sent him, though but a lad of twenty, as its mineral explorer to Borneo. He entered upon his duties with enthusiasm, and during the next fifteen months made various journeys along the coast and into the interior, searching—with but indifferent success, it must be said—for evidences of the mineral wealth which the country was supposed to contain. In these expeditions, which led him into regions previously unvisited by Europeans, and inhabited by tribes of inveterate head-hunters, he showed great courage and tact in dealing with the natives, and gave promise of making a name as an explorer. Unfortunately, he accidentally shot himself while returning from one of these expeditions, and died March 1, 1883. Among his effects were found diaries and memoranda of his various explorations, which he had intended to use in writing an account of the country. These form the second part of this volume, the first being a biographical sketch by his father.

As Frank Hatton was a good observer and had some literary skill, these fragmentary records have much in them of interest. They do not give a very favorable impression of England's new possessions, although they are doubtless valuable from a strategical point of view, being on the high road, as it were, between China and Australia. Its mineral wealth is apparently small, and the country is so thinly inhabited that it will probably be long before any large gains can be made from the agricultural products. In fact, one of the chief difficulties with which a traveller in the interior has to contend is a scarcity of food. The superstitions of the natives also proved at times insurmountable obstacles. The Dusuns attribute "anything, whether good or bad, lucky or unlucky, that happens to them, to something novel which has arrived in their country. For instance, my living in Kinoram has caused the intensely hot weather we have experienced of late." A chief objected to his passing through his country because "I took heat; and Gensalong did not want either heat or me." Several times he was made a "blood-brother" of the natives, in each case with different rites, though the killing of a cock was common to them all except the Bendowen Dusuns. Their peculiar ceremonial began with the assembling of the whole tribe in the jungle,

which was cleared for about twenty yards, and, a hole being dug a foot deep, a large water jar was placed in it.

"The clay taken out to make the hole was thrown into the jar, and now the 'old men' commenced declaiming, 'Oh, Kinarringan, hear us!' —a loud shout to the Kinarringan. The sound echoed away down the valleys, and as it died a stone was placed near the jar. Then for half an hour the old man declared by fire (which was represented by a burning stick), by water (which was brought in a bamboo and poured into the jar), and by earth, that they would be true to all white men. A sumpitan [blow-gun] was then fetched, and an arrow shot into the air to summon the Kinarringan. We now placed our four guns on the mouth of the jar, and each put a hand in and took a little clay out, and put it away. Finally several volleys were shot over the place, and the ceremony terminated."

A curious method of cultivating rice is by sowing the seed on rafts which are covered with earth and anchored in a river, "where they are kept moist. Very quickly the rafts become green floating islands. Then the women transplant the grain" into ground which has been prepared for it. The custom of head-hunting seems to be gradually dying out, though still practised to some extent in the interior. Mr. Hatton seems to have been as unsuccessful as previous travellers in discovering the secret method by which the natives forge their finely-tempered sword blades, which are often beautifully inlaid with brass.

The illustrations add much to the interest of this work, and an admirable map shows Mr. Hatton's journeys very clearly, and is also an evidence of how much has been accomplished in the exploration of the country belonging to the British North Borneo Company.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, J. Scotland in Pagan Times. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Bancroft, H. H. History of the Pacific States of North America. California, Vol. IV. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Blind, M. Madame Roland. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.
Bosboom-Toussaint, A. L. G. Major Frank. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Brooks, H. M. Days of the Spinning Wheel in New England. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Burnham, Clara L. Next Door. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Burroughs, John. Signs and Seasons. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Carnegie, A. Triumphant Democracy: or, Fifty Years' March of the Republic. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Chesneau, E. The Education of the Artist. Cassell & Co. $2.
Curtius, G. Principles of Greek Etymology. 5th ed. Translated by A. S. Wilkins and E. B. England. London: John Murray.
Dagonet the Jester: A Novel. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Dahlgren, Madeleine V. The Lost Name. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.
Don't: Directions for Avoiding Improprieties in Conduct and Common Errors of Speech. D. Appleton & Co.
Earl of Suffolk and Berkshire, W. G. Craven, and Others. Racing and Steeple-Chasing. The Badminton Library. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Exposition Internationale de Blanc et Noir. 1886. Catalogue Illustré. F. W. Christern.
Farrar, Capt. C. A. J. Down the West Branch. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Goncourt, E. et J. de. Pages retrouvées. Boston: Schoenhof.
Grant, H. Exercises for the Improvement of the Senses for Young Children. Am. ed. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Haggard, H. R. King Solomon's Mines. Cassell & Co. 25 cents.
Hammond, W. A., and Lanza, Clara. Tales of Eccentric Life. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Harrison, F. The Choice of Books. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
Haweis, Rev. H. R. The Key of Doctrine and Practice. Charles T. Dillingham. 25 cents.
Holmes, N. The Authorship of Shakspere. New ed. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Hunnewell, J. F. The Imperial Island: England's Chronicle in Stone. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $4.
Jackson, Helen, Glimpses of Three Coasts. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.50.
Johnson, M. W. How to Plant. Orange Judd Co.
Katscher, L. Aus England: Bilder und Skizzen. Leipzig: P. Reclam, jr.
Katscher, L. Bilder aus dem englischen Leben. Leipzig: W. Friedrich.
Katscher, L. Nebelland und Themsestrand: Studien und Schilderungen aus der Heimat John Bull's. Stuttgart: G. J. Göschen.
Lang, A. The Mark of Cain. Charles Scribner's Sons. 25 cents.
Le Pileur, A. Wonders of the Human Body. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Livet, C. L. Portraits du grand siècle. Boston: Schoenhof.
Lubbock, Sir J. Flowers, Fruits, and Leaves. Macmillan & Co. $1 25.
Macleod, H. D. Elements of Economics. Vol. II. Part 1. D. Appleton & Co.
Manteuffel, U. Z. von. Violetta: A Romance. J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Martin, R. B. Hog-Raising and Pork-Making. O. Judd Co.
Masson, G. Les Femmes Savantes, by Molière. Cinna, by Corneille. Edited with Notes, Glossary, etc. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons. 2 vols.
McCarthy, J. H. Doom! An Atlantic Episode. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
Meredith, G. Adventures of Harry Richmond. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $2.
Miller, A. P. Consolation, and Other Poems. Brentano Bros.
The Record: A Poem Illustrating the Philosophy of Life. John W. Lovell Co. $1.25.
The Wealth of Households. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons.
Tomlinson, E. T. Selections from Latin Authors for Sight Reading. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Vadier, Berthe. Henri-Frédéric Amiel: Étude biographique. Boston: Schoenhof.
Waites, A. Forgotton Meanings: or, An Hour with a Dictionary. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Webb, J. Cape Cod Cranberries. O. Judd Co.
Whedon's Commentary on the Old Testament. Isaiah-Jeremiah. Phillips & Hunt. $2.25.
Whittier, J. G. Saint Gregory's Guest, and Recent Poems. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1885		1,339,525 10
Total Marine Premiums		$5,196,143 76
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1885, to 31st December, 1885		$3,770,094 30
Losses paid during the same period	$1,915,020 67	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	776,712 42	
The Company has the following Assets, viz.:		
United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank and other Stocks		$9,034,685 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise		1,438,600 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at		530,000 00
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable		1,508,143 58
Cash in Bank		228,897 88
Amount		$12,740,326 46

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the second of February next.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 6, 1886.

The Week.

THE great Southwestern boycott has been declared "off," in spite of the struggles of Martin Irons and his "Joint Executive Board, 101, 93, and 17." The eight-hour movement, in so far as it was grounded upon the belief that independent laborers and employers could be driven by force and terror to join in it or to yield to it, has failed. In some places and trades where the business could be sustained and yield some profit on eight hours of daily labor, the movement has been successful, and in such cases there is no room for complaint. Whatever is agreed to on both sides is a fair bargain, which no third person has a right to object to. It has been objected to only in one place so far. Mr. McCormick, at Chicago, agreed to adopt the eight-hour system without any reduction of wages. His works and his workmen were immediately set upon by a mob of eight-hour strikers and anarchists, who raided the establishment, beat several of the men as they were coming out at the stroke of the clock at the end of the eighth hour, and had a fight with a squad of policemen, one of whom they attempted to hang on a lamp-post while he was conducting a wounded man to his home. This was a notable exploit on the part of "organized labor."

The recent boycott on the Missouri Pacific Railway and its southwestern connections was not the most disastrous revolt against law and order in the name of labor that has been witnessed by the present generation, nor is the present eight-hour movement the most formidable. The struggle for "eight hours" has been going on for more than a quarter of a century, and it may go on for another quarter of a century. One of the phases of the movement most popular among its advocates a few years ago was the demand for an eight-hour law. It was held by the labor agitators that if a law were passed making eight hours a legal day's work, under appropriate penalties, the desired end would be reached. When the attempt was made to carry this idea into the form of a statute it was found to be impracticable. No machinery could be devised to prevent farm hands, for example, from working from sunrise to sunset. Nor could any means be found to subject "piece work" to the operation of the eight-hour system. So many difficulties were encountered that the framers of the proposed law were constrained to content themselves with a bill fixing eight hours as the maximum of labor on Government works. After the law was passed, the officers in charge of Government works reduced the pay to correspond with the hours, and then there was another outcry from the agitators. But it led to nothing. The idea of setting up a privileged class of laborers in Government employ, who were to have their wages raised 20 per cent. at the expense of all other laborers, did not prove to be excessively popular. In fact, we hear very little now about eight-hour laws. The movement has passed into another stage.

The question now is, whether the industrial conditions of the country are such as to warrant the belief that people in general can support themselves on the proceeds of eight hours' work. It is proposed by a relatively small number of workingmen to test this question by experiment. We say a relatively small number, because Mr. Edward Atkinson has proved by an examination of the statistics of industry that not more than one in ten of those who work with their hands can possibly be subjected to an eight-hour rule, whether that rule be put into the form of a statute, or whether it is sought to enforce it by the agency of the Walking Delegate. Thus the question narrows itself to this: Are there certain special branches of industry so favorably situated, and having such advantages over other trades, that they can sustain themselves on 20 per cent. less labor than is now applied to them? We are not prepared to say that there are no such trades. Whether they exist or not can only be learned by experiment. The experiment is now to be made. If it should be learned that there are such trades, the movement will succeed as to them. Eight hours will become the established day's work among them, at all events until capital and labor are attracted to them to such an extent as to reduce their exceptional advantages to the average of all other trades. There will be a struggle between employers and employees in these special branches of industry, but it will not be of long duration. The question being one of fact, it will be settled, as the Southwestern strike has been settled, when it is made clear what the facts are. Mr. Martin Irons said that the Missouri Pacific Railway could not be operated without the Knights of Labor. Mr. Hoxie said that it could be. Nothing but an experiment could settle that dispute. It was made, and it proved that Mr. Hoxie was right. In the same way and not otherwise can it be proved to general acceptance whether any particular trade can be carried on with the proceeds of eight hours' work. There is no occasion for panic while the experiment is going on. Nine-tenths of the daily work of the nation will go on as before. Indeed, if the statistics could be got at, it would be found that only a moiety of the trades susceptible of being reached by an eight-hour rule are now menaced by the movement.

In a report of what was done at Chicago on Monday last is a characteristic indication of the unreason of the eight-hour strikers. The Illinois Central Railway is really a State railway, since the company is, under its charter, required to pay 7 per cent. of its gross (not its net) earnings annually to the State. Whatever reduces or impairs the volume of the business of that company is a direct injury to the State, and to every taxpayer therein. The Governor of the State is by law one of the directors of the company. On Monday the workingmen who handle freight in the company's yard at Chicago demanded eight hours a day and ten hours' pay. Mr. Jeffery, the General Manager, met the workingmen, and said to them that during the last three months and three weeks the earnings of the company had decreased $375,642, as compared with the earnings of the same period last year. By the end of April the decrease will reach $400,000, and in all probability before the end of the year, through labor disruptions and disorganized trade, the decrease will amount to $800,000. Nearly every other road had experienced a decrease of from 10 to 20 per cent. in its earnings. The laboring classes, therefore, in view of these considerations, had struck at the wrong time. The only outcome of this movement was that they would remain out, lose money, injure their families, and return to their old places at the same rate. The men listened quietly to Mr. Jeffery's remarks, though they saw at once what the reply of the company was. When he had finished, all the men, to the number of 150, quit work, marched over to the headquarters of the Freight-Handlers' Union, and joined that organization.

The Illinois Central Company has had honest and efficient management. Its capital stock has never been "watered"; it has never been depleted by "construction companies," and there are no side-companies, either "Blue Lines," or "White Lines," or "Star Lines," by which the earnings are diverted from the pockets of the owners of the Illinois Central. By economy and good management the company has until recently continued to pay its stockholders 8 per cent. Civil-service promotion has long been the rule in the company. Mr. Jeffery, the General Manager, began in the company's service a poor boy, relatively in the condition of the workingmen whom he addressed. He frankly told the men the condition of the company's gross earnings, and frankly suggested to them that with increased earnings would come increased wages; but the men quit work and thereby increased the burdens of every taxpayer in the State, including themselves.

The House Committee on Invalid Pensions has instructed Representative Matson to call up the Arrears of Pension Bill as soon as the Committee is called by the Speaker, which, it is expected, will be the latter part of this week or the early part of next week. This is the most dangerous scheme likely to be brought before Congress at this session, and public sentiment ought to pronounce against it in such tones as will deter the demagogues from supporting the bill. A careful estimate indicates that the measure would be likely to take out of the Treasury about $300,000,000, and there is absolutely no sound argument in favor of it. Senator Sherman, in opposing a similar proposition two years ago, when Commissioner Dudley had estimated that it would call for $246,000,000 at least, thus summed up the reasons against it:

"I deny in toto that there in any obligation in law or in morals or in good faith to our soldiers to remove the restrictions of existing law. It is

not right for the soldier to apply for arrears. He knew the existence of the law, and why should he be allowed now to come in and make a demand for $4,000, $5,000 or $6,000 for the twenty years last past, thus throwing upon the Government an enormous demand which he refused for twenty years even to present? I believe the assertion of this enormous claim at this time against the Government of the United States will be embarrassing even to the people of the United States. It would break down all restrictions upon claims hereafter. Executive officers of the Government can estimate and provide ample revenues to meet existing laws, but no sagacity would enable Congress to provide for claims not presented when payable, and asserted only at a period of hardship to the amount of $246,000,000. There is no equity in it."

It seems incredible that such a gigantic grab can stand any chance of success, but that there is real danger appears clearly enough from the fact that the man who thus showed the injustice of the proposition only two years ago, has announced his purpose to support it now.

The Southern members of Congress have it in their power to render the country a great service in this matter. If the South will only be "solid" against this steal, we think that enough Northern members will be found possessed of sufficient independence to stand with them and secure its defeat. The New Orleans *Times-Democrat* published an editorial article upon this subject the other day, which concluded with this excellent advice to Southern Congressmen:

"The Southern Congressmen can do much good here if they would. They have hitherto generally voted in favor of these pension bills because they believed Northern sentiment favored these measures. If they will look outside of Congress they will find that it does not; that the North feels that the country has done enough already for its soldiery, and would call a halt in pensions. Let the Southern Representatives aid in relieving the country from any increased burden, simply to advance the interests and aid the Presidential aspirations of a lot of demagogues who are trying to buy votes for themselves by passing additional pension bills."

Every word of this is true, and we hope that the Southern press will be unanimous in urging such views.

The Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections has made a favorable report upon the proposition to change the date for the inauguration of the President and the opening of a Congressional term from the 4th of March to the 30th of April, beginning with 1889. There are strong arguments in favor of the proposed change. It would extend the length of the short session of every Congress to reasonable limits; it would place inauguration day at the most agreeable season of the whole year in Washington, instead of the most inclement; it would very likely save some future President from being killed by exposure to the peculiarly severe weather which so often attends the inaugural ceremonies, and which has slain so many chilled spectators of the display, as notably when Grant began his second term; and it would be a peculiarly appropriate way of celebrating the hundredth anniversary of the day when Washington became President. No valid reason against the change has been adduced by anybody. The Senate is expected to follow the lead of its committee in endorsing the proposition, and the House ought to concur. If the amendment gets through Congress, there can be no question of its ratification by the States.

"The official burial of the Confederacy," as somebody has happily styled the ceremonies attending the laying of the corner-stone of a soldiers' monument at Montgomery, Alabama, last week, has been accompanied by high-flown funeral eulogies of the deceased, based naturally upon the maxim *nil de mortuis nisi bonum*. But everybody knows that the Southern people have become convinced that it was best for them, as well as for the rest of us, that the lost cause was lost, and that their applause of the chief of the Confederate States from 1861 to 1865 implies no disloyalty to the United States in 1886. Indeed, there is little to complain of in the attitude of Jeff Davis himself when he can end his funeral oration over the grave of the Confederacy with such words as these:

"In conclusion, permit me to say, though the memory of our glorious past must ever be dear to us, duty points to the present and the future. Alabama having resumed her place in the Union, be it yours to fulfil all the obligations devolving upon all good citizens, seeking to restore the general Government to its pristine purity, and, as best you may, to promote the welfare and happiness of your common country."

It was quite natural that John Sherman should have welcomed the Jeff Davis incident as a piece of good fortune for Republican politicians lacking an "issue" for the fall campaign, since the Ohio Senator has always clung hard to the bloody shirt. Mr. Sherman broke forth the other day in the familiar old strain, as follows:

"Davis is a monumental fool, a vain and disappointed old man, posing as a martyr, grieving over his failures, and appealing for sympathy. What he says is of no particular consequence. Everybody knows that he has felt just as he talks all the while, but the significant part of it all lies in the manner in which his words are received by the people, the demonstrations of approval, the enthusiasm they create. That is what will affect the loyal element of the country, and make the blood of those who fought to save the Union boil with indignation."

But, unfortunately for the Ohio Republican, there came the very next day this unanswerable explanation of what the demonstration really means from that representative Southern Republican, General Longstreet, of Georgia:

"This occasion is a revival of a harmless but beautiful sentiment. The old soldiers wanted to get together again, and this was perhaps the best occasion for a meeting. It means no disrespect to any other section of the country, nor is there an evidence of disloyalty in the display. We all recognize that the war is over, and that all the questions then submitted for decision to the sword are forever settled. Mr. Davis growing old, the people were anxious to see him once again, and this was the best time to do it. Probably it is his last appearance among us. That is all this demonstration means, and the right to this celebration by both the young and the old will everywhere be acknowledged. It means nothing more than a reunion of old comrades and the revival of never-fading memories."

It was pointed out some time ago that it was only a step for the Knights of Labor from dictating whom an employer shall hire and how long he shall keep his establishment open, to demanding absolute control of his business, and that this step was sure to be taken if the first interference were not resisted. The prophecy is already fulfilled in eastern Massachusetts, where the sway of this new despotism has gone longest unchallenged. A few weeks ago the Knights decided that the stores in Lynn must be closed at a certain hour, and the proprietors actually obeyed the insolent demand—or, rather, all of them except one man named Tarbox, who thinks this a free country, and is bringing his fellows to a sense of shame. Encouraged by their success in forcing stores to close at a certain hour, the Knights of Labor in the same region have now, very naturally, concluded to fix the rate of profits which storekeepers shall be allowed to make. The Boston *Transcript* of Friday evening publishes in its editorial columns the statement that demands have been made of certain shopkeepers in the suburbs of that city, that they furnish to a committee of Knights of Labor their invoices and price-lists, in order that the Committee may regulate the profits. After the pusillanimous surrender by all but one of the Lynn storekeepers of all control over the question when they should close their shops, we should not have been surprised to hear that this demand for a surrender of all control over their business had been entertained; but the Tarbox incident appears to have had its effect outside of Lynn, and the *Transcript* says that the suburban shop-keepers "have had the good sense and spirit to treat the demands with the contempt they merit."

The utterly illogical nature of many of the strikes during the present epidemic is curiously illustrated by a case just reported from Newark. In that city there are two morning papers, printed in the German language, which appear to have been paying their compositors liberal wages. On Sunday the men struck for an advance. The proprietor of one paper yielded. The manager of the other showed his books to the men, and demonstrated that it would be impossible to pay higher rates for composition. He offered to give the entire income of the paper to the printers—they to handle and control the paper and do all the business for three months, he to receive nothing. This offer was refused, the men demanding the increase or nothing. The manager thereupon secured the services of three printers to get out a small sheet the next day, to be the last number published. It will be seen that the strikers have won a great success; they demanded "a raise or nothing," and their demand has been acceded to.

The members of the Central Labor Union had an animated discussion on Sunday over the expediency of having a bill introduced at Albany for the repeal of the section of the Penal Code on "conspiracy." It was concluded, however, that such a step would be futile, since the members of the Legislature were but the tools of cowardly capitalists, and it would be beneath the dignity of laborers to appeal to them for help. It occurred to some of them that such a bill would be a confession that boycotting was conspiracy within the meaning of the law, and that it would not be wise to make that while so many cases were pending trial. It was finally concluded to engage the services of Gen. Roger A. Pryor to defend the indicted boycotters, with a request that he insist upon a jury made up entirely of workingmen. The childlike simplicity of all these utterances ought to be sufficient to convince every blatant "friend of the workingmen" of the crime

which he commits in deceiving them with false doctrines.

The extreme uncertainty of temper and judgment that marks the support which our esteemed contemporary the *Times* gives even the best of causes, was curiously illustrated in its comments on the recent presentment of the Grand Jury about boycotting. The Grand Jury has been dealing during the last thirty days with a new and alarming form of crime, which is already affecting the industry of the whole country most seriously, and filling the lives of great numbers of humble people with terror, and nevertheless has the cowardly connivance or support of a large part of the daily press. In denouncing it in vigorous language, thus reassuring good citizens and reminding the officers of the law of their duty, the Grand Jury rendered a service to the community almost as great as the indictment of the offenders—a service all the more praiseworthy because most grand juries speak with bated breath and in uncertain tones. The *Times*, however, even at this crisis, found little to say about the presentment, except that the rhetoric was bad, and one or two of the images rather violent, and gravely announces that these errors have brought the Grand Jury "into ridicule and contempt." It could hardly render better service to the rioters and boycotters, and do more to discourage future grand juries in dealing with them.

The fact that boycotting is illegal has been grasped in Connecticut, where the law upon the subject is found to be similar to that of New York and other States. A "Walking Delegate" has been arrested in New Haven for attempting to intimidate a business firm who were advertising in the *Journal and Courier*, which is under a boycott for not employing union printers. The law under which the arrest is made is almost identical with section 653 of our Penal Code, entitled "Coercion," and is as follows:

"Every person who shall threaten or use any means to intimidate any person, to compel such person against his will to do or abstain from doing any act which such person has a legal right to do, or shall persistently follow such person in a disorderly manner, or injure or threaten to injure his property with intent to intimidate him, shall, upon conviction, be liable to a fine not exceeding $100, or imprisonment in the county jail six months."

The judge overruled a demurrer interposed in behalf of the "Walking Delegate," and in giving his decision declared that it was the plain intent of the statute "to punish the use of threats or any means of intimidation to compel any person against his will to do or abstain from doing any legal act"; that the threat to boycott "is, in the opinion of the Court a threat to do an illegal act well calculated to intimidate, and, further, that all confederacies whatsoever to the prejudice of a third party are highly criminal under the common law."

The French Penal Code, Art. 414, deals thus with boycotting and other intimidation:

"Is punishable with not less than six days' or more than three years' imprisonment, and a fine of not less than 16 francs or more than 3,000, whoever by means of violence, assaults, threats, or fraudulent pretences, shall set on foot or maintain, or try to maintain, a concerted cessation of labor, with the design of compelling an increase or diminution of wages, or interfering with the free exercise of industry or labor."

Mr. Gladstone's manifesto to the Midlothian electors is in reality an appeal to the English people for support against the class opposition which he is encountering in the Liberal ranks, and strikes the democratic note more distinctly than any other speech or document he has ever put forth. Nothing he has produced, too, has ever surpassed it in that happy union of fire and force for which he has long been famous. The strongest points he makes against the seceders are their total failure to agree on any substitute for his scheme, combined with their concession that some substitute there must be. This absence of any rival policy was made painfully apparent in the debates, and, coupled with the admission that something in the way of local self-government was absolutely needed, seems likely to cover up most of the defects in the Gladstone bill, and give the battle to his hands. In this manifesto he has made the most of this weakness of his opponents, and has been almost equally effective in pointing out the probability that what is refused to the Irish now, in a time of calm and conciliation, will, as on so many other occasions before, have to be granted in a time of danger and stress and under compulsion. The fury which the document has excited in the Tory ranks is the best measure of its destructiveness. Some of the judgments passed on it are very amusing specimens of "journalism." One paper makes it the "wail of an unresting spirit tortured with gloomy forebodings." Another treats it as "an appeal to man's basest and most sordid passions," and maintains that "its flagrant immorality will unseal the eyes of his most infatuated supporters." In the early days of the newspaper press, when the London *Times* was called "the Thunderer," this sort of writing used to be effective, but it is now generally amusing.

The reference of the manifesto to the Land Purchase Bill makes it seem probable that Mr. Gladstone will throw that overboard if hard pressed, and lay the blame on the Irish landlords themselves, for not rallying more vigorously, or indeed rallying at all, to its support. But although it may be true that the English are fairly responsible to the Irish landlords for the security of their estates, owing to their having so long enabled them to maintain their peculiar tenures in defiance of Irish opinion, nevertheless, it is almost impossible to defend both the Home-Rule Bill and the Land-Purchase Bill at the same time. One of the arguments in support of the Home-Rule Bill is that the Irish may be safely trusted with the protection in Ireland of all rights of property or person. But the chief argument in support of the Land-Purchase Bill is that the landlords' property would not be safe in the power of an Irish Parliament. Either of these positions may be true; both cannot be. In other words, if what is said in favor of the Home-Rule Bill be sound, the Land-Purchase Bill is unnecessary; but if the Land-Purchase Bill be necessary, then the Home-Rule Bill is a dangerous measure.

The *Herald* distinctly declares that "neither the Commons nor the Lords can settle the Irish question." This is likely to prove very embarrassing in practice, and may work serious delay, because no other instrumentality for the settlement as yet exists. But the readiness of our contemporary to interfere in these foreign disputes makes us all the more curious to know why it refused to settle the Third Avenue Railroad trouble.

The Marquis of Lorne deemed himself qualified the other day to interpret the public sentiment of the United States and Canada on the question of Irish home rule. So he wrote a letter to the newspapers saying that all parties in America found it necessary to cultivate the Irish vote, and that the resolutions of sympathy with Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Parnell, passed by public meetings and by State legislatures, were to be taken merely as the bids of politicians for the next election. The unvarnished truth is, that the resolution and the telegram adopted at the meeting in Washington City on Wednesday week, presided over by ex-Speaker Randall, which extended cordial good wishes to Gladstone and Parnell, "in their peaceful efforts to secure local government to the people of Ireland," do represent the feelings of all except the merest handful of the American people. There are well-considered objections to the official expression of opinion by one country upon the internal affairs of another and friendly country. Hence we should regret any introduction of this subject into Congress. But there can be no objection to unofficial and temperate expression of a sympathy which everybody feels. The Washington meeting was in good taste and had nothing in it of a partisan character. Indeed, it would be impossible for any political party to gain an advantage when all parties and persons feel the same emotions and think the same thoughts.

The appearance of Mr. Goldwin Smith on the scene in England to denounce home rule and Gladstone, on behalf both of the Canadians and "the bulk of the Americans," is likely to add fresh horrors to the scene of strife. It is not often that the scholar in politics occupies a position of such fearful responsibility as Mr. Goldwin Smith has taken on himself. We regret to say we think he is abusing his trust. The real sentiments of "the bulk of the Americans" on the Irish question must have been communicated to him in confidence, with instructions to tell no one, because their open professions are all the other way. To go and blurt it all out this way, both to the English and Irish, is an indiscretion from which Mr. Goldwin Smith will not readily recover. The Americans will never trust him again. The only way he can atone for it is to die on the field in conquering the Irish, in the same rank with Mr. Froude and the Duke of Westminster. There will be, when the fight comes, a sickening scene of carnage where these warriors stand.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

WEDNESDAY, April 28, to TUESDAY, May 4, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President on Friday nominated Joseph C. Hendrix for Postmaster at Brooklyn, N. Y. He is a graduate of Cornell, Secretary of the Brooklyn Bridge Company, and was a candidate for Mayor of Brooklyn against Mr. Low.

Baltimore was surprised on Friday by the resignation of I. P. Veazey, the new Postmaster. He gives as his reason the demands of his private business, but it is said he is tired of having to supply places to the Gorman crowd. His successor is Frank Brown, a young lawyer in good practice, who has been President of the Maryland Agricultural and Mechanical Association for several years, and has always been conspicuous in agricultural affairs.

The Senate has confirmed the nomination of Mr. Burnett as Mr. Duskin's successor in the office of District Attorney for Alabama, thus wholly setting aside the Edmunds resolutions.

The Senate Committee on Commerce on Thursday voted to make a favorable report on a new Atlantic and Pacific Ship Railway Bill as a substitute for the original Ship Bill, providing as follows: Eads and such others as may be associated with him are created a body corporate with the title of the Atlantic and Pacific Ship Railway Company, with power to issue capital stock and bonds not to exceed in the aggregate one hundred millions. The United States obligates itself to pay said company, for a period of five years after the ship railway shall have been completed and tested, any sums of money required to make two-thirds of the net revenues of said company amount annually to the sum of $3,500,000, provided that the total liability of the Government shall in no case exceed the sum of $7,500,000. The obligation of the United States shall not attach until the railway shall have transported, in the presence of a board of engineers appointed by the President of the United States, a loaded vessel weighing with her load not less than 6,000 tons, at an average speed of not less than six miles an hour, and place her in the harbor at the other side of the isthmus without injury to the vessel.

In the House on Thursday Mr. Lanham (Dem., Tex.), from the Committee on Coinage, Weights, and Measures, reported a bill for the retirement and recoinage of trade dollars. It provides that for six months after its passage trade dollars shall be received at their face value in payment of all dues to the United States, and shall not be again paid out or issued in any other manner. Holders of trade dollars, on presentation of the same, may receive in exchange therefor an equal amount of standard silver dollars. The trade dollars so received by the United States Treasury officials shall be transmitted to the coinage mints and recoined into standard silver dollars.

The reduction in the public debt during April was $10,965,387 95.

The great strike on the Gould railroad lines in the Southwest has finally ended in the acknowledged failure of the Knights of Labor. The General Executive Board of the Knights of Labor issued, on Monday, a circular to the District Assemblies, in which they said that they had received a letter from the Congressional Committee investigating the strike, saying: "'The testimony taken by the Congressional Investigating Committee shows conclusively that very serious losses to the commercial interests of the entire country have resulted from this trouble, and that a large number of persons not connected therewith have been thrown out of employment.' Therefore, they 'do respectfully but earnestly ask you to discontinue the strike, and leave the justice of your cause to the decision that public opinion may form when we make our report.' The document was fully considered and the following conclusion arrived at: 'That the matter be left in the hands of the General Executive Board, they to set a time and declare the strike at an end.' We have therefore selected Tuesday, May 4, 1886, as the time when this strike shall end. You will make application to your former employers for employment on the above date, Tuesday morning, May 4." Accordingly, on Tuesday many of the strikers applied for work and were generally received, though those who committed depredations were refused employment.

John Givens, a striker in St. Louis, was shot dead on Wednesday night by W. E. Withers, an employee of the Bridge and Tunnel Company, whom Givens assaulted after advising him to quit work and leave town.

The managers of all the railroads centring in Chicago held a meeting on Monday at the Burlington general office to consider the strike of the freight-handlers. An informal interchange of ideas relative to the situation finally culminated in the adoption of a resolution, that the present condition of business did not warrant any advance in the wages now paid to employees; that the roads pledge themselves to act as a unit in the matter, and resist all demands for shorter hours or advance in wages, agreeing not to treat individually or make concessions not approved of by all.

The movement for eight hours as a day's labor was actively carried out in many cities on May 1st. It was strongest in Chicago. It is estimated that 30,000 workmen were idle in that city on Saturday. All trades were affected, especially at lumber yards, railway depots, and furniture factories.

On Monday the streets of Chicago were filled with idle men, who were, however, orderly and quiet during the morning. Several of the roads whose freight-handlers had struck resumed working with new men. Lumbermen, metal-workers, and furniture men were mostly idle. About 40,000 men were out. The Wabash Railway officials sought the protection of the United States authorities to enable them to move freight. Several manufactories, including the McCormick reaper works, yielded to the demands of the men. In other cities the movement was not so extended. In Washington 3,000 men were idle. In New York city the demand has been made by many employees, but there are few strikes and no disorders. A number of firms have consented to eight hours' work and eight hours' pay.

There was a riot in Chicago on Monday afternoon. A crowd of some 7,000 or 8,000 Anarchists, workmen, and tramps assailed the McCormick Reaper Works because it was supposed that the men there would work ten hours. In fact, however, eight hours had been agreed to. The mob attacked the workmen with stones, and threw stones through the windows of the works. When a platoon of police arrived the mob attacked them, first with stones and then with revolvers. The police held their ground and returned the fire. Several of the rioters were hurt, and finally the police charged and scattered them. A dozen arrests were made. One striker was fatally injured.

At Chicago on Tuesday morning comparative quiet prevailed, though the police dispersed several mobs of idlers and made a number of arrests. The McCormick works opened as usual in the morning, fully one-half of their men resuming work under police protection. It was announced on Tuesday that a number of pork-packing houses had yielded to the demands of the men.

On Tuesday afternoon a handbill in Chicago, printed in German and English, called upon "workingmen" to meet at Desplaines and Randolph Streets in the evening. "Good speakers," it was promised, "will be present to denounce the latest atrocious act of the police—the shooting of our fellow-workmen yesterday afternoon." Some 1,400 persons gathered there, but the speeches were dull, and half the crowd had left when Sam Fielding, an Anarchist leader, took the stand and shouted out the most incendiary utterances. He finally became so violent that word was sent to the station, and Inspector Bonfield, at the head of 125 men, marched to the place. Bonfield called upon the crowd to disperse, and Fielding shouted out from the wagon: "To arms!" The officer once more called on them to disperse, when suddenly from behind the wagon, which was not fifteen feet from the front rank of the police, one dynamite bomb (or more) was thrown in between the second and third ranks of the officers. The effect was terrible. Thirty-three policemen were cut down, about half-a-dozen fatally wounded. Immediately after the explosion the officers who were left standing drew their revolvers and fired round after round into the mob. Probably fifty of the mob fell, and as they dropped were immediately carried to the rear and into the many dark alleyways by their friends. In the afternoon a mob attacked a paint-shop in Centre Avenue, and was only dispersed by a vigorous charge by the police.

At Milwaukee on Monday afternoon a similar collision occurred between a mob of Poles and the police. Nobody was killed. The uneasiness continued on Tuesday. More than 7,000 idle workmen had gathered at Bay View, threatening the rolling mills. Governor Rusk of Wisconsin ordered out a number of militia companies. A mob was dispersed during the day by a volley fired over their heads.

The Grand Jury in this city on Thursday indicted five members of the Executive Committee of the Empire Protective Association for conspiracy and coercion in causing the strike on the Third Avenue Road by ordering the discharge of the five drivers and two conductors who were not members of the Union, and for interfering with the running of other horse railroads in the city by ordering the general tie-up on Monday, the 19th ult. Chairman Joseph P. O'Donnell is one of those indicted.

The Oregon Republicans have nominated T. R. Cornelius for Governor.

The enthusiastic reception of Jefferson Davis in the South has been made the text for "bloody-shirt" speeches and articles in the North. A close examination of the Southern papers shows that their sentiments are eminently loyal. Where the demonstration is approved it is as a personal compliment to Mr. Davis, and in memory of the Confederate dead. Commenting on the Montgomery celebration, the Vicksburg *Commercial Herald*, the leading Democratic morning paper of Mississippi, says: "Mr. Jefferson Davis is not of the new South. He is of the old South. He said things at Montgomery that would have been better unsaid, and did not say things he, of all men, ought to have said."

Mr. Davis delivered his address at the laying of the corner stone of the Confederate monument in Montgomery, Ala., on Thursday amid great enthusiasm. "I have come to join you," he said, "in the performance of a sacred task, to lay the foundation of a monument at the cradle of the Confederate Government, which shall commemorate the gallant sons of Alabama who died for their country, who gave their lives a free-will offering in defence of the rights of their sires won in the war of the Revolution, and the State sovereignty, freedom, and independence which was left as an inheritance to their posterity forever. These rights the compact of union was formed not to destroy, but the better to preserve and perpetuate. Who denies this cannot have attentively read the Articles of Confederation or the Constitution of the United States." In closing he said: "Permit me to say, though the memory of our glorious past must ever be dear to us, duty points to the present and future. Alabama having resumed her place in the Union, be it yours to fulfil all the obligations devolving upon all good citizens seeking to restore the general Government to its pristine

purity, and as best you may to promote the welfare and happiness of your common country."

Henry Hobson Richardson, the eminent architect, died near Boston on Wednesday, aged about forty-eight. He was graduated at Harvard, and received his art education at the École des Beaux Arts, in Paris. Many costly and monumental public buildings of great merit, of which Trinity Church, Boston, is a conspicuous example, entitled him to rank as the head of his profession.

FOREIGN.

Michael Davitt, in a speech at Birmingham on Wednesday night, said that Mr. Chamberlain had tried to justify his attitude toward the Irish bills by a most inconsistent argument, and he quoted a passage from a speech made by Mr. Chamberlain at Sheffield, in which the latter favored Mr. Butt's scheme and the removal of the Irish representatives from Westminster.

In a speech at Glasgow on Friday night, Mr. John Morley said in regard to the difficulty about Irish representation at Westminster: "The difficulty can be met by some such suggestion as I ventured to make in the House of Commons. What I ventured to suggest has since been supported by a man of greater authority and experience in the House than I. It was, for two or three years to let Ireland get the benefit of all the faculty and all the capacity of Ireland to set this new machinery a-going. If at the end of these two or three or five years there is then a desire felt or expressed on the part of the Irish people to revert once more to their old position, whether in reduced numbers or otherwise, at Westminster, I think it would be an arrangement which all Englishmen and Scotchmen might most gladly fall in with, and against which no Irishman would have very much to say." This is a hint that the Government is ready to modify the scheme on this important point.

Lord Iddesleigh (Sir Stafford Northcote) in an address at Plymouth asked the Conservatives, in consideration of the fact that a large part of the Liberal party was unable to agree with the Ministry, to refrain from abusing Mr. Gladstone.

A two-column manifesto from Mr. Gladstone to his Midlothian constituents was published on Monday morning. He explains that his great age has prevented his taking part in the speeches of the Easter recess, and has obliged him to reserve his limited powers for the House of Commons, and for that reason he uses his pen instead of his voice. He gives a long history of the attempts to conciliate and coerce Ireland, and, referring to the present conflict, says: "On the side adverse to the Government are found, as I sorrowfully admit, in profuse abundance, station, title, wealth, social influence, and the professions, or the large majority of them—in a word, the spirit and power of class. These are the main body of the opposing host." Explaining his aim he says: "It is to restore your Parliament to efficacy by dividing and by removing obstacles to its work; to treat the Irish question with a due regard to its specialties, but with the same thoroughness of method by which we have solved colonial problems that fifty years back were hardly, if at all, less formidable."

"Now, however," he adds, "a new terror is brought upon the stage—the terror of home rule for Scotland, and some add for Wales. This suggestion does not alarm me. Only give us a little time to look at this question in its order of merit. I am not sorry that Scotland and Wales have been named, because all serious naming of them serves to help our movement on behalf of Ireland. I can draw no vital distinction of right between the case of Ireland and the other cases, but there are many distinctions of circumstance. For many years I have hoped it might be found practicable to apply decentralizing processes, even, perhaps, to portions of different conditions. Each case, which will naturally require differences of treatment, will remain subject to the primary imperial obligations. I believe that the standard and measure of good government in Scotland and Wales will be eventually determined by public opinion in Scotland and Wales. But this formidable army which opposes the Government is in bulk and constituent parts the same, though now enriched at our cost with a valuable contingent of recruits that has fought in every political battle of the last sixty years and been defeated. We have before this had great controversies on free trade, free navigation, public education, religious equality, and the extension of the franchise. On these and other great issues this class fought uniformly on the wrong side, and was uniformly beaten by a power more difficult to marshal, but resistless when marshalled—by the upright sense of the nation. The power of gross and wholesale insult emboldens some, but only some, and not, I rejoice to think, the nations of Scotland or England. Lord Hartington reminded us, and I cordially agree with him, that this question, which may be turned over a thousand ways and placed in a thousand partial lights, can only be settled by the nation. From the first I stated, and I think I may speak for the Government at large, that here is my main and capital reliance. I rely upon my colleagues, upon an upright and enlightened House of Commons, upon the effect of free discussion; but the heart, the root, the beginning and the ending of my trust is in the wise and generous justice of the nation."

The following paragraphs of the manifesto are significant of Mr. Gladstone's attitude toward the Land-Purchase Bill, and his probable willingness to amend the Home-Rule Bill: "I speak now of the Home-Rule Bill, and leave the Land-Purchase Bill to stand on the declaration already made, adding only an expression of regret to find that, while the sands are running from the hour-glass, the Irish landlords have given no indication of a desire to accept the proposal framed in a spirit of the utmost allowable regard for their apprehensions and interest. . . . We are not now debating the amount of the Irish contributions to the empire, or the composition of the legislative body, or the maintenance of a representative connection with Westminster. On these and many more questions we may and may not be at odds. But what we are debating is the larger question which includes, I think absorbs, them all—the question whether you will or will not have regard to the prayer of Ireland for the management of affairs specifically and exclusively her own. This and no other is the matter which the House of Commons has to decide."

Many of Mr. Gladstone's stanchest supporters openly express the conviction that the Land-Purchase Bill will be dropped. The manifesto is taken to indicate that large concessions will be made to Mr. Chamberlain in return for the support of wavering Liberals, in order to carry the Home-Rule Bill through its second reading. The Conservatives believe that the manifesto will increase the opposition to the measure.

Statistics show that during the last three months 698 families, comprising 3,477 persons, were evicted from holdings in Ireland. During the same period 256 outrages were committed.

The death is announced of the Earl of Redesdale, Chairman of Committees and Deputy Speaker of the House of Lords since 1851. The Earl of Redesdale was born in Ireland in 1805. His father was once Lord Chancellor of Ireland. He succeeded his father as Baron Redesdale in 1830, and was made an earl in 1876. The late earl was an inveterate pamphleteer. He was strongly opposed to the disestablishment of the Irish Church. He was a Tory of the old school, and came into prominence in this country by his remarkable speeches on the *Alabama* claims question. His personal appearance was notably eccentric.

Queen Victoria formally opened the Colonial Exhibition in London on Tuesday. She was greeted with enthusiasm. A prominent feature of the opening ceremonies was the Ode composed for the occasion by Lord Tennyson. This was magnificently rendered by a vast choir of carefully selected voices. The Ode was sung just previous to the Queen's formal declaration that the exhibition was open. The music was by Sir Arthur Sullivan. One stanza was sung in Sanskrit, in deference to the Imperial idea.

The Greek Minister of War resigned on Thursday because he did not coincide with the action taken by his colleagues during his absence at the front. The Powers have approved the action of their representatives in Athens in presenting the ultimatum to the Greek Government.

Greece, in her reply delivered on Thursday to the ultimatum of the Powers ordering her to disarm within eight days, points to the fact that she had notified the Powers prior to the receipt of their ultimatum that she had accepted the counsel of France, thus giving formal assurance that, yielding to the desire of the Powers, she would not disturb the peace. Consequently she will maintain her armaments, but will gradually reduce them. Greece trusts, the answer adds, that the ultimatum of the Powers will be now regarded as having no further object. The foreign Ministers in Athens, on receiving the reply of Greece, referred it to their respective Governments, from whom they awaited instructions before answering it.

The Greek Government decided on Monday that its reply already made to the ultimatum of the Powers was sufficient, and that the promises contained therein were all it could make. The ministers of the Powers prepared to embark on the allied fleet, but were instructed on Tuesday to remain at their posts.

It is believed that the Powers will accept a guarantee from France that she will secure the disarmament of Greece, and that they will not fix an actual period for its accomplishment.

There is serious dissension in the Spanish Cabinet. The friction is due to the refusal of the other Ministers to yield to the demands of Señor Camacho, the Minister of Finance, for economy in the budget, which he insists is necessary.

The Prussian Government, fearing that strikes are impending, has issued a decree ordering the police to interfere in case strikers intimidate workmen. Socialist meetings and publications will be put under energetic surveillance.

The French have suppressed the revolt of natives in Senegal.

Another attempt to burn Mandalay, Burmah, was made on Thursday. The damage is considerable.

A pastoral letter was received in Montreal on Wednesday from Cardinal Taschereau, condemning the Knights of Labor as a secret organization inimical to the interests of religion and good morals. Great efforts had been made by the local officers of the order to influence the Cardinal and prevent the issuing of this pastoral. The Cardinal, it is understood, before issuing it conferred with all the provincial bishops, who all agree with his decision.

The Grand Vicar Marshal of the Bishop's Palace in Montreal is authority for the statement that at the Consistory in June next, to be held in Rome, the Pope will issue a bull absolutely condemning and excommunicating all the Knights of Labor.

The report that an American fishing vessel had been seized at Baddeck, Cape Breton, for infringement of the fishing laws, was incorrect. The Dominion Collector of Customs says that an American schooner in the Bras d'Or Lake was examined on suspicion of irregularity in her papers, but, the cargo and clearances being found to agree, she was allowed to proceed on her voyage.

DEMOCRATS AND MUGWUMPS.

A LETTER from Washington in the Springfield *Republican*, probably written by Mr. Samuel Bowles, discussing the President's attitude toward the leaders of the Democratic party on the one hand and toward civil-service reform on the other, has attracted the lively interest of the Republican newspapers, and has led the Philadelphia *Press* to remark that "the result of one year of a reform Democratic Mugwump Administration is profound discontent among the Democrats, and dissatisfaction among the Mugwumps. The result," it continues, "is exactly what was predicted when it was claimed that, however sincere Cleveland might be himself, he would be unable to stand up against the bad tendencies of his own party."

Mr. Bowles's letter is for the most part a narrative of facts that came under his observation in Washington, with here and there an opinion of his own as to what might better have been done. The line between his facts and his opinions is not in all cases so clearly drawn as would be desirable, but there is a clear division of the subject treated into two parts, viz.: the discontent of the Democratic leaders with so much of civil-service reform as the President has insisted upon, and the discontent of the Independents with the infractions, or supposed infractions, of principle which have been committed by the President, or by his subordinates with his consent. As to the former of these two difficulties, Mr. Bowles says in substance that there is a great deal of complaint among Democrats that the President has not formulated a policy, or rather a lot of policies, and put them through as a party chief should do; that he has housed himself in the Executive Mansion, and allowed things to take their own course, and that consequently the party is drifting like a ship without rudder or compass. This is the complaint made in Washington wherever two or three Democratic Congressmen are gathered together. It signifies simply that Congressmen are not allowed to have the offices they want or as many as they want. To whatever extent this discontent exists, civil-service reform has got in their way and has blocked their game.

The dissatisfied Democrats, as well as other people, know that our form of government does not contemplate that the President shall formulate the policy of his party, or provide machinery for his doing so, in any other way than by making recommendations to Congress in writing from time to time. They know, and all know, that having a policy and "putting it through" means, so far as the President is concerned, using the offices as bribes to secure the votes of some and as whips to punish the obstinacy of others. There is no other significance to the phrase in this country of ours. This view is abundantly sustained by political history. The only Presidents during this generation who have had policies to "put through" were Andrew Johnson and General Grant. Both made lamentable failures, and both failed to put through the policies which they had at heart. Both Johnson and Grant used the patronage of the Government for all that it would bring—the one to carry out his ideas of Southern Reconstruction, and the other to secure the annexation of San Domingo. They demoralized the public service to an unheard-of degree, produced incurable dissensions in their party, and in the end failed. Now what would have happened if Mr. Cleveland had gone to Washington with the purpose to "put through" a repeal of the Silver Bill, or a revision of the tariff, or to carry out any policy which required votes in Congress? After recommending to Congress the measures he desired to have adopted, as he has done, there would be no recourse but to say to reluctant members: "Here are so many offices at your disposal if you vote for my measures. If you do not so vote, they will be given to your rivals and enemies in your own districts, and if you have any friends in office now, they will be put out." This is the lowest form of public debauchery. It would have ruined Mr. Cleveland as it ruined his party predecessors, Pierce and Buchanan, and it would have failed utterly, as it did in their cases, to accomplish the end sought to be gained.

Now, what have the Mugwumps to say? They perceive, in the first place, that, to whatever extent Democratic discontent exists, it exists because civil-service reform has found a lodgment in the White House. There is no complaint that Mr. Cleveland has violated any principle held dear by the Democratic party. It is not alleged that he has gone counter to the Democratic platform or to the pledges made before his election. The only complaint from that quarter is that he has not cut up and served out the public patronage fast enough. This is not a complaint that grieves any Mugwump. On the other hand, there is a complaint that the President has come short in some rather glaring cases of the terms of the letter which he voluntarily addressed to Mr. Curtis on Christmas day, 1884. This is a subject which we have discussed from time to time, and which we shall reserve for separate treatment. There is also a complaint that the Civil-Service Reform Law has been violated in some places, notably in Baltimore and Indianapolis. These appear to be two very rotten spots. Now, the violation of a statute of the United States is a much graver matter than differences of opinion concerning a voluntary pledge, as to which there may be much latitude of interpretation. Such violation cannot be tolerated here and there by those who have civil-service reform at heart any more than counterfeiting can be tolerated here and there by banks. We believe that it will not be tolerated by the President if the facts shall show that an infraction of law has been committed, or that its spirit has been violated by any person who holds his commission. At all events, the Republican press may rest assured that no pains will be spared by the Mugwumps to find out the facts, and that there will be no hesitancy on their part in proclaiming them.

THE LESSONS OF THE STRIKES.

THE railroad strikes may now be considered for all practical purposes at an end. They have caused a great deal of pecuniary loss to the corporations, to the workingmen, and to the business community. But they have been of inestimable value as a means of securing for the labor problem an amount and kind of discussion from all classes such as it never received before. Never before have the labor associations attracted so much attention to their aims and methods from others besides large employers. Never before has the public been brought to a thorough comprehension of the theory which underlies nearly all the strikes that take place in this country—the theory that the striking laborer has a moral right to be employed on his own terms in the place he has left. It is this theory that causes the resort to violence to which nearly every large strike of unskilled, or only slightly skilled, labor owes the smallest success. Not one of the recent railroad strikes would have delayed traffic for over a day or two but for the forcible resistance of the strikers to the conduct of the business by anybody but themselves. This forcible resistance is due almost wholly to the belief that when the member of a union gets a place in anybody's employment, he acquires a vested interest in it of which the employer has no right to deprive him. It is this which makes the members of all the unions sympathize either secretly or openly with the assaults and other acts of violence which accompany all the large strikes. They look on them as not wholly illegitimate attempts to defend a species of property. This theory has never before been as thoroughly examined by the public at large as it has been during the late troubles. In fact, there has been for a great many years a sort of ignorant or indifferent acquiescence in it. But this is at an end. It has been examined, and its absurdity made manifest, and a manifest absurdity does not live long in this country.

But there is another lesson, almost equally important, which we trust the strikes may bring home to railroad managers, both East and West. No matter how mischievous or how badly managed trade organizations may be, or how absurd the pretensions they make, their continuance and growth is certain. The individual laborer in any calling is, in these days of great accumulations of capital, very weak and helpless in his relations with the employer. He knows that combination with his fellows will give him strength in making his bargains and defending his rights, and therefore combine he will. But the very fact that these combinations are intended to make the weak strong, makes them also to a certain degree hostile to all excellence. They nearly all oppose bitterly any display of individual superiority. They nearly all see to it that unusual ingenuity, or skill, or diligence, or ambition, or industry shall not profit a man. They nearly all try to keep all the members down to the level of the most stupid, or slow, or indolent, or contented. In so far they are hostile to civilization itself, and are drags on the wheels of both moral and material progress. They cultivate deliberately, in spite of the professions of their documents, a rather low mental and moral type of man. But this makes it all the more important that the corporations and other great employers of labor who suffer from them, and who refuse to "recognize" them, should in their dealings with their own em-

ployees open up a more excellent way. If there be any one inference from the late labor troubles more palpable than another, it is that the great corporations should do more to raise the character of their own service, to infuse into their dealings with their employees something better than the spirit of contract or patronage merely. In other words, they should do something to make their men feel that the Union is not a necessity to them; that the employer will not take advantage of their weakness, and that the corps in which they work serves all the purposes of a trade-union, and does secure them kindly and considerate treatment, the best wages the market allows, and protection from arbitrary or hasty dismissal.

There is not a railroad in this country which might not by a little effort make its own service a sort of *corps d'élite*, which would attract the most capable and ambitious men, and in which there would be free play for talent and capacity. Some of them have done this, or made a very near approach to it already, but in a large number the managers care very little how the employees feel, as long as they do not strike, and do very little to make the service attractive to picked men. We believe that a change of policy in this respect would soon give us large bodies of laborers in all fields, who would be just as much ashamed to abandon their work, without knowing why, on seeing two fingers held up, or to pummel people who took their places, or picket or boycott their employer's premises, as clergymen, or lawyers, or doctors would be. Large numbers now live in slavery to the O'Donnells and Ironses simply because they cannot do better. Large numbers are doing poor work and keeping their best faculties dormant, under Union compulsion, simply because outside of the Union there is no sympathy or support or consideration for them to be found—nobody on whom they can count for help or counsel on dark and rainy days, and they fear to face the world absolutely alone with wives and children dependent on them.

A NEW WAY TO GET RID OF LABOR.

The limitation of the time during which human beings shall be allowed to work to eight hours a day has been regarded hitherto as a somewhat visionary scheme. Economic progress in one sense has consisted in the attainment of given results with a diminished expenditure of labor; natural forces have been brought in to do the work of man. But the increase of wealth has been due to the fact that the labor thus set free has been reëmployed, so that our progress would be more correctly described as consisting in the attainment of greater results with a given expenditure of labor. Every one would be glad if progress could be maintained with less labor than at present, but most persons are apprehensive that if the day's work should be reduced to eight hours, a serious check would be given to our prosperity.

It is highly gratifying, therefore, to come upon a demonstration that the industrial prosperity of the country, as well as the moral and social well-being of the laboring classes, will be promoted by this reduction of hours. Such a demonstration is furnished by a writer in the April number of the *Forum*, Mr. George Gunton. He estimates the number of "exclusively wage laborers" at 9,472,159—a number which we regret to see he arrives at by the exclusion of 1,075,655 domestic servants. It is notorious that the hours of this class of laborers are the longest of all, and that they are generally prevented from devoting themselves to moral and æsthetic culture by the exactions of their employers. The time that might be spent in attending lectures or concerts, or in visiting art galleries, is too often consumed in the wearisome occupation of washing dishes after the protracted orgies of capitalists have been concluded. But we pass on to Mr. Gunton's demonstration:

"Taking eleven hours to be the average length of the working-day, if an eight-hour system were adopted there would be a uniform reduction of three hours' labor a day, the effect of which upon the industrial and business interests of the community must be obvious. The first and immediate effect of such a measure would be to reduce the average daily production over one-fourth. In other words, the product of 28,416,477 hours' labor a day would be withdrawn from the market without discharging a single laborer. The commercial vacuum thus produced would, in its effect upon labor and business, be equal to increasing the present demand over one-fourth; that is to say, without increasing our home or foreign market, but simply to supply the present nominal consumption, it would create employment for 3,500,000 laborers. To meet this demand, about one-sixth more factories and workshops would be needed, besides setting our present machinery in operation; and a further demand for labor would be created in the mines, forges, furnaces, ironworks, and the various industries that contribute to the building and equipment of the requisite new factories and workshops. . . . Nor is this all. The new demand for labor thus created would necessarily increase the number of consumers, and thereby still further enlarge the demand for commodities; and, according to the popular doctrine of supply and demand, the increased demand for labor, by reducing competition among laborers, must tend to increase wages."

To the objection that if no more wealth is produced no more can be distributed, and that if more laborers are required to produce a given result, they will get lower wages, the reply is as follows: The extent of the market determines business prosperity. The extent of the market is governed by the consumption of wealth by the masses, and this by the standard of living, which in turn is the effect of the habits and customs or character of the people. Therefore whatever tends to increase the wants, improve the habits, and raise the standard of living of the masses, must necessarily tend permanently to increase the consumption and production of wealth.

"And this is precisely what, from the natural operation of economic forces, must result from the adoption of an eight-hour system. . . . The mass of laborers throughout the country, having three hours a day extra time for leisure and opportunity, and being less exhausted, mentally and physically, will be forced into more varied social relations—a new environment, the unconscious influence of which will naturally awaken and develop new desires and tastes that will slowly and surely crystallize into urgent wants and fixed habits, making a higher standard of living inevitable. . . . This increased consumption necessarily implies a corresponding increase in production, and consequently an increased demand for labor and higher wages. . . . It is therefore manifest that the general and permanent economic effect of an eight-hour system would be to naturally increase the aggregate consumption and production of wealth."

It is the mark of genius to discern great world-truths in the most commonplace events. Nothing is more common than to see men who are unemployed half the time, and the shallow philanthropy of the day deplores their condition. The folly of this is made apparent by this writer. These half-employed men have really "extra time for leisure and opportunity"; they are less exhausted mentally and physically, and they are forced into more varied social relations. The crystallization of their desires and tastes into urgent wants and fixed habits does not always, perhaps, make a higher standard of living inevitable. A desire for what one has not money to buy sometimes forces one into social relations with the officers of the law that are more varied than pleasant, and leads to a standard of living that is certainly "inevitable" without necessarily being higher. But this does not affect the fundamental truth, brought out so clearly by this philosopher, that the way to improve your condition is to increase your wants. It is important not to misunderstand this principle. Nothing is easier than to suppose that when a man feels his wants increasing he will work harder in order to obtain the means of gratifying them. But this is precisely the fallacy that the new doctrine is designed to explode. The true theory is, that if a man works less, his wants will tend to increase, and we believe that when attention has once been generally drawn to this principle it will be admitted as self-evident. Exactly how new wants are to be gratified merely because they come into existence, is, we are sorry to say, not made perfectly clear by Mr. Gunton, and this is a practical difficulty which has perplexed a great many people. But it is unreasonable to reject a novel theory merely because it does not satisfy every objector when it is first propounded. It is said that Hegel used to tell his students that in order to understand his philosophy they must stand on their heads. Something the same must be true of this new theory of the production of wealth, and doubtless after we have become accustomed to the aspect of things from this unusual position, many difficulties will resolve themselves.

It is seldom the case that the discoverer of a great principle foresees all its applications. No intelligent person, however, regards this circumstance as lessening the glory of discovery. The fame of Columbus is not diminished by the fact that he was in search, not of a new continent, but of a new way to an old one. He discovered America, and the critic would be indeed captious that should complain that the far-reaching consequences of this event were not at once perceived. We shall, therefore, not hesitate to point out some extensions of this new principle of wealth that may not have presented themselves to the mind of its discoverer.

Let us suppose that, instead of taking eight hours as the length of a day's labor, four hours be fixed upon. In that case the product, not of some 28,000,000 hours' labor a day, but of over 60,000,000 hours would be withdrawn from the market without discharging a single laborer. The commercial vacuum thus produced would, in its effect on business, be equal to increasing the present demand over one-half. It would create employment for over 7,000,000 laborers. To meet this demand, much more than one-sixth more factories and workshops would be needed, and a very active demand for labor

would be created in the mines, forges, etc.; while this new demand for labor would necessarily enlarge the number of consumers and the demand for commodities. This increased demand for labor would obviously extinguish competition among laborers, and wages would therefore bound upwards. It is equally obvious that the wants of the masses would tend to increase even more if they worked only four hours instead of eight, and that the production and consumption of wealth would still more increase. If the mass of laborers had not three hours, but seven hours, a day "extra time for leisure and opportunity," they would be exhausted hardly at all, and the variety of social relations into which they would be forced would be almost inconceivable. So much "opportunity" would infallibly result in a gigantic crystallization of desires into urgent wants, and we are sure that a higher standard of living would become very soon inevitable. If it were postponed, the consequences might be such as we should not like to answer for.

We do not like either to carry a theory to extremes, or to seem to rob its propounder of the credit due to its complete development. It is sufficient, therefore, to suggest that the principle that we have considered may eventually lead to the entire extinction of the primeval curse of labor. We know of no reason why, if the reduction of the hours of labor—which, it is important to observe, means with Mr. Gunton a corresponding reduction of the amount of work performed—infallibly leads to an increased production of wealth, the condition of the race should not be infinitely improved by the general cessation of tiresome exertion. A standard of living would thus be brought about that would be almost inconceivably higher than the present one; a standard of living so high, indeed, that it is now supposed to be attainable only by angels, and in the attainment of which the wants of most men would become so urgent as to cause them to exchange the human for the angelic state of existence.

"READING NOTICES."

Our contemporary, the *Times*, has got into a position of some embarrassment from its practice of printing what are known in the trade as "reading notices"—that is, matter of one sort or another which is really an advertisement, and is paid for as such, but is so disguised as to make it seem, to the general public, an editorial utterance of the newspaper in which it appears. A large number of advertisers are constantly in quest of this sort of "notice" of their wares, and are willing to pay very highly for it; and the more complete the disguise is, either through the nature of the article, or its position in the paper, or its typographical arrangement, the more highly they are willing to pay. As a general rule the real character of these "reading notices" is perceptible at a glance in all newspaper offices, but they undoubtedly to a greater or less extent impose on the general public. In fact, if they did not do so, they would not be valued by the advertisers, and could only be sold at ordinary advertising rates. The one which the *Times* printed of the Bell Telephone Company was, to the professional eye, plainly enough an advertisement, but to the public it undoubtedly wore the appearance of an editorial examination of the history and prospects of the Bell Telephone Company, and it was because it wore this appearance that the company was willing to pay $1,200 for it. It was probably worth that money as an editorial view; as a mere advertisement it would have had no value whatever.

All this amounts to saying, we confess, that a "reading notice" is an attempt more or less successful to deceive the purchasing public. As such it is no worse than many things which are done in other reputable callings than journalism. But it has always seemed to us that newspapers were absolutely cut off from all these doubtful modes of making money by their position as preachers and censors. A minister who started a church, and let out the basement for a faro bank or drinking saloon, and inserted ingenious puffs of business enterprises of any kind in his sermons, might possibly be a sincere moralist, and an implacable hater of wrong-doing, but if his ways ever became known, he would find great difficulty in getting people to believe it. The journalistic business ought, in fact, to be on all its sides the most purely conducted of human callings, owing to its pulpit attachment. As a professional exposer of every species of hypocrisy and deception, a newspaper is bound to avoid the smallest sign of humbug in any of its dealings with the public.

Nobody who knows the *Times* really believes that its sale of a "reading notice" to the Bell Telephone Company in fact affected, or was meant to affect, its independence in dealing with that company, but there was certainly enough impropriety about it to make very puzzling its conduct in giving the public to understand, one month later, that there was to be shortly a great exposure of "a Bell Telephone scandal involving certain newspaper editors in New York," compared to which "the Pan-Electric scandal, involving certain public men in Washington, was a small matter," and "assuring the public that the corrupt and criminal league of an insolent corporation with venal newspapers would not avail." The object of this, if it had any object, was clearly to make people believe that the Bell Telephone had bought the support of certain New York newspapers, although there was nothing in the condition or prospects of the company, as set forth in the "reading notice," to make any such purchase seem necessary or probable. If it was for any reason desirable to say this, however, it was certainly most imprudent and unfortunate for the publisher of the "reading notice" to say it. A newspaper which publishes reading notices is not necessarily corrupt in the ordinary sense of that term, but it certainly takes up its abode in a glass house, and should abstain from every form of stone-throwing.

It is but just to the *Times* to say that it is by no means the greatest offender in this respect. Others do much worse things in that line than the *Times* has ever done. The worst thing a newspaper can do is to sell the columns usually reserved for what are called editorial articles, and speak through them on public questions for cash down. This among leading journals is, we believe, very rare indeed. But in the second-class venality which consists in selling columns for the gratification of private greed or malice, we have never known anything quite equal to the *Tribune's* sale of a whole page for a verbatim report of the torture of a poor man who had offended Mr. Loubat in his Union Club row, by a minute examination of his private affairs in supplementary proceedings. Moreover, the *Tribune* called attention to the disgraceful report in a brief editorial article. Any one who takes pay for this sort of thing does what, in any other intellectual calling, would cover him with indelible shame. That it can be done without shame in a newspaper, shows what the public opinion of journalism is.

THE TROUBLES IN GALICIA.

At the moment when Bismarck finds it needful for the strengthening of Germany to begin a Germanizing crusade in the Polish provinces of Prussia, and Russia, encouraged by the example, sharpens and extends her own measures of denationalization in the "Vistula Land," still graver trouble is reported to be brewing in Austria's share of ancient Poland, Galicia. The ignorant peasantry of that province are said to be driven to a pitch of frenzy by the fear of a massacre prepared for them by the nobles, in retaliation for the butcheries committed by peasant bands in 1846. Those butcheries form one of the saddest pages in the annals of Poland. A vast conspiracy for a general rising in all parts of the divided country had been organized, under the lead of the democratic portion of the Polish emigration, and the complete enfranchisement of the peasantry was the most salient feature of the revolutionary programme. The vigilance of Prussia and terroristic measures in Russia frustrated the attempts in Posen and the neighborhood of Warsaw. In the then existing semi-independent republic of Cracow the insurrection was successful for a short while. In Galicia the incipient rising was stifled in the blood of thousands of nobles—men and women—shed by brutalized victims of ancient feudal oppression. Metternich's official minions were accused of having secretly kindled and openly fomented the blind fury which put the murderous scythe, the flail, and the torch in the hands of the peasants.

If the reports which reach us are not grossly exaggerated, and another *Jacquerie* is not groundlessly apprehended by the Polish nobility of Galicia, whatever machinations may have so violently reinflamed the old class hatred so long after the enfranchisement of the peasantry by the semi-revolutionary legislation of 1848, have surely not emanated from the agency of Austrian official organs. The political aspect of affairs in that division of the Empire of the Hapsburgs is completely changed. Since the liberal reconstruction of that empire on the dual basis of 1867, the Poles of Galicia have been reckoned among the most faithful supporters of the Austrian throne, and, especially since the accession to power of the Taaffe Cabinet, under which the Slavic elements have obtained decided predominance in Cisleithania, have been

deemed the pet subjects of the Crown. The Czechs of Bohemia and Moravia, in their constantly increasing demands for national autonomy, threaten the basis of the permanent integrity of the empire, while the separatistic aspirations of Galicia, for reasons both geographical and historical, can be viewed with equanimity by the statesmen of Vienna. Should Galicia become detached from Cisleithan Austria, to form a part of a restored Poland, the new State would be the strongest outer bulwark of defence against Russia, with whom Austria-Hungary will have, sooner or later, to wrestle for existence. Even now, weak and exposed as the province is, it is considered a useful rampart, owing to the intense anti-Russian sentiment and martial valor of its Polish inhabitants.

Unfortunately, however, both for the cause of Poland and the dual empire ruled by the Hapsburgs, the Poles form only one-half of the Slavic population of Galicia. The other half, occupying the eastern portions of the province, consists of Ruthenes, a branch of the Slavic race holding a middle ground, nationally and denominationally, between Poles and Russians. The nearest of kin to the neighboring Little-Russians in the Empire of the Czar, they belong to that division of the Eastern Church which (under the name of Uniates, or United Greeks) acknowledges the religious supremacy of the Pope. The nobility of the country is almost completely Polish and Catholic; hence a double natural antagonism between Poles and Ruthenes. Dormant in former times, it has become active and dangerous in the last half-century. It was one of the means—in his system of dividing and ruling—which Metternich employed against Polish discontent. Since his fall and the transformation of Austria, Russia has found in it a convenient lever for counteracting the regeneration of the Polish nationality on her borders, under the auspices of the Hapsburgs. The strife between Ruthenes and Poles has, in late years, become envenomed. Panslavist plotters, Socialists, and Nihilists unceasingly incite the Ruthene peasantry against nobles, "Jesuits," and Jews. The ground is undermined. But the Austrian Government well knows the situation and the peril, and, should an outbreak occur, will undoubtedly act with prompt energy and unsparing rigor.

THE ACHARNIANS.

GREEK play has followed Greek play ever since the Oxford "Agamemnon" prompted the Harvard "Œdipus," and, not satisfied with Æschylus and Sophocles, enterprising Hellenists have proceeded to revive Aristophanes; and the English success of the "Birds" is to be followed by the American experiment of the "Acharnians," which is to be performed in Philadelphia on May 14 and 15. We have spoken of the English success of the "Birds," but, in default of actual vision, it may be permitted to doubt whether success of the highest kind is possible for such a play. According to the published accounts, nothing could have been more grotesque than the performance, and if hilarity is success, then the success was unquestionable. And yet a lover of Aristophanes may be excused for distrusting an attempt to fix the dissolving views of Cloud-cuckootown, to cage the trilling melodies of the "Birds," just as for the lover of Shakspere "Midsummer's Night's Dream" can only be acted in the chambers of the brain. But the "Acharnians" is far more substantial, far more of the earth earthy. The first scene of the "Birds" introduces us to a region which is as unreal and mystical as the opening of the "Inferno." In the "Acharnians" we are at once on familiar ground, and instead of two mysterious beings on their way to Birddom, we encounter a flesh-and-blood Attic countryman who has taken up his abode in Athens in order to avoid the incursions of the Doric army. Instead of the flapping, fluttering, piping, quavering bird-chorus we have a tramping, pounding, banging chorus of Acharnians, hard-fisted charcoal-burners, who understand no poetic nonsense and utter none. There is comparatively little variety in the choral rhythms of the "Acharnians," and any moderately well-trained ear can catch the ever-recurring Cretic stamp, whereas the music of the "Birds" runs through almost the whole repertory of antique rhythms, and tries the most tripping modern utterance.

Not every one, however familiar he may be with Greek, can fly with the "Birds." Every one, no matter how prosaic his gait, can keep step with the "Acharnians." The movement of the piece, too, is simple but effective—so effective that if our civil war had left us much heart for joking while it was going on, we, too, might have had our "Acharnians," in which some Federal or Confederate borderer might have made a separate peace with the enemy and have regaled himself with tobacco or coffee, while his languishing countrymen had to put up with cabbage leaves or rye. Indeed, much of the fun of the "Acharnians" is on the surface, much of it lies in the situation; and to those who do not know the original well enough to take the finer points, an outline of the plot—if plot it may be called—will leave merriment enough to make the comedy amusing. Comedy—not farce, as some have been inclined to call it, for the art of the "Acharnians" is not to be depressed beneath its proper rank. It is intensely literary, and of itself suffices to explode any attempt to distribute the comedies of Aristophanes into literary and political, for it is both; and though the plot is hardly sufficiently well articulated to deserve the name, still it is not a mere succession of loose scenes strung on the thread of a common theme. The play does not split in half as the "Frogs" does, or seems to do. There is a regular progress from trial to triumph; the simple *motif* of contrast between peace and war is relieved by an admirable variety of figures, now representative men from abroad, now applications from home, while two figures, the hero of arms, Lamachus, and the apostle of peace, Dicæopolis, brace the play from opposing sides. The ludicrous scene of the returning ambassadors and the foreign envoys is not otiose. It gives justification of the secessionist proceeding of Dicæopolis. And the only part of the piece that seems to disturb the organism is the exquisite fooling of the appeal to Euripides, when Dicæopolis, about to plead for his life before the embittered Acharnians, applies to the poet for a tragic outfit in which to move his angry judges to pity. Yet this scene grows so naturally out of the situation, makes the plea of Dicæopolis so irresistibly comic, and retards the action so aptly, that it is a beauty and not a blemish even from the point of view of the plot.

But we have been betrayed into writing of the "Acharnians" as if the plot were as familiar to the English reader as that of any of the Sullivan-Gilbert extravaganzas; and surely it is the English reader's own fault if it is not, for the "Acharnians" has been fortunate in its translators from Frere to Tyrrell. Perhaps, in view of the approaching performance, both those who know the piece and those who do not may find a summary timely.

Dicæopolis is discovered in solitary meditation. The scene, the Pnyx. He is brooding over the troubles of this life, and comes to a conclusion, reached long before him by certain of his own prophets, that life has more pains than pleasures—and his life in particular—four grains of pleasure to a Sahara of annoyances. It was a joy to see Cleon disgorge, but what an anguish to set one's mouth for Æschylus and get Theognis. It was a delight to hear one musician perform, worse than pressing to death to be tortured by another. But the worst of all is to stay here and wait for the assembling of the people, and see the hustling of the belated crowds, and after all to hear no word for peace. Dicæopolis is always the first on the ground, sighing, yawning, stretching, making notes, going over his accounts, finishing his toilet, and oh! gazing out toward his farm, yearning for peace, longing for his own dear village, that never cried, like hateful Athens, "Buy coals," "Buy vinegar," "Buy oil"—"Sweet Buy and Buy," in sooth. By this time Dicæopolis is wrought up to the pitch of howling down every speaker who does not plead for peace, and so poses at once in the character which he is to maintain throughout.

It is midday. The crowd comes thronging into their seats. The herald calls for speakers, and one Amphitheus rises and proclaims his divine lineage in true Euripidean fashion, and declares that he is empowered by the gods to make peace with Sparta; but, like so many modern men with a mission, he has to confess that the funds are not forthcoming, and he is unceremoniously led out by the police, while Dicæopolis, who pleads his cause, is ordered to be silent. Remonstrance is in vain, for just then the embassy that has been at the court of the Shah is announced, and the chief of the mission gives a report of the arduous services of himself and his colleagues, all for the beggarly pay of two drachmæ a day. Of course each particular is duly commented on by Dicæopolis—the misery of being conveyed in a cushioned carriage, the woe of drinking sweet wine without a drop of water out of goblets of crystal and gold, the anguish of keeping up the reputation of the Athenians among the barbarians by heavy eating and hard drinking, the long waiting on the Shah's movements, the desperate struggle with oxen piping hot from the oven and the mammoth mockbird with which the Shah entertained them. But now their troubles are over, and they have brought with them the Eye of the Shah, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the Lord of the Golden Plane-tree, Sham-Ibrahim by name. Sham-Ibrahim's gibberish is confidently translated to mean that the Shah promises to send gold; but when the Eye is requested to emphasize the word gold, the envoy announces in sufficiently intelligible Greek that gold they are to have none.

But Dicæopolis is the only one whose ear is purged to understand the purport of the answer, and his protest goes for naught. The Eye is taken off solemnly to a state banquet, and the only comfort Dicæopolis finds is the reappearance of Amphitheus, whom he intrusts with a commission to buy him a special peace for himself, his children, and his good woman. In the sweet assurance that his own future is secure, Dicæopolis listens with greater coolness at first to the lying representations of another embassy, this time from Thrace, who bring with them a ragged regiment of foreign ruffians; but after a while indignation gets the better of him, and he protests again. At this point the assembly is dissolved and Dicæopolis is left alone, but not long, for Amphitheus rushes on the stage in hot haste, closely pursued by the Acharnians, whose fair vineyards had been ruthlessly laid waste by

the Peloponnesians, and who breathe nothing but revenge against the enemy and against all compromisers—original Union men or Copperheads. Amphitheus has only time to show three samples of the wine of peace—the quinquennial, the decennial, and the thirty years' vintage; and as soon as Dicæopolis decides that the thirty years' peace is the best, that it smells of ambrosia and nectar, that it says, "No three-days' cooked rations" as distinctly as anything, and "Go where thou wilt," "Ha! that is the peace for him and a fig for the Acharnians"—as soon as Dicæopolis, then, gives his hearty and unqualified and ingurgitating approval of the long term, the mediator vanishes and the Acharnians come tramping in.

We have no space for the discussion of the way in which the twenty-four stalwart Acharnians deliver what is set down for them; but whether singly or together, they make the air resonant with their clamor. Amphitheus has escaped. The charcoal-burners are not in their first youth, and the nimble runner who sped from Athens to Sparta and back, in utter defiance of the unities, has been too quick for them. But, thank heaven, they are not too old for throwing stones, of which they make ample provision. Just then Dicæopolis enters, prepared to offer sacrifice to Dionysus; his wife, daughter, and slaves in his train. The chorus, hearing his call for religious silence, secrete themselves, while Dicæopolis offers his prayer to Dionysus, marshals his little procession, and sings a hymn to one of the boon companions of Bacchus—a notable sample of a Phallic song. Scarcely has he uttered the words, "The shield shall in the smokehouse hang aloft," when the Acharnians, who have a professional interest in all that pertains to smoke, rush forth with the cry: "Here's the villain, here's the villain. Pelt him, pelt him, pelt him, pelt him! Hit him, hit the renegado; pelt away, pelt away!" Dicæopolis receives them with dignity, and, in response to their hasty, choking objurgation, answers as a hero of Euripides might have answered in like stress. The chorus are resolved that he must die, but quiet down enough to engage in a debate with the culprit, in which each party hurls tetrameters at the other until the discussion is cut short by the announcement of the chorus that they will hear him no further: the traitor who has made peace with the enemy is doomed.

But Dicæopolis has been watching his opportunity, and as they are about to execute sentence, produces a hostage that he has seized—none other than Coal Creel—and threatens to slaughter the dear Being on the spot. This brings the Acharnians to terms at once, in their fear for their beloved basket. They throw down the stones that they had gathered, Dicæopolis the sword that he had drawn; and the accused offers to vindicate his cause with his head on the block. But before Dicæopolis begins his speech he desires one favor. He is in festal array, and the proper thing for the defendant in such a case is to equip himself with mean attire in order to move the jury to compassion. "Might he not ask permission to get himself up in regulation costume?" The chorus is cynically sceptical about the efficacy of any toggery he might select, even if it were the cloak of darkness; but Dicæopolis takes his fate in his hands, and goes to Euripides—who lives conveniently near—the "beggar-poet," the "rag-picker." The interview with Euripides lasts a long time. It is the first of the many showers that the Zeus of comedy discharges at the great poet. Of Socrates, Aristophanes soon wearies; of Euripides, never. Here, apart from the parodies, the main point is the lowering of the dignity of the tragic stage by the introduction of heroes in extreme destitution, the Euripidean realism from which Sophocles did not disdain to learn. And so Dicæopolis borrows of Euripides article after article of his tragic "property." The rags and tatters of Euripides' different heroes are carefully inspected, and the wardrobe of hero after hero is rejected as too good, until the scarecrow suit of Euripides' chiefest tatterdemalion, Telephus, is discovered lying between the mammocked apparel of Thyestes and the draggle-tail costume of Ino. Next he claims a Mysian cap, and, thus equipped, begins to feel the afflatus of Euripidean phrases; but he needs still more, and secures, one after another, a beggar's staff, a basket with a hole burnt in it, a noggin with its lip knocked off, a damaged pipkin with a sponge for a plug. By this time Euripides declares that Dicæopolis has carried off his entire tragedy, and when the importunate beggar asks for a few greens to put in his basket, the allusion to his mother's calling as an herb-seller is too much for the poet's patience, and the servant is bidden, in tragic tones, "Lower the portcullis," or, if you choose, "Close the fortalice."

In the defence which Dicæopolis now makes, the orator begins his *captatio benevolentiæ* by professing his hatred of the Lacedæmonians, and yet finds that they are not wholly to blame for the hostilities. It is the rascally politicians that are the cause of the trouble. Some little extradition difficulties between Megara and Athens, in which Aspasia had a special interest, roused the wrath of Pericles, the Olympian who "lightened and thundered and churned Greece to storm." The Megarians appealed to Sparta. Sparta begged the Athenians to modify their exclusion of Megara. They flatly refused. Hence the war. Now, suppose the boot had been on the other leg; what then? Would not the Athenians have mobilized their fleet as vigorously as the Spartans their army? The fact is, in the words of the prophet, "Athens doth not know; my people doth not consider."

The application of this familiar text divides the chorus into two parties, and in the midst of the altercation Lamachus appears, the very Hotspur to whose memory Aristophanes is to do honor in after years. His coming had been invoked by the war party, and Lamachus and Dicæopolis engage in a duel of words in which all the fine language is on the side of Lamachus, the fun on the side of Dicæopolis, who laughs at his military rig, sneers at his heroism at so much per diem, rakes up the army record of the general with one hand and his debts with the other. Exeunt Lamachus and Dicæopolis—Lamachus with proclamation of vigorous war by sea and by land; Dicæopolis with announcement of open market to all the Peloponnesians, to Megarians west and Bœotians north.

The chorus is now and henceforth entirely on the side of Dicæopolis, and in the first line of the *parabasis*, which now follows, announces that he has won his case. The *parabasis*, that part of the ancient comedy in which the poet takes the public into his confidence—that part on which the highest art and the most telling eloquence are expended—withdraws itself from the appreciation of those who are interested in the comic situation only. Without the rhythm, without the music, without the politics, the *parabasis* seems an impertinent interlude; and yet this opening of the window in the heart of Momus enables us to see the piece in its true light. In the *parabasis* of the "Acharnians," Aristophanes vindicates his political course, and glorifies his services to the state as a wise and prudent counsellor—one whom the tributaries are eager to see, one whom the Shah honors, whom the enemy is eager to appropriate. No wonder the Lacedæmonians demand Ægina from the Athenians, for with Ægina goes Aristophanes. But the poet is not to be given up; he must continue to administer wise advice to the state, and Cleon may rage and imagine vain things to the end. And to show how worthy he is of their esteem, he reads them a lecture on the shameful manner in which young speakers bully the old men in the assembly of the people.

The *parabasis* over (it is to be feared the uninitiated would call some of it "gag"), we are ready for the merriment of the feast day. The free market proclaimed by Dicæopolis is open to every one except Lamachus, informers, and like cattle; and the hero, after surveying the ground, goes off to bring the pillar on which the terms are recorded. Meantime a Megarian and his two daughters appear and talk in dialect, to the great delight of scholars. The Megarians were of a coarse and hard type, and, being borderers, were thoroughly detested by the Athenians, who raided their poverty-stricken canton with unfailing regularity at the due season of the year. The Megarian has nothing to sell, and concerts with his daughters a Megaric trick: rigs them out in pettitoes and pigs' snouts and put them into a bag, intending to sell them as swine to Dicæopolis, who returns just as the arrangements are completed. Of course the Megaric trick does not impose on Dicæopolis, and the whole scene that ensues is a series of coarse but clever double meanings. The Megarian is made happy by a bundle of garlic for one pig and a measure of salt for the other, and after times are made richer by two familiar phrases, though coarse men who refuse "to buy a pig in a poke," and old women who talk about girls as "having taken their pigs to a bad market," little suspect the origin and the force of the words they are using, and it is well.

The Megarian has not left the stage, and is in the act of wishing that he could dispose of his entire family on as good terms, when an informer appears and tries to confiscate the bag, but he is speedily taken in charge by three strapping fellows who constitute the market police, and Dicæopolis and the Megarian part the best of friends. This auspicious opening of business is celebrated by a song from the chorus glorifying the hero of peace and predicting his triumph over all his enemies.

The news has spread, and a Bœotian comes in, he and his man heavily laden with the products of his rich canton. Athens had little to offer for the hamper of game, for the glorious eel, queen of the nymphs of Copais. Sardines and pottery, the main things that Attica has to offer, are cheap enough in Bœotia, but one thing the Bœotians lack—they have no informers, no "sycophants"; and the prince of sycophants, coming in at the instant, is allowed to develop his capacities for formulating charges of high treason, and then, having shown himself to be the genuine article, is packed up and delivered to the Bœotians as a vessel of honor, a peachblow vase. Lamachus, who had been formally excluded from the market, now sends a servant to buy a drachma worth of thrushes and three drachmæ worth of eel; but Dicæopolis is inflexible, and enters his house with a halo of feathered game about his head.

Another song, in which the wisdom of Dicæopolis, the horror of war, the charms of those twin spirits of peace, Aphrodite and Eros, are vividly set forth, and Dicæopolis returns for the final manifestation of his genius. A herald proclaims the Feast of the Flagons, and preparations are made for a great banquet. Dicæopolis, as a true artist to whom nothing culinary is alien, watches over the rites of the open-air kitchen with loving care. Throughout the scene his tones and his actions are sober to suit the grave matters of roasting and basting which are going forward. The occupation is too absorbing for more than snatches of talk with the applicants for help, who come

this time from home. A peasant who has lost a yoke of oxen is dismissed without a drop of the precious elixir of peace; the best man of a bridegroom, who brings a portion from the wedding feast and sues for a gill of peace for his friend, has the present rejected and himself sent empty away; but Dicæopolis has not the heart to refuse a similar petition made by a bridesmaid on behalf of the bride, and sends her a prophylactic against the conscription of her husband.

No sooner has the bridesmaid disappeared than a herald enters and summons Lamachus to the field, and every verse that Lamachus utters while making his preparations for the march is echoed by a joyous parody from Dicæopolis, who is making his preparations for the banquet. This *stichomythia* over, the chorus sings a mocking song to the dispraise of one of the poet's rivals, and the piece closes with another contrasted tableau of Lamachus and Dicæopolis; for Lamachus returns grievously hurt by an inglorious stake, and his moans and groans meet with merry response from Dicæopolis, who, having won the prize of a wineskin as the most redoubtable drinker, lustily chants in his own honor the Greek "See, the conquering hero comes." And all the chorus replies, "See, the conquering hero comes."

By this rough sketch of the play, what was said in the beginning is sufficiently proved. The balance is too mechanical, and the situations are broad, but the literary workmanship redeems the breadth—and the breeziness of the piece, its perpetual bustle, bring it nearer to the un-Greek public than most of the possible plays of Aristophanes. To be sure, if the object of the performance be to bring the Greeks nearer to us as Greeks and not as men, much might be said for some other selection; but, as the true reproduction of the antique must be left to the brain of the student and not to the eyes of the spectator, we must be content if any work of antiquity can be lifted out of the mummy-case and be made to live and move again, so that the Greeks may appear, if not wholly Greek, yet as something more than the dead stock-in-trade of grammarians and antiquarians.

MR. GLADSTONE'S OFFER TO IRELAND.

DUBLIN, April 19, 1886.

THERE is something almost bewildering in the events of the past ten days—especially to those who all their lives have hoped for some form of autonomy for Ireland, and to whom age, while it did not weaken their desires, was bringing that numbed hopelessness which comes, as life advances, to most people engaged in struggles against heavy odds. The end cannot be said to have come yet. It is, however, impossible to believe that what has been said can ever be entirely gone back upon. The utterances of Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Morley, Sir William Harcourt, and other leading British statesmen accept and embody the arguments in favor of Irish self-government urged from the times of Grattan and the volunteers to the present, and, even if now overborne, would remain an armory which would furnish materials to us for an indefinite prolongation of the struggle. And the mind naturally dwells upon the central figures in the drama. We do not know whether to wonder more at Mr. Gladstone or Mr. Parnell: at the aged British statesman (with "his intellect like the arch of heaven," as was remarked by one of his bitterest Irish opponents in the darkest coercion days) showing such a capacity for recognizing the necessities of the occasion, and bending himself to them, in apparent inconsistency with all his previous utterances and the traditions of his order; or at the young Irishman who, commencing with nothing but himself and a policy, has in a few years raised Ireland from a condition of the most hopeless prostration to one of highest hope and greatest confidence in her own powers. "Will no one stop that madman Grattan?" was Burke's exclamation some hundred years ago; "Will no one wring the neck of that nuisance Parnell?" was the general attitude of polite society towards the Irish leader until within a comparatively short period.

None but those intimately acquainted with Irish affairs can realize what Mr. Parnell has effected, or how he is regarded by the Irish people. Eight years ago matters were at their lowest. Some of those now passed away, and who have given their names to Irish history as strenuous patriots, privately acknowledged that there would be "no home rule," and that the only hope for Ireland lay in subsidiary reforms. Others retired from the struggle, retaining their own opinions, but believing that the old hopes had, so far as effective agitation went, died out in the hearts of the Irish people. It was in the face of this feeling that Mr. Parnell, more correctly gauging the situation, took the matter in hand. "You are a dangerous man to speak to: I come to you to know the worst," he urged in effect to a despondent friend who had been engaged in the struggle long before his own attention had been turned to it; "but I mean to try what I can do." Measuring human action by the standard of the Sermon on the Mount, it is impossible to justify many things that have been said and done in this, as in all other, national uprisings—all the methods by which this wonderful revolution has been effected in British thought. Again and again, within the past eight years, have some of those who believed they best loved Ireland had to hide their faces in anguish at what has been said or done or implied or left unsaid. The best that can be said is this—that it was better than war or civil war; and there are few now who do not acknowledge that had the mass of the Irish people had the power and the chance of success, they would long ago have been justified in resorting to armed force to cut the meshes of the system in which they were enveloped. There is nothing, in the opinion of the present writer, inconsistent in Mr. Gladstone's and the Earl of Spencer's change of front on the Irish question—one moment plunging into tentative reforms and attempting to govern Ireland through a stern coercive policy; again adopting the measures to which they have now given their names. Having, with the best intentions, as we Irish are now generally prepared to admit, with all the forces of the British empire at their back, made full trial of the one policy, and found it ineffective, they have had the manliness to acknowledge their mistake and enter upon another course. And in doing this they are giving one other most striking exhibition of that power of accommodating themselves to facts and altered circumstances which has enabled the governing classes of Great Britain to maintain their position.

Still, no matter what the power and the genius and the influence of Mr. Gladstone and his home-rule Cabinet, we can but dimly estimate the conviction and the prejudice that will yet be aroused and marshalled against the measure. There are stormy times before us, however much we may believe that a large measure of local self-government is certain to be the outcome. The scheme propounded by Mr. Gladstone, in its main features, appears to meet the approval of Mr. Parnell and his colleagues. Nothing was more striking in this regard than Mr. O'Brien's "Every man of us," in reply to the taunt of an English member that even the Irish party had not accepted it; and Mr. Parnell in the House, and *United Ireland*, the accredited organ of the party, exhibit the same spirit. Having said so much, I must now express the opinion, in which most Protestant Nationalists with whom I have spoken are in accord, that the measure, as it stands, has in it none of the elements of finality. It is impossible to believe that the non-representation of Ireland in imperial affairs could be permanently satisfactory. The bill, if passed unaltered, would place us in a position beneath that of the great colonies, and even that of the Channel Islands: we should be very much in the position of the Isle of Man. We should have no influence over the Crown, which could interpose its veto on any one of our acts; we should have no control over the army and navy which garrisoned our forts and swept our bays. We should be shut out from the family of nations. Abroad, we should be represented only by courtesy. As often as we returned home, the gleam of an Irish lighthouse would come as a token of our subjection, for even it would be under the control of a Power foreign to ourselves. Complete separation would be a definite and comprehensible policy. It is not the policy of the party to which the writer of these communications belongs. Our ideal has been a settlement on the basis of your Union, or the North German Confederation. There would be something definite and honorable in such a settlement, but not in this. Perhaps we would accept it, as better than the present status, but we could not accept it with any belief in its finality. To suppose that a nation of five millions would permanently settle down in such a subsidiary position would appear to us an impossibility. We have no desire to interfere in English or Scotch local affairs, but we claim, with the English and Scotch, equal rights in the settlement of matters of common interest; and, while few of us can regard with equanimity the means by which the empire has been got together, we feel that it would not be good for us, nor should we have any right, now to wash our hands of responsibility in the government and the future of that empire.

It is ominous for the hopes of speedy settlement that the Irish leaders do not appear to participate in these feelings. Public and private utterances lead to the opinion forcibly expressed in *United Ireland* of the 17th inst.:

"The most surprising feature of English [the editor puts out of view Irish] criticism of the Home Rule Bill, is the repugnance to the exclusion of the Irish members from the Westminster Parliament. . . . This we regard as an unmitigated misfortune for the two countries. If the home-rule experiment is to succeed, it can only be by having all the attention of the Irish people fixed upon home legislation, and all the energies of the Irish representatives concentrated in Ireland. A representation at Westminster would mean the continued drain of the best parliamentary intellect of the country, which, for years to come, would find superabundant employment at home. The disaster, however, would be less to the dignity and efficiency of the Irish Parliament than it would be to the good relations between the countries. . . . All questions between the two countries would remain open and sore. . . . The object and desire of the Irish leaders, no less than of the English, is to make an honest end of the international quarrel," etc.

We cannot think so poorly of the depth of Irish administrative capacity as to believe it would not furnish sufficient for due attention to imperial as well as full attention to home matters. It is impossible to believe that the good relations between the countries would not be subject to more strain under such an arrangement than under one in which we had a voice in the regulations which would press upon us in our relations to the central Government. I have heard it suggested that contentment with the proposed arrangement probably arises from the small extent to which Catholics can feel real interest in the affairs of a Protestant empire. But Mr. Parnell is not a Catholic, nor is he a man who naturally looks at things from a Catholic point of view,

And one would think a Catholic nation like Ireland would be slow to sacrifice any influence it possesses in the empire on the side of its co-religionists, under the same flag and in foreign countries where British influence and diplomacy are not without their weight. The one factor which makes us slow to condemn the present proposal is the acceptance it has met with from Mr. Parnell. He has all through shown perspicacity and foresight. Upon the success or failure of the proposed experiment will rest his claim to rank among the first of statesmen or the greatest of disturbers in history. He cannot be unmindful of such considerations; yet, even with this in view, and without entirely holding in abeyance our reason, a definite party in Ireland cannot share the feelings of those to whom we should desire unhesitatingly to trust a settlement. So long as the difficulty of separating local and imperial interests in Parliament was urged by British statesmen as a reason against home rule, we perhaps accorded it too little weight. Now that it is urged by statesmen who are willing to grant us a form of home rule, we may well feel its reality. Nevertheless, considerable delay and the most thorough discussion of the question are desirable, in the hope that some better settlement may be evolved than that proposed—some settlement which, if necessitating a more entire reconstruction of the fabric of the British legislative system, will at least prove to be permanent and satisfactory without being humiliating to either nation. D. B.

THE PRINCES OF CONDÉ.—II.

PARIS, April 20, 1886.

WE have said that the father of the "Grand Condé" sent his son, during his early years, to the castle of Montrond, in Berry. The young Prince took in 1626 the name of Duke of Anguien (the name was thus spelt in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; it was spelt afterwards Enghien; the Duc d'Aumale has returned to the old style). He made his first entry into Bourges, where his father was governor, at the age of five, on the occasion of his baptism, and he was able to say the *Credo* himself in Latin. He returned immediately to Montrond, and received the first lessons of military art from an engineer named Sarrazin, who was reconstructing the walls of the fortress. His father, returning one day from Languedoc, was surprised to find a young captain, seven years old, who was drilling and commanding the boys of the place, and conducting them against an imaginary foe. The real education of the Prince began when his father placed him in the Jesuits' college at Bourges. The colleges of this order were very flourishing at that time. Their system, their *ratio studiorum*, fixed by Father-General Acquaviva, had transformed the education of youth. In vain had the universities and the local *parlements* tried to stop their progress. The movement was irresistible. In 1627 the Company had in its twelve colleges of the province of Paris no less than 13,180 pupils. Condé had long been the hope of the Protestants, but after he reconciled himself with the court he had become their ardent enemy: he showed himself very unmerciful in his war against the Huguenots in the south of France. He was in constant fear of Richelieu, and when he confided his son to the Jesuits, he did a thing which he knew would be agreeable to the Cardinal. He seems to have been sincere in his great devotion to the Jesuits, whom he constantly employed in all his affairs, and whom he protected everywhere.

Condé was fortunate in the choice of the preceptor, Father Pelletier, who was adroit, assiduous, vigilant, with much sense and knowledge. He gave as governor to his son a gentleman, M. La Buffetière, who had for his special mission all that concerned physical exercise; and a doctor, M. de Montreuil. For six years Louis of Bourbon went every day to the Collège Sainte-Marie, living in an old hôtel which was not far distant. In the classroom he was separated from the other pupils by a gilded balustrade; but this was the only distinction maintained, and his father particularly insisted on his going through all the compositions and examinations. He himself saw the notes of the child, his *devoirs*, and he wrote regularly to him. His notes, his instructions on the subject of the education of his son, were incessant.

There is, at the present moment, an active movement against classical studies. I need hardly say that it cannot be serious. The Latin language especially is the fountain of a French education. Young Condé was made familiar with it: he read the Latin authors, especially the historians, Florus, Livy, Tacitus, Cæsar. The Jesuits have always shown much predilection for the poets, and Virgil, Horace, Ovid, were certainly placed in his hands. "One of the manuscripts," says the Duc d'Aumale, "preserved at Chantilly contains a collection of Latin poems in the most varied rhythms, offered and dedicated to the Prince of Condé by Louis de Bourbon, in his early years: 'ætatulam meam, quæso, intuere, quæ, ut tenera est ac primi vixdum tirocinii capax, etc. . . .'" The young Prince wrote regularly to his father in Latin; he entered the class in rhetoric at twelve; at thirteen he spoke Latin as fluently as French. He devoted the two following years to philosophy and to the sciences. At the end of each term he defended publicly a series of propositions in the form of theses, which were printed and dedicated, some to the King, some to Cardinal Richelieu. They were distributed, by the care of his father, to the ministers, to the principal members of the *Parlement*, to the Bishops, in Paris, in the provinces, and even in Rome. Then came a course of law, which was quite a novelty, but Monsieur le Prince was constantly engaged in lawsuits, and judged that some technical knowledge would not be unnecessary to his son. The professor chosen by him was a M. Mérille, who occupied at Bourges the chair of Cujas, and had a great reputation. This M. Mérille was not devoid of vanity, and called himself *doctorum princeps et doctor principis*. The Institutes of Justinian were explained to the young Prince, who himself wrote a treatise on entails.

The vacations were spent at Montrond, and were given to equitation and hunting. At the age of fifteen the young Prince was presented to the King at Paris. He went to Saint-Maur to make a visit to his mother, whom he had not often had occasion to see, and made a journey to Burgundy, where he remained while his father conducted a campaign in Franche-Comté. In 1637 he entered the "Royal Academy for Young Noblemen" in Paris, a military school which had been opened recently, and which Louis XIII. had taken under his protection. The young men who were destined to the profession of arms learned there geography, mathematics, geometry, the art of fortification, fencing, and equitation, and were militarily drilled. The Prince was very apprehensive of the influence which the Princess might have on her son: he feared the frivolity and the pleasures of her salon. The Princess was the queen of the "précieuses." Young Condé was allowed, however, at times to see her and her little court, Mlle. de Scudéry, Mme. de Sablé, the Marchioness of Rambouillet, Voiture, Balzac, Chapelain. He became acquainted with the young friends of his sister, with the most intimate of all, Julie d'Angennes, with the young Montmorency, with the charming Marthe du Vigean, with whom he afterwards fell in love, with the daughters of the Duke of Mantua, Marie and Anne de Gonzague.

After one year spent at the military academy, the education of Condé was thought complete. In speaking of this education, the Duc d'Aumale says: "The Prince acted wisely in living habitually away from his son. At a distance, his good sense, his perseverance, his firmness, were alone felt; a continual cohabitation would have rendered his tyranny insupportable. The moral direction was not absent; but while he imposed respect on his son, Henri de Bourbon neglected to develop delicate sentiments in this young soul, to touch certain chords which never vibrated in the great heart of Condé." At this moment, the Duc d'Anguien was chosen by the King for the government of Burgundy during the absence of his father, who had received the command of the army of Guienne. He sat for the first time in this quality in the *Parlement* of Dijon in March, 1638. His father had prudently placed near him trusty advisers. While he was at Dijon, he made the acquaintance of some generals, and, among others, of Marchin, who was born at Liége, and who had learned the art of war under the best masters. He neglected no opportunity for study. He worked every day at mathematics; he himself made plans of the eleven fortified towns of Burgundy, accompanying each plan with notes and legends. He followed habitually the exercises of the troops. No regiment crossed Burgundy without being reviewed by him. He had his own troops, bearing his name of Condé, as was then the privilege and the duty of the Princes of the royal blood. He gave equal attention to the general affairs of the province, and liked to meet the members of the legal profession.

Bossuet's great "oraison funèbre" has contributed to spread the idea that everything in Condé's career was owing to genius, and not much to work. Bossuet did not enter into details; he shows us the conqueror of Rocroy without speaking of his antecedents: the young hero, in his admirable oration, jumps, as it were, *in medias res*. The Duc d'Aumale has almost astonished us by showing what a care education had been in the formation and development of this young hero. The minute particulars which he gives on this point have been found of great interest. It is probable that if the education of young Bonaparte at Brienne and after Brienne could be analyzed with as much care, it would be found that here, also, nature was powerfully helped by art and by education. It is also curious to see to what extent paternal authority was maintained in the seventeenth century. Here we have a Prince of the blood already governor of a large province, trusted with the most important functions and duties, while in his private life he is far from emancipated. His father not only gave him a council for political affairs, he maintained the powers of La Buffetière, he gave him a Jesuit confessor, Father Mugnier, who read with him and "saw to his deportment." The Jesuit regulates the expenses of the young Prince, he orders his clothes at times, he prevents him from hunting.

The Duc d'Anguien received the King at Dijon in September, 1639, accompanied him to the frontier of his Government, and showed him all the plans of his fortresses. Louis XIII. and the ministers were favorably impressed by the young Governor. Richelieu writes to his father: "I will begin this letter with the good qualities of M. le Duc d'Anguien, which are such that you must be pleased with them. He has much intelligence, discretion, and judgment. He has grown by two fingers and will grow more, as far as can be judged. His respect for you shows itself in all his actions. I think that it will be prudent to choose for him this winter a veteran

much experienced in the art of war; and as for the next campaign, I believe that you will not let it pass without his seeing it with the oldest marshal of France, so that he may be instructed as behooves a Prince of his quality."

Henri II. of Condé, who had never known his own father, had very absolute notions on the subject of paternal authority. He had determined to marry his son, and to marry him in the family of Richelieu; no consideration could modify his decision. He chose Mlle. de Maillé-Brézé, who was the niece of Richelieu. She was poor, and her rank did not seem to mark her for such an alliance; but the protection of Richelieu was attached to it. In 1640 the Duc d'Anguien was presented to Mlle. de Maillé and engaged to her (she was then only twelve years old). He left her almost immediately and made his first campaign as volunteer in the north of France, under the Marshal de la Meilleraie. He witnessed the siege of Arras, and showed much application; he was every day among the troops and in the trenches. He also took part in the sieges of several other places. When he returned to Paris, between two sieges, he felt that he had now two masters instead of one, Richelieu as well as his father. He bore this new tyranny in the hope of receiving soon from the Cardinal the command of a great army. His father hardly allowed him to see the Princess, being jealous of her influence and of the influence of the young men called the "petits-maîtres," who formed the brilliant court of the Princess and of Mme. de Rambouillet. Richelieu saw the danger among the handsome friends of young Condé's sister, Isabelle de Montmorency, Marthe du Vigean.

The Duc d'Anguien was summoned to Richelieu in April, 1642. The Cardinal was at Narbonne, defending his life and his power against Cinq-Mars, and struggling against an incurable malady. The young Duke remained some time with the Cardinal, and was faithful to him in the great drama which ended in the arrest of the young favorite, but he felt sometimes himself a desire to revolt: "The Cardinal is a tyrant; he has exasperated the Queen, the Queen Mother, Monsieur, the Count of Soissons, and many others." The Cardinal forced him to treat the Princes of the Church in a way he did not like. At a moment when his pride was deeply wounded, when he had become almost rebellious in his heart, he learned that the Cardinal was dead. He ran at once to Paris. His father had lost no time, he had seen Mazarin; a great command was assured to the Duc d'Anguien. Louis XIII. respected the choices made by the dying Cardinal for a new campaign, and Condé received his commission for the command of the army of Picardy.

Correspondence.

DR. BALL'S 'STORY OF THE HEAVENS.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you kindly afford me the opportunity of making some remarks relatively to a review of my book, the 'Story of the Heavens,' which recently appeared in your paper? Your reviewer thinks that I have unduly appropriated two passages from Prof. Newcomb's 'Popular Astronomy,' and as the extracts he has given justify the charge, it seems incumbent on me to explain.

I first refer to the longer of the two passages, of which the subject has a somewhat curious connection. In 1877 I published a book on 'Elementary Astronomy,' of which an American edition appeared shortly afterward, edited by Prof. Newcomb. One of the two changes he made was the substitution of Sirius and his companion for a double star which I had used, and some letters passed between us in which I expressed my approval of the change. About the same time the 'Popular Astronomy' appeared. It is evident that I transcribed from it the passage relating to the subject of our correspondence, and, after the lapse of six or seven years, I carelessly seem to have regarded the language as my own. Had I been asked before I read your review where I first obtained the Sirius anecdote, I could not have readily replied. It was, of course, long familiar to me when in 1884 I paid a delightful visit to the Alvan Clarks at Cambridgeport, and heard it once again from the discoverers themselves.

The short passage about Tycho Brahe I extracted from the 'Popular Astronomy' a few years ago. Of course, I ought to have preserved the inverted commas, but by some mistake I did not, and consequently overlooked its source.

And now, having admitted my errors, I think I am entitled to complain at the prominence you have given them. Is it fair that more than half the review should be devoted to strictures upon less than one-five-hundredth part of my work? Such a mode of criticism is not likely to convey a just impression. 'The Story of the Heavens' is at least an honest book. It is the result of years of thought and of study, of years of experience as a professor and a lecturer, and of years of practical work in the observatory.—I remain, yours truly, Robert S. Ball.

Observatory, Co. Dublin, April 16, 1886.

[We will not be more implacable than Profs. Newcomb and Young, who in the last number of *Science* (April 30) freely exonerate Dr. Ball. —Ed. Nation.]

HARVARD FACSIMILES: A SUGGESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For reasons which will appear in the course of this communication, I do not think there can be a better time than the present to put forth a suggestion which I have long been intending to make, and I will give it all the prominence I can by confining my letter to this one point.

It is most desirable that facsimiles, in the best style, should be executed of the Harvard documents at Cambridge, and of the most important of the Harvard entries in the Parish Register of St. Saviour's, Southwark, permission for which, I feel sure, would be readily granted. Not only the exact color of the ink, but the very texture of the paper of the original, can now be made to appear, as you will see in the facsimile of a letter of Sir Philip Sidney, which I have asked may be sent to you. I would reproduce the entire page of the signatures of the Emmanuel B.A.s in 1631 and the M.A.s in 1635, and the full page of the *Recepta* in which John Harvard is mentioned; and to these there should be added so much of a contemporary map or semi-pictorial representation of the city as will show the site of the Harvard House in the High Street of Southwark. The whole would be comprised in the moderate compass of about four sides of foolscap.

I gladly take this occasion to state that, having had its attention drawn to the interest of the two Harvard entries in its records, one of which was printed and the other referred to by me in the *Nation* of the 8th inst., the Clothworkers' Company immediately caused facsimiles of both to be executed, and copies for presentation will soon reach your side of the Atlantic, borne by the hand of a well-known member of the Court of the Company, who is about to visit the United States.

The publication of this letter in its columns will be a sign that my suggestion is approved by the *Nation*, which will be a guarantee of the successful completion, by some means or other, of a series of Harvard facsimiles which has been so well begun. Z.

Cambridge, Eng., April 22, 1886.

MANHOOD AGAINST STRIKERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You are doubtless correct in giving Mr. Hoxie great credit for the victory—if we may call it victory while the battle is still on—over the gigantic conspiracy that has recently laid its lawless hand on the commerce and business of the Southwest. But no general wins a victory without the aid of many brave soldiers whose less conspicuous deeds go unrecorded in history. Permit me, in commending one deed of heroism, to do at least partial justice to many brave deeds that deserve perhaps equal honor.

This case comes to my knowledge through the father of the hero, whom I know to be perfectly trustworthy.

The son, whom, to avoid giving him a notoriety that might put him in further peril, we will call simply G., was employed as a brakeman on the Missouri-Pacific Railroad at the time of the strike, and was one of many who quit work, not because they wished to do so, but for other reasons which they considered convincing if not satisfactory.

After the conference of the strikers with the Governors of Missouri and Kansas had shown that the strikers had no real grievances, G. resolved to return to work. Having been threatened, he armed himself. As he came in from his first run and started for home, he was pursued by a mob of one hundred or two hundred men and boys, *led by one whom he knew to be a Knight of Labor and striker.* The conductor, also armed, was with G. These two faced and conquered the valiant Knights, and made their way to the office where it was their duty to report. The crowd pursued at a respectful distance, and, getting reinforcements, threatened to force an entrance and wreak their vengeance. G. took his place at a window overlooking the mob (the office was up stairs) and significantly took from his pocket a supply of cartridges and laid them on the window sill. By this time a cry of "Police!" arose, and the siege was raised. The two brave men were afterwards escorted home by armed police. They are at work yet, and do not intend to quit.

Another man, who was with them on the train, but took a different direction on getting off, was not so fortunate. He was assaulted by part of the same mob, and badly beaten. His wife went to his rescue with one of her female friends, and in their efforts to protect him one of the women was struck by the brave Knights.

These outrages were never reported in the newspapers. Many others perpetrated by the strikers are suppressed by the reporters, and the accounts given are colored to favor the strikers. Perhaps there is good reason for this, and the reporters are not so much to blame. Being known to the strikers, if they told the naked truth, they would receive forcible hints that their labors were not appreciated by those valiant men, and their occupation as reporters would be gone. H.

St. Louis, Mo., April 24, 1886.

NATIONAL AID TO SCHOOL TAXATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Is it not possible that the money which the Blair bill now before the national House of Representatives proposes to distribute on a basis of illiteracy, to assist in educating the masses, might be so used as to avoid putting a premium on mendicancy? It is the unanimous testimony of students of popular education that schools, to

be valuable, must be supported by those who use them. It is plain that in Kentucky, at least, our public schools will never accomplish their work until the wealthy and intelligent cease to send their children at the age of twelve to boarding-school. When the better classes begin to keep their children in the public schools until a good course of study is finished, they will also begin to take an interest in these schools, to exercise care in the selection of trustees, and demand that competent teachers be chosen, comfortable houses built, and suitable furniture and apparatus supplied. This has long since proved true in Louisville and the larger towns, but in the country districts trusteeships are accepted with a feeling of condescension, as a sort of doubtful honor next in degree below a country magistracy, and the teachers' places are treated as the patronage of the trustees, to be given to daughters of relatives or neighbors. Almost never is a local tax laid to support the school, and the money coming from the State Treasury is treated as a donation to the neighborhood.

We have in this an excellent exemplification of that promotion of mendicancy which you fear. Unfortunately, our Constitution will not allow us to change this by legislative enactment. It does not follow, however, that moneys which may be voted from the national Treasury must be used in the same harmful way. It has been proposed that such moneys be set aside as a fund to foster local taxation. Whenever a district not heretofore taxing itself for schools shall levy a tax for general school purposes, or to build a school-house, it is proposed to add an equal amount from this fund; in like manner, a district increasing its local taxation for school purposes is to be aided to the extent of the increase.

That Kentucky and the South generally need better schools, that the need is much more pressing than in the North, and that it will be many years before it can be met from within, is undoubted. That the general Government, which, however unwillingly, has impoverished the South by war, and has distributed the public revenue lavishly to its soldiers, may do a gracious thing in helping educate the negro voters it has thrust upon us, and the white masses it has plunged in ignorance, is clear. The one cry of teachers, county superintentents, and all interested in our schools, is "More money!" Money—itself a mere blind force, incapable of self-direction—unwisely used, however, will undoubtedly do great harm, as you anticipate. We promise to try to use it carefully and wisely.

The other question is, Can the national Government afford it? Who will tell us?

C. H. Greathouse.

Louisville, April 23, 1886.

MISTRANSLATION AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The truly laughable English version which you cite of some lines from Froebel's "Charcoal Burner" is simply another example of carelessness in translating. The original reads:

"Und ist er auch schwarz in seinem Gesicht,
So schadet dies seinem Herzen doch nicht,"

which might be rendered:

"And even if sometimes black in his face,
Such blackness his heart can never disgrace."

But there are some people who can never learn to make a distinction between *kindlich* and *kindisch*.—Respectfully, Theodore Baker.

Dresden, Germany, April 16, 1886.

WANTED—A NEW GRAMMAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the April number of "Modern Language Notes," I find an article, over the signature of Mr. Samuel Garner, which was so welcome and so strong a support to ideas which I entertain, that I would call further attention to its subject. Mr. Garner protests against the "illogical, misleading, not to say senseless proceeding, so common in our grammars and elementary books for teaching foreign languages, of translating the subjunctives in the paradigms by *may* and *might*, as though these words were the usual English equivalents." Further on: "The primary source of the erroneous practice is to be sought in the English grammars themselves, whose authors have been content to remain in the old ruts, repeating the inaccuracies of the first grammar makers, who had no scientific knowledge of the language."

I should like to see an English grammar which, among other things, discards the potential mood; gives a full and proper treatment of the infinitive and its uses; insists upon a dative and a vocative case; calls "articles" and "possessive pronouns" by their right name, "adjectives"; and through it all urges the student to use his common sense as much as his memory. Although Prof. March in his Anglo-Saxon grammar gives in paradigms the "potential" mood, and grammars of all lesser grades do the same—or worse—until Prof. Welsh even blots the subjunctive from his books, and leaves the potential to be the sole subordinate mode, yet we must confess that there was never, nor is now, a potential mood in the English language. It is a fiction of "the first grammar makers." Few grammars, so far as my limited observation goes, hint that the infinitive may have a subject; most of them expressly deny it; and in those which partially admit it, a wrong explanation is given. For instance, in Prof. Whitney's work ('Essentials'), superior to any other of its grade as it is, the statement is made (sec. 449) that "the root infinitive is used after a verb and its object, as a kind of adjunct to the latter, signifying an action in which it is concerned. . . . The construction has been *carried much beyond* its natural limits, as the object of the verb has come to *seem* a kind of subject to the infinitive." Would it not be better for the author to simply affirm, consistently with the usages of the English language from the beginning of its recorded history to the present, that in sentences like "They saw her depart," "her" *is* the subject of the infinitive "depart"? Unless grammarians do admit this—nay, insist upon it—many expressions in English cannot be parsed.

Again, few grammars mention a dative case, and when they do, disguise it as indirect objective. The indirect object (they say), like the direct, is put in the objective case, but the objective in this use is to be called the dative-objective, since it answers to the dative case of other languages. This, in the face of the fact that the English itself has always had a real dative case—not an objective "answering to the dative of other languages." The use and meaning of the case remain the same as when there was a distinctive termination to prove its existence.

On these and other points—notably the substitution of the name "possessive adjective" for "possessive pronoun"—I think the grammars of to-day can be improved. I well know there are many who have a horror of introducing into English grammar any terms or rules from the Latin; and, having always associated the terms "dative," "subject of infinitive," etc., with the Latin, they reject them from the English, forgetting that the English grammar taught in most of our schools is based upon the works of those "who had no scientific knowledge of the language," and who in consequence, when they wrote English grammar, "made up" a mass of unscientific rules, and as many, or more, exceptions, founded upon the language as it was in their day, and quite inadequate to satisfy the inquiries of any intelligent boy. Many advantages are to be claimed for this "new" grammar, chief among which are (1) the introduction it will give to the study of the grammar of foreign tongues (ancient and modern), and the consequent lessening of their difficulty; and especially (2) the development of the mind by an appeal to the reason and intelligence of the student—a training now sought in the study of the classics, and hence lacking when such study is wanting.

H. C. Penn.

Central Collegiate Institute, Altus, Ark.

Notes.

Cassell & Co. publish immediately the second volume of 'Actors and Actresses of Great Britain and the United States,' edited by Brander Matthews and Laurence Hutton. It includes some of the most eminent names of the English stage.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have nearly ready 'A History of France under Mazarin, with a sketch of the Administration of Richelieu,' by John Breck Perkins, in two volumes, 8vo.

Mr. Thomas Whittaker will speedily issue for summer reading a fifty-cent edition of Frederick Saunders's 'Pastime Papers.'

A new sensational novel, 'Haschisch,' is announced by Jansen, McClurg & Co.

The English Shelley Society has well in hand a 'Concordance to the Poetry of Shelley,' which it is hoped to finish in the course of two or three years.

The plates of Mrs. Dall's handy 'What We Really Know about Shakspere' (Boston: Roberts Bros.) have been carefully corrected for the second edition, now before us. It is a readable guide and book of reference to the Shaksperian sources.

A revised and enlarged edition of Dr. Edward Robinson's 'Harmony of the Four Gospels in English,' edited by Prof. M. B. Riddle, has been handsomely brought out by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Footnotes have been added from the Revised Version, with a special bearing on the purpose of the Harmony.

In connection with the foregoing may be mentioned 'How We Got Our Bible' (London: Bagster; New York: John Wiley & Sons), a popular account, somewhat rhetorical and pedagogic, of the manuscripts and the versions, by J. Paterson Smyth.

Our notice, some months ago, of the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the Boston Public Latin School has apparently brought to our table a second edition of the 'History of the School of the Collegiate Reformed Dutch Church in the City of New York, from 1633 to 1883' (R. Brinkerhoff, 34 Vesey St.). This school purports to be the oldest in the United States, preceding the Boston Latin School by two years. The claim is somewhat shadowy, but no doubt the institution is a very interesting one if only for its long persistence. Being denominational, and at most only a grammar school, it had and has no such significance for New York as the Latin School for Boston. At the present time, we are glad to say, it admits other denominations besides the Dutch Reformed. The volume before us is pleasantly illustrated with maps, cuts, and portraits, and has lists of pupils for more than a century.

The 'Handbook of Plant Dissection,' composed by J. C. Arthur, Charles N. Barnes, and John M. Coulter, editors of the *Botanical Gazette* (Henry Holt & Co.), may—for shortness of reference to the authors, as well as for substance of doctrine—be called the A B C of vegetable anatomy for the laboratory work which is now much in vogue,

It is one of the many adaptations of the Huxley and Martin sort of laboratory manual for elementary biology, on a system which is by this time pretty well threshed out. This one seems to have been carefully and thoughtfully prepared. Accordingly, "it is hoped that the work will be found suitable, not only for classes pursuing a regular course of lectures, but also for those who have never before studied botany, and for home use away from the assistance of a teacher." We should advise such to begin their botany in a very different and much easier way, and to defer the minute anatomy, with its *phloem* and *xylem*, to a later stage.

The 'Code of Nomenclature and Check-List of North American Birds,' adopted by the American Ornithologists' Union, and now published in a handsome volume from the University Press at Cambridge (New York: L. S. Foster, 35 Pine St.), is a thorough-going and most scholarly attempt to fix and give stability to names in this branch of zoölogy and to determine the principles of future naming. It contains the latest and most enlightened exposition of the trinomial nomenclature imposed on scientists by the rise of the development theory, and in this particular can be commended to a much wider circle than ornithologists. There are three parts: an introduction; a formal laying down of principles, canons, and recommendations; and the check-list in three sections, of which the second is called "Hypothetical," since the birds enumerated are doubtfully North American, and the third is of fossil birds. In the check-list the classification and habitat of each bird are indicated; and, in order to diminish as much as possible the inconvenience which every change of nomenclature causes, a reference in each case is given to the corresponding entry in the four earlier standard check-lists of Baird, Coues, and Ridgway.

S. E. Cassino & Co., Boston, publish Dr. Chas. O. Whitman's 'Methods of Research in Microscopical Anatomy and Embryology,' which is the latest treatise on that form of zoölogical investigation. It is the result of studies at home and abroad, is illustrated and filled with practical directions, and is probably the best volume we have that will instruct the beginner and also assist the advanced scholar.

The literature of climatology, especially with reference to health, receives an addition in a reprint of Dr. Chas. Denison's essay on 'Moisture and Dryness' (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.), wherein the author takes the ground that dryness and elevation are the most important elements in the climatic treatment of phthisis, repudiating the idea that equability of temperature is of any special benefit. Dr. Denison insists that an equable climate is essentially a damp climate, and a damp climate is a purgatory leading the consumptive to lower depths. The pamphlet is well supplied with weather maps and statistics, and is worthy of study by pulmonary invalids and those in charge of them.

The secondary title of Dr. J. Leonard Corning's 'Brain Rest,' namely, "A Disquisition on the Curative Properties of Prolonged Sleep" (Putnams), and the fact that ten lines of the title-page are occupied with his credentials, pretty fairly indicate the literary style of this essay. Besides an involved discussion on the theory of sleep, which may be referred to the medical faculty without our comment, the central idea is the regulation of the cerebral circulation by certain mechanical devices. It is too distinctly a professional book for analysis here, or for laymen to read with profit.

The '*Harvard Advocate* Catalogue—1866–1886' consists of a well-written sketch of college journalism at Harvard, with especial reference to the rise and fortunes of the *Harvard Advocate*, now twenty years old. This has been composed, almost without the aid of records, and hence very laboriously, by Mr. T. T. Baldwin, of the present editorial staff. An appendix contains a register of all the editors from the commencement, with their occupation, address, etc., and their "publications." From this last particular it appears that out of 143 graduate editors more than a third have become authors of books, or writers for the periodical press. Even the "business editor" is occasionally found in this category. The college library has in past years been benefited to the extent of $500 by the profits of the *Advocate*.

The *Southern Bivouac* for May has a final paper on the Resolutions of 1798-99, and a sketch of the life of John Breckinridge. In this paper Mr. Durrett discloses the interesting accident by which the copy of the Resolutions and the letter of Jefferson came into his hands. They had, it seems, been among the papers of James D. Breckinridge, a nephew of John, and had been sold after his death without discovery of their valuable character. The Resolutions Mr. Durrett compared not only with the printed acts and journals of the Kentucky Legislature, and with a contemporaneous publication in the *Palladium* and the *Kentucky Gazette*, but with the official copy sent to the Massachusetts Legislature. This completes the authentication by the method we formerly spoke of as the satisfactory one, and which our correspondent President Welling first informed us had been followed. The way is now open for the other interesting question, How can we account for the incorrect copy in 'Elliott's Debates on the Constitution'?

The opening article in the *Antiquary* for April is by Mr. Frederick Hodgetts on the "Scandinavian Elements in the English Race"—a point of view which is too much overlooked in the study of English institutions. This article, descriptive of Scandinavian life, does not throw so much direct light upon English life as we had hoped; but it is to be continued. "London Rogues and Relief of Distress Three Centuries Ago," by Dr. Charles Gross (an American writer), is a valuable contribution to the history of charities, consisting of a city ordinance of 1579, which contains many regulations observed at the present day; *e. g.*, the last article calls upon "Citizens, Artificers, and other, and also all farmers and other for husbandry, and gentlemen and other for their kitchins, and other services, to take servants and children both out of Bridewell and Christ's Hospitall, etc." Most of the other articles are continued from former numbers, and are of considerable interest.

The leading and in fact the only general article in *Le Livre* for April is an account of Dickens's second visit to Paris in 1855, by R. Du Pontavice; just as the only illustration is an etching after "Phiz's" full-length seated sketch of "Boz."

'Assyria; its Princes, Priests, and People' is the title of a new popular volume by Professor Sayce, published by the Religious Tract Society of London, in the collection marked "By-Paths of Bible Knowledge," of which it forms the seventh number. Like several other of the author's frequent productions in the same field, it contains, side by side with information alike instructive and new to most readers, some that has been often repeated with little variation by the same pen. It repeats, however, little of what was given, under the title 'Assyrian Life and History,' in M. E. Harkness's contribution to the same collection (No. ii.). What is strange, and slightly unfair toward the purchasers of the whole series, is that the eight illustrations after the monuments, attached to Mr. Sayce's book —Monolith of Shalmaneser II., Assurbani-pal and his Queen, etc.—are identical with eight out of the nine contained in the earlier Assyrian volume of the "By-Paths."

The anonymous author of 'Bismarck nach dem Kriege,' 'Bismarck—12 Jahre deutscher Politik,' 'Bismarck in Frankfurt,' and 'Bismarck in Petersburg—Paris—Berlin,' has added another volume to his cycle of sketches of the German Chancellor. The new book is entitled 'Bismarck in Versailles.' It is divided into twelve sections, whose titles—"The League of Neutrals, down to the Blockade of Paris," "The Provisioning of Paris," "Trochu's Preparations," etc.—make one suspect that the writer uses the name which he places at the head of his publication only as a convenient and taking sign for a medley of loosely connected chapters on the great Franco-German war, without having much to say about the diplomatic hero of it during his stay in the French city which witnessed the proclamation of the new German Empire. The perusal of some scores of pages will convince the reader that the biographical element in this fifth 'Bismarck' of the prolific anonymous—who marks his identity by three asterisks—is infinitesimal, and that his history, too, is only a readable rehash of oft-repeated narratives, with hardly the addition of a new fact, anecdote, or view.

Of the various historico-political year-books in English, German, French, etc., which serve as retrospective summaries of events and partial supplements to encyclopædias, André Daniel's 'L'Année Politique,' now in its twelfth year, is one of the least comprehensive, but also one of the most readable. It gives only fugitive glimpses of affairs in the minor states, and incomparably more space to France alone than to the rest of the world; and is thus, to readers outside of the French Republic, chiefly valuable as an addition to such publications as W. Müller's yearly 'Politische Geschichte der Gegenwart,' the 'Annual Register,' or Appletons' 'Annual Cyclopædia.' Within its narrower sphere, however, it is full, pleasantly discursive, and bright. The "Introduction" to the year 1885 exhibits the author in a gloomy, patriotic mood. He sees the republic passing through a dangerous crisis, for the severity of which all parties—Opportunists, Radicals, reactionaries—are almost equally to blame: "Ni à droite ni à gauche il n'y a de mœurs politiques. . . . L'affaissement général des caractères a fait d'effrayant progrès; la France entière semble épuisée; . . . partout l'épicurisme intellectuel ou matériel et l'égoisme d'individu ou de classe."

—In the *Century* for May Mr. Julian Hawthorne gives us a second study of the philosophy of his father's works, but it is of less interest than his analysis of the morality of the 'Scarlet Letter.' In it he deals almost wholly with the short stories and allegories, and is occupied rather with disengaging the elements of Hawthorne's personality in his earlier literary life, and with unfolding the moral purpose and insight as one of these. He thinks that the secluded years which Hawthorne spent in meditation and laborious experiment with his genius were made more tolerable by a very proud ambition, and the half-satirical expectation that his fame would some day burst forth and the world suddenly awake to the knowledge that a man had been among them who was a prophet. Incidentally the writer also shows how thoroughly Hawthorne rejected the modern world. He was not a reformer, we all know, but in his retirement there was more than mere social separation, more than simple natural reserve; his disapproval of the order about him was a rational and moral dissent, of which the indirect expression may be easily noticed. He had the iconoclastic spirit of 1835, though he broke no images. The religious article of the number is an attempt to show that evolution is a doctrine which may be Christianized, and, when it has been sufficiently humbled by the process, be ac-

cepted into the scientific faith of the church. It is, perhaps, too metaphysical to be convincing to any but a theological thinker; it appeals to the religion of the study, not to that of the people. Articles on "Country Dwellings," "The Flour Mills of Minneapolis," the "Lick Observatory," and "Fancy Pigeons," furnish the illustrations. A sonnet to Mrs. Jackson, by Col. Higginson, is an unusual feature.

—*Lippincott's* reminds us that Thoreau was a poet, and prints once more the exquisitely classical lines on "Smoke." These are sufficient to justify the article, but the other selections show at most only unworked ore. Thoreau wrote some good verses with Emerson's hand, of whom he was at times the direct inspiration; but the lines he himself penned are of little value, except to emphasize the fact that the charm by virtue of which he exceeds other literary naturalists springs from his poetic temperament. He saw things in an atmosphere of thought, and shining with the beauty which is felt only in their suggestions. In his formal poetry the lack of art is fatal to enjoyment. The difference between poetic prose and prosaic poetry is that in the case of the former one looks up, and with the latter one looks down: he is on a different level of expectation. The iridescence struck by a sudden glint of light is pleasant to see, but it is not the rainbow. Let it be enough for Thoreau to stand first among our rustic lovers of nature, and to have made our fields and woods more friendly to us; he showed us where the laurel grows, but he never plucked it. The second and last couplets of the lines on "Smoke" so different a man as Landor might have written. Austin Dobson contributes a poem, and Andrew Lang and Julian Hawthorne curious stories. The Society for Psychical Research seems to be affecting literature, to judge from these and other examples. The ghosts of Mrs. Radcliffe and Monk Lewis have become scientific, but they are the same old ghosts broke loose from the literary graveyard of the last century.

—The work, in two volumes, entitled 'Johnson's New General Encyclopædia and Copper-Plate Hand-Atlas of the World' (A. J. Johnson & Co.), and which is an abridgment of 'Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia' with additions and corrections to date, frankly assumes to share the merits of the parent work. To those who know the latter this is an advertisement that its defects —its unevenness and its want not of editors, but of editing—are retained in the abridgment: the stream cannot, in such a case, without the greatest labor and at corresponding cost, rise higher than its source. The latest date that we have observed in the body of this encyclopædia is January 27, 1885, that of the death of General Gordon at Khartum: but the Appendix was apparently closed some time in March. The use, therefore, of the present tense and the perfect definite in the notices of Emerson and Phillips, who died in 1882 and 1884 respectively, is evidence of careless revision; the failure to note the date of the death of James Watson Webb in 1884 is an oversight which should have been avoided. The French troubles in Anam, Tonquin, and Madagascar were flagrant in 1883, but Tonquin has no article to itself, and in neither of the other two is there any allusion to hostilities with the French; and yet the Congo Free State, down to November, 1884, is duly recognized in the Appendix. In regard to biographies it is true of the abridgment as of the original that it is very rich in obscure or hardly-made names, that "have but a temporary notoriety, and in future years may disappear," but meantime are conveniently embalmed here. Nevertheless, the fresh editing takes no account of as prominent men of the time as Joseph Chamberlain and Henry Fawcett in politics, or of Edgar Fawcett, Henry George, Joel C. Harris, Helen Hunt Jackson, Henry James (save for one line under the notice of his late father), in literature, or of E. S. Holden in science. We might extend this list, but we have instanced only names to which articles are allowed in Dr. Thomas's 'Biographical Dictionary,' which went to press at the same time with the 'Encyclopædia.' Robert G. Ingersoll is twice set down as Robert *J.*—in a cross-reference and in the Appendix. In short, not to multiply fault-finding, this work, like so many of its class, must be taken for what it brings, and its accuracy must be tested by other authorities. Much that is curious and helpful here would hardly be sought in its place, *e. g.*, "Great Circle Sailing," and "Centre of U. S. Population," or (as singular a freak as any we have observed) "Labienus, Les Propos de," the title of a political satire under the Second Empire, which one would not have expected to find in a list from which the 'Odyssey' is excluded.

—It was in 1837 that Heine wrote concerning Liszt: "I need not refer to his talent, for his fame extends over Europe. He is unquestionably the artist who has in Paris the most enthusiastic admirers, but also the most rabid opponents." Half a century has not greatly altered the situation. The extraordinary enthusiasm with which Liszt has been lately received in Paris and London, after an absence of many years, is perhaps without a parallel in the history of music. On the other hand, he still has opponents—no longer, however, as a pianist, as in the days of Thalberg, but as a composer. As Liszt's music is but little known in Paris and London, the ovation tendered him in those cities had reference to the great pianist and musical educator rather than the creator; but the numerous Liszt concerts attending the festivities may have cleared away many of the prejudices against his music fostered by ignorant scribblers. The well-known historian, Dr. Langhans, was in London when the first Liszt concert was given, and writes to the Berlin *Boersen-Courier* that on no other occasion within his memory did Liszt's personality produce so great an impression as here. "At the public rehearsal already the 2,100 seats in the hall were all sold; the applause which arose when the aged composer made his appearance lasted several minutes, and when, in the course of the rehearsal, he had taken his place in front of the orchestra, in order to express his intentions by an occasional word or gesture, the public was more eye than ear. But what extraordinary internal and external harmony is required by a person who is the object of such universal attention, in order not to 'lose his balance'! Who could avoid 'posing' in some manner on feeling that thousands of eyes were fixed on him? Liszt is this magician, for not a movement, not a look shows that he is in the least embarrassed. This absolute naturalness, this antique beauty and geniality, is doubtless the real cause of the magic spell he exercises over others." The performance of Liszt's "St. Elizabeth" gave Langhans an opportunity to note the two points in which musical England excels—soloists and chorus. The former excellence may be traced to the long supremacy of Italian music, the latter to the cultivation of the oratorio. "The tonal beauty, the energy and fire of the chorus showed distinctly that one was in a country which, since the days of Handel, has been the special home of the oratorio. Overwhelming, too, was the effect of the chorus of angels, in the second part, sung by a chorus of boys in an elevated gallery." Liszt protests that his pupils, Rubinstein, Bülow, and Saint-Saëns, play better now than he does; nevertheless he was prevailed upon to play some Hungarian and Chopin compositions. As contrasted with his former heaven-storming style, one critic remarks that now "Liszt is the mildest of the mild. His touch, even at seventy-five years, is still exquisite. His fingers seem to be hardly in contact with the keyboard. He appears to caress the keys, in order to produce a tone at once incomparable and indescribable." Another critic says:

"The production of tone is most extraordinary. He makes the piano sigh and sing. You do not hear notes struck with the fingers and sounding *piano* or *forte*, but lovely and enchanting sounds floating as it were in the air, and with infinite gradations of tone from soft to loud. The pianissimos are not soft-pedal pianissimos; the fortissimos are not hard or noisy; the means between these extremes are not cold or colorless. The tone is always pure and beautiful. With his magic touch he works wonders, and you feel rather than hear the music. The exquisitely finished style adds, too, to the charm of the performance; and some of his greatest effects are produced by making everything sound not as a studied piece, but as an inspired improvisation. How well this suits the national Hungarian music need scarcely be said."

—To the credit of the London press be it said that there were few ignorant denunciations of Liszt's music. Liszt has been quite as badly misrepresented by the press as Wagner, and has often indulged in fits of pessimism. In a letter to Herbeck, dated 1875, and printed for the first time in the current number of the *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik*, he declares that "an artist reckons without his host if he honestly trusts himself to the public. People hear and judge only by reading the newspapers. Why produce music for people who only wish to read the papers?" And in another letter he urges Herbeck to give his "Prometheus" in Vienna: "This Herculean task is specially adapted for you. Mighty eagles, lacerating the Titan's liver, there are none, it is true—but in their place a whole host of ravens and vermin."

—The April number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Boston: Schoenhof) opens near the middle at two charming pages in the most delicate green tints of spring time: Kaemerer's youthful female figure in an April garden, and, opposite, a maze of blossoming boughs and nests and birds surrounding the perfect little poem of Pierre de Nolhac, 'Le Chanson de printemps.' A sonnet by Armand Silvestre illustrates the fine etching by Henner, "La Nymphe," which forms the frontispiece. M. Léo Delibes gives six pages of music to accompany the wild poem "Gai! Tsigane!" which François Coppée has adapted from the Hungarian Petöfi, and which Clairin has accompanied by two expressive and characteristic illustrations. M. Henry Cazalis writes with enthusiasm of the sixty aquarelles illustrating the fables of La Fontaine, which M. Gustave Moreau has devoted four years to producing for a wealthy amateur of Paris. Judging from the praises of M. Cazalis and from the reproductions of several of the water-colors themselves here given, the artist has certainly not succeeded in making his illustrations illustrate La Fontaine. There is no trace of the gayety and lightness of touch of the poet in the sombre and overwhelming creations of the aquarellist, which suggest the artistic possession that Zola expresses in his last terrible book, 'L'Œuvre.' The present number of the *Revue* seems to represent very fully in its illustrations the spirit of his *plein-airistes*, and it is this, perhaps, which gives it, more than anything else, the charm of unexpectedness and unlikeness to its predecessors that characterizes *Les Lettres et les Arts*. The most satisfying thing in the number is the short paper by M. Jacques Saugé, 'La Ronde de nuit,' with its brilliant reproduction of M. Waltner's rendering of Rembrandt's famous picture, and the etching by Rajon of Gérôme's "Rembrandt dans son atelier," and two exquisite small heads. From a

literary point of view the most valuable and suggestive article is "La Renaissance en Allemagne avant la Réforme," by M. Jules Zeller.

—It has a rather ominous look for the authenticity of the 'Königinhof Manuscript' and 'Grünberg Manuscript'—those Ossianic treasures of the Bohemian nation—that a new and thorough investigation of it is advocated by a first-class Czech antiquary and philologist, Prof. G bauer, of Prague, and that in the *Athenæum*, a periodical issued under the auspices of the Czech University of that city. Attacks on the 'Königinhof Manuscript' have but rarely and faintly come from national Bohemian quarters, though 'The Judgment of Libusha,' so mysteriously discovered shortly after Hanka's alleged great "find" in a lumber corner of the church steeple at Königinhof, September 16, 1817, was violently denounced as a fraud by the patriarch of Bohemian Slavists, the Abbé Dobrovsky, and many of his disciples, and has always been half-heartedly defended. The 'Love Song of King Wenceslas,' 'Libusha's Prophecy,' and other minor fragments of ancient Bohemian poetry have been given up by the most obstinate Czech scholars, and Hanka's and his helper Svoboda's complicity in those mystifications are, though very reluctantly, admitted by many. But the epics and lyrics of Königinhof, the very late attacks on which—in the last three decades—by Feifallik, Max Büdinger, and others, were met with as much zeal as learning by the veteran historian Palacky and the Jireceks, possess a kind of religious sanctity in the eyes of Bohemian nationalists. Those poems, which were to prove that there was a grand Homeric school of popular bards in Bohemia, more than a century, and possibly many centuries, before John Huss preached in Prague, have done more than any other production by a Czech to resuscitate and regenerate the Bohemian language, and rouse the national sentiment, in our century. Whether Hanka honestly or dishonestly brought to light the 'Králodvorsky Rukopis'—whether, if it was a forgery, he did his part for the sake of notoriety or, as Kopitar says, "cœco patriæ amore abreptus"—the fact stands that he has made history. The Czechs were right in nationally celebrating, in September, 1867, the semicentenary anniversary of the appearance of the parchment strips of Königinhof, even though the 'Rukopis' may only have been *ben trovato*. "If this banknote be forged," a stanch Bohemian is reported lately to have said, "well, we have bought too much for it—our national regeneration, our poetic literature." The literature on the subject is immense; a full, though nationally partial, historical and bibliographical exposé is contained in Vlach and Helfert's 'Die Cecho-Slaven' (1883).

EARLY ARABIAN KINSHIP AND MARRIAGE.

Kinship and Marriage in Early Arabia. By W. Robertson Smith, Lord Almoner's Professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge. Cambridge: At the University Press. 1885. Pp. xiv, 322.

Professor Smith states that in his discussion he has followed the line of investigation laid down by the late Mr. J. F. McLennan in his works on primitive marriage, kinship, and the patriarchate. The problem being to determine what was the development of customs of kinship and marriage, Mr. McLennan undertakes to establish the following positions: the most ancient system of blood kinship was through women only, and this by reason of the uncertainty of fatherhood; the primitive promiscuity accompanied by female infanticide was followed by capture of wives and exogamy, these by polyandry of various sorts through which the advance was made to male kinship; the primitive groups were, or were assumed to be, homogeneous; the rule of female kinship tended to make exogamous groups heterogeneous; next arose kinship through both females and males, then kinship through males alone, dependent on the development of the idea of fatherhood; this kinship tended to produce homogeneous groups, whence, from difficulty of intermarriage in such a group, there again came into play marriage by capture and the evolution of capture; under the condition of exogamy and female kinship there arose heterogeneity, with marriage within the tribe; such a tribe easily grew into a caste; and such a group, having come to feel its unity, would naturally feign a common ancestor. These are the conditions which Professor Smith seeks to find in the old Arabic life. He has conducted his investigation with such wealth of learning and carefulness of discrimination as fairly entitle his book to the name of an independent work. He has gone for the most part to original sources, and shows the same acuteness of observation and felicity of illustration that have appeared in his former works. He brings out a multitude of curious details in connection with the ancient Arabian society, and with old Semitic life in general, including the Old Testament.

It is well known that the surviving Arabic literature of the pagan period is of very small extent, and what we have has been in part worked over by later Moslem editors and traces of paganism obliterated. It is to be expected, therefore, that the history of the earlier times should be found not so much in direct statement as in the remains of customs and institutions; these are to be interrogated, and their testimony to the most ancient condition of things carefully sifted. What, now, may we hold to be the established results of such an inquiry?

Professor Smith makes it probable that the earliest bond of kinship in Arabia was through women only. This is the most natural explanation of the occurrence of female eponyms. Nöldeke's suggestion that these names simply arise from the fact that Arabic collective nouns are feminine, hardly accounts for the phenomena. That the tribe should represent its ancestor as a woman points to a time when relationship was reckoned through women. The number of such eponyms in the Arabian tribes is not small, and in the Jewish tradition we have such names as Sarah, Rebecca, Leah, and Rachel. If from the earliest period kinship had been reckoned through males, it would be very difficult to account for the occurrence of such traditions. There is, further, the heathen Arabic rule of bars to marriage which were only on the female side. In other primitive societies we find such a rule of prohibited degrees always connected with female kinship, and there seems no reason to suppose another explanation here.

Prof. Smith finds no direct proof that the ancient Arabs had a practice of exogamy—that is, a custom forbidding marriage within the tribe. In historical times they were certainly not endogamous—that is, marriage without the tribe was not forbidden; for there are mentioned numerous cases of intermarriages between different tribes. But when we compare the general progress of society in Arabia and in other primitive communities, we find in the former conditions which are commonly associated in the latter with exogamy.

When Mohammed established his legislation, the patriarchal and patronymic organization was already fully in existence. The husband was the head of the family; the children took the father's name, and were reckoned to his tribe; the husband had almost complete authority over both wife and children. But there was then also in existence another sort of marriage, called by the Arabians *mota*, which Mohammed endeavored to abolish. This was a contract entered into between husband and wife for a definite period, the parties being of equal authority—that is to say, the wife enjoying an independence which did not belong to her under the later condition of things. There are, moreover, traces of still another form of marriage, freer and more primitive than the *mota*, in which the woman was the principal party. Living in her own tribe and in her own house, the woman seems to have been permitted to receive at will husbands from other tribes, to have entertained them at her pleasure, and to have been entirely independent of them in her movements. Her children were then reckoned to her tribe. McLennan has designated by the term *beena* those temporary marriages in which the husband went to live with his wife; Mr. Smith includes marriages of the *mota* and *beena* types under the name *sadic*, as a designation of all those marriages where the wife is not under the husband's authority, but meets him on equal terms. A number of examples in illustration of this custom might be cited from the ancient history. Thus, the famous Hatim was chosen as husband by Mawiya, was received by her in her own tent, and was dismissed by her at her own pleasure, because she found his generosity intolerable. In the *Aghani*, xvi. 106, it is said: "Women in the Time of Ignorance, or some of them, had the right to dismiss their husbands, and the form of dismissal was this: If they lived in a tent, they turned it round, so that if the door had faced east it now faced west; and when the man saw this he knew that he was dismissed, and did not enter." And so the tent belonged to the woman, and the husband was received by her at her own will. It is this custom that seems to be referred to in the Hebrew expression "to go in unto," as a synonym of marriage—that is, to go into the wife's tent (compare 2 Sam., xvi, 22).

Back of such marriage arrangements, however, there seems to have existed in Arabia a custom of polyandry. For Yemen Prof. Smith cites the direct testimony of Strabo, 16, 4. Indirect testimony he finds in the story given in Bokhari, 6, 114, where a man goes halves in wives with his adopted brother, a procedure that would never have occurred to one but from a preceding custom of polyandry. The same thing might be inferred from the signification of the word *kanna*, which means both spouse and daughter-in-law, and thus points to the time when a woman might occupy a position of wife to a group of men, and her children be reckoned to the group and not to any particular man. McLennan makes two types of polyandry, which he calls the Nair and the Tibetan; in the former, the more primitive, the woman is the wife of a group of men not related to one another; in the latter she is the wife of all the brothers of a family. Of the early existence of this Tibetan polyandry among the Semites, there is indirect evidence: for example, among the Hebrews the custom of levirate marriage, the brother marrying the widow of his deceased brother, the first son of the new marriage being reckoned to the deceased husband. See Matthew xxii, 25-26, a condition which represents accurately the remains of a custom of Tibetan polyandry.

Beyond this point the data of early Semitic life do not reach. In certain other early societies we find that such polyandry was preceded by promiscuity (not, apparently, by communal marriage). Prof. Smith very properly limits himself to the discussion of the facts of Arabic life actually known, and does not attempt conjectures as to the earliest possible period.

Another class of facts which McLennan has brought into prominence and which Smith here

discusses is embraced under the name totemism. A totem is an animal from which the tribe takes its name, of whose blood it believes itself to be, and which it reveres as a deity. Now in Arabia and in the old Israelitish territory a considerable number of tribe-names (for example, the Calebites or Dogs) derived from animals is found. Often a large tribe contains a number of subtribes, all claiming the animal name, having each its own separate name in addition. There are some facts which might lead us to believe that these animals were old deities, and were held by the tribes to be of their own blood, such as the stories common in the 'Thousand and One Nights' of the transformation of men into beasts, the refusal by Mohammed to eat certain animals because of their apparent relationship to man, and especially the old custom of prohibited foods. This seems to be the most natural explanation of the Hebrew laws relating to animals classed as "unclean," that is, not as physically impure or hurtful, but as sacred and prohibited. The probability is that the unclean animals mentioned in Deut. xiv., Lev. xi., are deities of heathen worship. Professor Smith points out that the term "abomination" is applied in the Old Testament only to the prohibited foods and to heathen gods. There are a few traces among the ancient Arabs of the worship of animals; naturally such traces would easily disappear in Moslem times.

Professor Smith's book is welcome as an introductory investigation in a very interesting and important field. He has been able, as he says, to give only a brief sketch of the material, and more accurate results must follow from wider investigations. The literatures of the other Semitic peoples should be worked up, and Arabic literature itself needs a more thorough study. But it may be said that Mr. Smith has made it probable that the earliest Arabic society of which we have distinct traces is polyandrous; that there was thence an advance to a form of marriage in which the woman was independent; that this was succeeded by the marriage of Mohammed's time called by Smith *baal*, in which the wife was virtually the property of the husband; that kinship was originally through the mother alone; that there then came a time of conflict during which groups formed by female kinship were gathered together and became homogeneous; and, finally, that when the family came into existence, under the form first of Tibetan polyandry and then of monandry, the system of male kinship was introduced. Professor Smith seems to have had in mind not only the English, but also the Continental literature of his subject.

TOLSTOI AND TURGENEFF.

Anna Karénina. By Count Lyof N. Tolstoï. In eight parts. Translated by Nathan Haskell Dole. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

AMONG the last letters which Turgeneff wrote was one from his deathbed to Count Lyof Tolstoi. "I write to you with my own hand," he said, "to tell you that I am glad to have been your contemporary, and to express to you a last, sincere request. My friend, the great writer of the Russian land, grant my prayer: return to literature." He had already, in 1880, sent to Tolstoi an extract from a letter to himself, in which Gustave Flaubert expressed his thanks for having been made to read the French translation of 'War and Peace'—"unfortunately very inferior," adds Turgeneff. "It is of the highest order," said Flaubert. "What a painter! what a psychologist! The first two volumes are *sublime;* but the third deteriorates frightfully. He repeats himself! and he philosophizes! At last one sees the gentleman, the author, and the Russian, while up to that point one had seen only Nature and Humanity. It seems to me that there are at times things truly Shaksperian in it! I uttered cries of admiration during my perusal of it; and it is long! Yes, it is powerful! very powerful!"

Turgeneff, as we know from his letters, wrote with great effort. It required much urging from his friends and his own conscience before he could be induced to put pen to paper. This indifference he attributed to his long residence abroad, which, whatever effect it may have had in that direction, certainly tinged his view of Russia and his countrymen, and developed an epigrammatic terseness of style which does not characterize his 'Annals of a Sportsman.' But with all our admiration for the exquisite finish of his workmanship, it is hard to imagine that he could ever have written in that fervid condition of heart and brain which does not permit of deliberate pauses to weigh the effect of every word and to calculate the turn of every phrase. How Count Tolstoi writes we are not informed, but any one who reads him in the original soon becomes breathless at the earnestness and rapidity with which chapter after chapter seems to have been dashed off and never afterwards revised—an earnestness so concentrated and glowing that the reader seems to feel at once the heart-beats of the characters as they are introduced, and, above them all, the passionate throb of the author's own heart, with an almost personal sense of his very presence. This dash results in an apparent indifference to some of the commonest rules of writing and of novel-manufacture, in which far inferior performers excel. It is not uncommon for him to repeat himself on the same page, to begin several consecutive sentences with the same name in the most awkward manner, to contradict his own statements. Thus Várenka, in 'Anna Karenina,' is made to wear a yellow dress and a white one in the same breath (both are omitted from the translation), and Vronsky's wealth in Italy is not accounted for after the description of his embarrassed circumstances in St. Petersburg. But this habitual disregard for nice points does not detract from the effect, and it serves to accentuate still more strongly the contrast between Tolstoi's ardent temperament and Turgeneff's phlegmatic nature. The latter would never have permitted such technically imperfect work to leave his hands, but, with all his art, he appears cold beside his brother writer. It may be argued, and with some justice, that the removal of these blemishes by a translator is an improvement; but it interferes with the proper psychological study of the author, whose personality is as interesting as any of his characters, in the same degree that the mistakes foisted upon Turgeneff, by the same means, prevent a proper appreciation of him.

The methods of the two writers are as different as their styles. Turgeneff viewed all Russian subjects and people from a double standpoint—that of an impartial foreigner, who regarded Russians as new and curious animals to be studied, and that of a native, who understands thoroughly the manners and customs of his country. An epigrammatic and critical treatment is the natural result of this. Tolstoi's method is the exact reverse. He never consciously treats his characters as Russians, nor does he criticise them. He simply becomes, for the time being, an integral part of the mind and of the very essence of the character whom he is depicting. Nevertheless, no one can deny that his characters are as genuinely Russian as any of Turgeneff's creations. But they are something more—they are universal types. The situations in 'Smoke' and 'Anna Karenina' are sufficiently similar to render a comparison interesting. Vronsky deserts Kitty for Anna, as Litvinoff deserts Tania for Irene. After showing us the fashionable Russians at Baden-Baden, with their airy French, superlatively fresh clothes, and elaborate grace of manner, picnicking in the morning and mesmerizing their crab in the utter inanity of their evening, Turgeneff exhibits another set behaving like lunatics at Gubareff's rooms, and then confides the task of summing up Russia as a whole to Potugin. Like Pigasoff in 'Rudin,' Potugin does little but utter pithy criticisms, which, though highly amusing, are as unpalatable to the victims as are certain Anglo-American sketches to people in this country. After giving the impression that high class Russians are frivolous, narrow-minded, and overburdened with foreign affectations, and that Russia is utterly devoid of originality, the story proceeds. But there is very little analysis of character, or of the motives and feelings which inspire any course of conduct. The people and events are simply photographed under a brilliant light, and the reader is left to supply the rest, as he is in the dramas which go on about him in real life. Irene is frail, shallow, heartless—eminently Russian, if we are to believe the author. No one will ever pause to inquire Anna Karenina's nationality; she will be accepted unquestioningly, in her weakness and remorse, as a world type by any one who has once followed the vivid history of her mental processes.

Varvara, in 'A Nobleman's Nest,' is another example of the same eminently national delineation. Tania hardly appears on the scene, any more than Natalia in 'Rudin,' and much less than Lisa in 'A Nobleman's Nest.' All three lose their lovers through the interference of a married woman. That they are all strong characters is evident enough; but Turgeneff is very reserved in his portraits of young girls, and the reader never feels that he has been very thoroughly introduced to them. They are simply the ideal young girl of romance. Irene at first forms an exception. But Tolstoi's young girls are among the most wonderful of his creations. Had Kitty been dropped after the description of her feelings at Vronsky's desertion, as Turgeneff's girls are, she would still have lived in the hearts and memories of all readers. As Levin's wife she reigns equally as the typical young married woman. Natasha, in 'War and Peace,' is an example, quite as perfectly drawn, of another type—the fickle, forward, capricious girl, who eventually settles down with the last and most unexpected of her many admirers, and develops into the most domestic of matrons, without a care for her appearance or an idea beyond her much-governed husband and children. That Levin is an autobiographical sketch is generally accepted, and there are portions of Pierre Besukhof's story which seem to come under the same head. Yet he is not a whit more true to nature than any other character in the author's two great novels. Lavretzky, in 'A Nobleman's Nest,' is somewhat similar to Aleksei Karenina, but the contrast is as marked in this case as in the others. Like Litvinof, he forms the subject of a psycho'ogical study within the narrow limits to which Turgeneff restricted himself, or was restricted by his lack of sympathy. One curious result of the latter's attempts at analysis is, that the people to whom he devotes the most of his attention in that line turn out the weakest characters, and eventually fade out of the story in a nerveless way, which speedily banishes them also from the reader's mind, leaving behind, in vivid colors, only the portraits of the brave young girls who suffer unanalyzed in silence. "All is smoke," says Litvinoff. "Words, words, that is all," echoes Rudin; if Lavretzky does not utter the sentiment, he feels it. The married women are too shallow to dissect. The young girls do not yield their secret hearts to his touch.

In short, Turgeneff's art is always apparent, and never more so than when he is contrasted with Tolstoi, whose utter absence of that quality (consciously and deliberately, at least) results in something as much above any deliberate artistic product as a rose or a tree is beyond the utmost effort of a painter or a flower maker. But, although Tolstoi appeals more directly to the heart than Turgeneff, the latter never appears so well as when read directly after one of the former's great works. They complement each other in a marked manner and to a singular degree, and, united, they reveal Russian life in a way that is fairly startling in its vividness.

Of 'Anna Karenina' it is unnecessary to speak in detail. The general remarks which were made in these columns a short time ago with regard to the translation of the 'War and Peace' apply with equal force to this. It was made directly from the French, not from the Russian, and the proofs begin in chapter two. The French version is very much cut, not as a concession to a more delicate taste (one passage is omitted for that reason), but in order to shorten the book. Occasionally, the American translator restores a paragraph to make the sense clearer. Sometimes he omits something essential, as on page 567. The inference is, as it now stands, that Levin was actuated by jealousy when he sent the coachman back instead of allowing Vasenka to go. He is merely anxious that his Don Cossack horse should not be injured by Vasenka's weight, which is about 240 pounds. The parenthesis which explains this is retained in the French, though the chapter is much cut in both versions. The omission of many details connected with Levin's life and experiments on his estate is especially to be regretted. They would have supplied in abundance that "local color" which the translator has depended upon untranslated words to reproduce. The latter merely baffle and disconcert the reader. Housekeepers will be interested to learn that the Princess's new way of cooking raspberries was the method commonly employed in this country—without water. Levin did not indulge in acrobatic exercises beside his brother's death-bed by "trying to stand on tiptoe." He "tried to leave the room on tiptoe." The French also is wrong here. But while the American translator follows the French so closely (as a rule) that he even writes *non*, where the Russian *no* is used, he sometimes departs from it without gaining much. *Peignoir* was a perfectly adequate rendering for *koftochka*, which Mr. Dole gives as a *jersey* (jerseys were not invented at that time). The *tensely-drawn* brow of Levin's skeleton-like brother on his death-bed reads *bald* in the French, and *yellow* in the English. It is not worth while to cite more examples. The translator has fallen to the ground between two stools. The Russian was undoubtedly at hand and referred to, as the preface states, but with the result of confusion rather than improvement in most cases, and a translation from the French, not in a "few passages," but as a whole. It is a disappointment. To quote the words of a Russian who is accomplished both in that language and in English: "It makes the heart bleed to see the havoc that is made with beautiful things." Turgeneff and Tolstoi deserve better treatment than they have received; and though they are great enough to rise superior to misrepresentation, only those who can make their acquaintance in their own magnificent language will ever be able fully to appreciate them.

Lebenserinnerungen. Von Levin Schücking. Breslau und Leipzig: S. Schottlaender. 1886. 2 Bde.

We have in these memoirs of the recently deceased Westphalian poet and novelist, Levin Schücking, two very engaging volumes. As autobiography they show the touch of a literary artist, and disclose at the same time a character that commands admiration. The author had won for himself a distinct and honorable place in the imaginative literature of his country, and the story of his life was thus well worth telling for its own sake alone. Added to this, however, is the fact that through his experience as a journalist he had had exceptional opportunities for becoming acquainted with a large number of the men of letters who were most prominently before the eyes of the German people during the decade that immediately preceded the revolutionary outbreaks of 1848. Students of these men and of the epoch in which they lived and worked will find Schücking's memoirs a valuable source of information. The volumes are interesting from beginning to end.

Levin Schücking was born in Westphalia in 1814. His native province is not famed as a producer of poets or as a nourisher of the poetic temperament, but Schücking himself attaches no little importance to his having been born a Westphalian. With evident feeling and with fine literary skill he describes the home of his boyhood, not far from Münster: the fantastic old castle in which his father, a judicial magistrate, had taken up his official residence; the forest of pines that surrounded the castle, and the dreams and fancies which this sombre environment bred in his own boyish mind. He tells us, too, of his early attempts at poetic creation, and of his fondness for the Waverley novels, which it was his agreeable office to read aloud to the family over and over again, only now and then exchanging Scott for some freshly arrived book of Irving or of Cooper. "Walter Scott," he observes, "has exercised great influence upon my whole way of thinking," and he digresses into a short essay upon the philosophy of Toryism. "There was always a good bit of the Tory in me," so the digression concludes, "and I hate and attack only that aristocracy which is the caricature of what it should be, namely, that genuine aristocracy of mind without which the world does not get ahead."

In his boyhood Schücking often accompanied his father upon the latter's official expeditions, thus becoming minutely acquainted with that land of the "red soil," its steady-going people and its elegiac scenery, for which he always continued to feel a strong affection, and from which he professed to have drawn in after years the inspiration for his best and most characteristic work. His earliest considerable literary enterprise was to furnish the text for an illustrated work upon 'Romantic and Picturesque Westphalia.' He had taken the course of study necessary to fit him for the practice of the law, but upon returning from the University in 1838, he found no career open to him. His home had now become Prussian, and the bureaucrats of Friedrich Wilhelm III. looked upon him as a foreigner. So it came about that, having himself in reality but little fancy for the law, he made but one and that a half-hearted attempt to secure an official position, and then abandoned Themis for the Muses, as Goethe, Heine, Uhland, and many others had done before him. In 1843 he had become sufficiently known through divers short stories so that he was made an associate editor of the *Allgemeine Zeitung* at Augsburg. Two years later he accepted a similar position upon the *Kölnische Zeitung*, where he remained until 1852.

In his work upon these journals he kept, in the main, aloof from politics, his bent being rather for imaginative literature, more specifically for the historical romance. Of this, his life-long mental habit, and of its effects upon his intellectual existence, he speaks in these words: "I have never had to struggle with doubts or to fight my way painfully through to freedom, as has been the lot of many whose natural endowment was perhaps deeper than my own. From the historical bent that ruled me freedom came as a natural consequence, and I would say even now to all hampered souls (*gebundenen Seelen*), History will make you free." The account of these journalistic years teems with interesting matter from and concerning noted literary personages. Numerous letters of Gutzkow and of Freiligrath are printed, and two visits to Heine in Paris are described at some length. A curious half-insane letter of Lenau is given, perhaps the very last the unfortunate poet ever penned before the attack which sent him to end his days in a madhouse. Besides the men just named, Schücking stood on terms of intimate friendship with numerous other literary personages of hardly less note. Among these is to be mentioned the gifted poetess Annette von Droste, whose biography he wrote and to whom he was warmly attached from boyhood.

Not the least entertaining portion of his editorial reminiscences is that which has to do with the press censorship, that stupidest of all the stupid tyrannies under which German intelligence was condemned to struggle half a century ago. Readers of Heine will recall the stanza at the end of chapter xii in the "Wintermährchen":

> "Das war die Rede die ich hielt,
> Ganz ohne Vorbereitung;
> Verstümmelt hat Kolb sie abgedruckt
> In der *Allgemeinen Zeitung*."

Of this Kolb and of his efforts to conduct a great journal under exceedingly untoward circumstances, Schücking gives an interesting account. The most amusing thing in the memoirs is the statement, given apparently as sober fact, that a certain censor at Cologne forbade an advertisement of the 'Divine Comedy,' on the ground that people should not be making comedy of divine things. Of the same individual it is related that, having once received an official reprimand for allowing the publication of some correspondence dated "from the Murg," he thereafter systematically forbade everything purporting to come from the vicinity of a small German river: "der Henker soll die Schreibereien von dem kleinen Bachzeug holen," was the inflexible decree.

In 1847 Schücking was sent to Rome as correspondent of the *Kölnische Zeitung*. Here he witnessed that flood-tide of liberal enthusiasm which marked the earliest phase in the pontificate of Pius IX. He himself, in spite of his Northern blood and a certain very obvious indifference to matters of church dogma, seems to have caught, in mild form at least, the delirious infection of the hour. Along with the rest he indulged in his brief dream of a new, united, and purified church to be created by the liberal policy of the new Pope; a church that was to draw to itself the conservative elements of disintegrated and decaying Protestantism, and so move on to the undisputed religious sovereignty of the West. All this sounds strangely enough now, as does indeed the whole of our author's vivid and masterly description of that wild ebullition of ecclesiastical patriotism in 1848. With this description and this year, unfortunately, the memoirs end. The author had reached that point in his story when he was called away by death. A brief epilogue is added by an unnamed friend of the author.

Of Schücking as an imaginative writer, of his gifts and of his limitations as a story-teller, there is no occasion to speak in this short notice of his memoirs. The beginning of his fame was made by the romance 'Die Ritterbürtigen' in 1843. In 1846 he published a volume of poems, and in the succeeding years several dramas, one or two of which met with good success as acting plays. But his proper line of work was always, as he

himself thought, the historical romance; in this line his later years were prolific enough. In lieu of any enumeration or characterization of these works, let it suffice to quote a single sentence, in which he has given the world a summary statement of his literary purposes: "The fundamental idea of all my writings," he says, "is the emancipation of mankind in general, and of women in particular, from the bondage of those views and of those conventionalities which impede the individual in the exercise of his right of self-determination, and hinder his development to genuine humanity."

On Speech Formation as the Basis for True Spelling. By Henry Freeman. London: Trübner & Co. 1886. Small 8vo, pp. 88.

THAT the orthography of the English language is sadly in need of reformation is a proposition the truth of which has long been admitted by all educated persons, except a small minority of whom the late Mr. Richard Grant White may be regarded as the chief exemplar. If among that small minority there are any who have kept run of the writings of German scholars upon the subject of orthography during the last quarter of a century, they must have been astonished at the amount of discussion to which the comparatively few orthographical anomalies of the German language have given rise. Had the scholars of England and America devoted a proportional amount of time and labor to the discussion of the anomalies of English orthography, they would hardly have been able to make even an excursion into any other field of study. We have, however, had discussion enough, but the trouble with it all has been that while the conservatives have mostly confined themselves to the recommendation of an obstinate adherence to the existing system, or rather to the existing confusion, the reformers have been prodigal of schemes generally impracticable, often absurd, sometimes ludicrous. The natural result of all this has been that many, perhaps most, of those who have a lively sense of the incongruities of English spelling, despair of any practicable method of reformation, and reject at once and without examination any new scheme that may be brought forward.

To one acquainted with the orthographical systems of any considerable number of other nations, English spelling appears like a gigantic puzzle, constructed expressly for the torment of children, without any of that pleasurable suspense, seasoned with the hope of ultimate success, which renders the solution of puzzles one of the most delightful recreations of boys and girls. At the same time mistakes in spelling are regarded much in the light of unpardonable sins. A scrawling, half-illegible handwriting will be passed over as a personal peculiarity; an awkward or ungrammatical sentence will be attributed to haste or carelessness; but a mispelled word becomes at once a source of shame on the part of the writer and of contempt on the part of the reader. It is regarded as the badge of lack of culture, and by some curious mental process it often happens that those are most unsparing in their ridicule who did not dare to jeer until they had themselves consulted the dictionary. It will thus be seen that there are social as well as other reasons for trying to lessen the difficulties of learning to spell.

Mr. Freeman professes to have this end in view. His little book is very handsome. The paper is white, the margins are wide, the print is clear, the binding is neat, and it bears the imprint of one of the most respectable and widely-known publishing houses of London. How so many fortunate circumstances can have concurred in assisting at the birth of so much absurdity is a mystery which we do not pretend to solve. In most cases a reviewer would simply toss such a book as this into the ever-growing heap of those which deserve only to be passed over in silence. But to any one who believes in the possibility and practicability of some reform in English spelling, it seems a kind of duty, if possible, to "squelch" a book which can only assist in rendering all attempts at reform ridiculous. In reading certain pages the idea suggested itself that perhaps the author was not to be taken seriously, and that we had to deal with a parody or a satire on the many absurd books, treating the same subject, which have hitherto appeared. But such an idea was immediately negatived by the general tone of the work. A parody should have somewhat of humor, a satire somewhat of wit. This book has neither; it is throughout insufferably dull. It must then be taken for what it purports to be, an exposition of a new system of English spelling, and a system, too, which the author hopes and expects to see adopted in practice.

Mr. Freeman regards his present system of spelling as only transitional. At some future time it is to be superseded by a system in which some new characters are to be introduced, to represent elementary sounds which he is now compelled to indicate by combinations of the letters at present in use; and he has stated briefly the principles upon which some of them should be constructed. But we are quite sure that his notions in regard to the nature and mode of production of the elementary sounds are so completely erroneous that his last system would be worse than his first. He is also obliged to mix Roman and Italic letters in the same words, a process which renders the page so unsightly that it would probably of itself prevent the general adoption of his system, but which is perhaps excusable on the ground that it is the only method of bringing his system within the capabilities of the fonts of type in an ordinary printing-office. The fifth and last chapter of Mr. Freeman's book, occupying pages 86 and 87, treats of the quality of sounds, and is printed in the new orthography. The first two sentences printed in the ordinary manner read as follows:

"A good deal is vaguely set down to quality, insomuch that the term has become reduced in meaning to a considerable degree of indefiniteness. Used, however, in reason and in its right place, it is a convenient term."

In the author's new spelling these sentences stand thus:

"U GUD del iz *veigli* set *daun* tu kwholiti, in*soumutsh* that thu *turum* haz bikum ridi*ust* in menin *tu* u khnsidurubl digre uv indefinitnis. Yiuzd, hauevu, in rezn an in its rait plheis, it iz u khnveniunt *turum*."

A Commonplace Book of the Fifteenth Century. Printed from the original manuscript at Brome Hall, Suffolk, by Lady Caroline Kerrison. Edited with Notes by Lucy Toulmin Smith. London: Trübner & Co. 1886.

THIS book is the first complete reproduction in print of the manuscript volume named in the title. About one-half of it consists of poems written in a hand of the latter half of the fifteenth century; the rest is made up of documents partly of a public and partly of a private nature. These latter will have their special interest to men engaged in the investigation of local customs and the variations of price at different periods; but to the purely literary student the chief value of the volume will be the Old English poems which are contained in the first half. Several of these are of some length and importance. They are variant versions of what is to be found elsewhere, but the variations are in many cases so great that the whole poem approaches the character of a unique original. The piece entitled "Adrian and Epotys" will perhaps be of most interest to the average student, and a very brief account of it will give the reader a satisfactory idea of the volume as a whole. Adrian and Epotys is not a story, but a dialogue between the Emperor Adrian and a child who presents himself before him, styling himself Epotys, but who turns out at the end to be Christ. The Emperor asks the child a series of questions, and the replies made furnish an illustration of the beliefs then held and the things then taught about philosophy and religion. Some of the answers give little more than the information contained in the Bible narrative. Others are interesting because they show that then, as now, men made up by assertion in matters of education for what they lacked in certainty or evidence. The questions asked were frequently about things—such as the constitution of the angelic hierarchy—which nobody can possibly know; the answers, therefore, were such as no one could deny. As good an illustration and, to men of our day, as entertaining a one as can be selected of this method of instruction, are the thirteen reasons furnished the Emperor by the child why men should fast on Friday rather than on any other day. The first is, God created man on Friday; the second, that on Friday Adam and Eve lost Paradise; the third, that on Friday Cain killed Abel; the fourth, that on Friday the annunciation was made to the Virgin Mary by the angel Gabriel; the fifth, that on Friday Christ was born; the sixth, that on Friday he was circumcised; the seventh, that on Friday Stephen, the proto-martyr, was stoned to death; the eighth, that on Friday John the Baptist was beheaded; the ninth, that on Friday Christ was crucified; the tenth, that on Friday the Virgin Mary died; the eleventh, that on Friday Saint Andrew was crucified; the twelfth, that on Friday Saint Helen succeeded in finding at Calvary the true cross; and the thirteenth, that on Friday God shall come to judge the world.

Besides "Adrian and Epotys" the volume contains the version of a play on the subject of Abraham's sacrifice of Isaac, varying in many respects from the others that exist. Space does not permit us, however, to treat these separate pieces in detail, but the whole work is an interesting contribution to the ever-increasing series of publications which set out to furnish us original documents by which we can study the language, the beliefs, and the lives of our fathers. From the editor of this book we have learned to expect careful and thorough work, nor are we disappointed in this instance. To each article is prefixed a notice which gives sufficient information as to the subject of the piece, and, in the case of the longer poems, of the various versions which exist of it. No glossary has been supplied, but it was probably felt not to be needed. The work is designed for special students, and, except for an occasional wantonness of orthography, the text is not of a character to present any special difficulty.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, O. F. April. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 75 cents.
Anster, J. Goethe's Faust. Translated from the German. Introduction by Rev. H. R. Haweis. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Appleton's Annual Cyclopædia and Register of Important Events of the Year 1885. D. Appleton & Co. $5.
Bruell, J. D. Sea Memories, or Personal Experiences in the United States Navy in Peace and War. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Century Magazine. Vol. XXXI. November, 1885—April, 1886. The Century Co. $3.
Classical Atlas. Twenty-three Colored Maps. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Dabney, V. The Story of Don Miff, as Told by his Friend John Bouche Whacker. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.50.
Droz, E. Etude sur le scepticisme de Pascal. Boston: Schoenhof.
Encyclopædia Britannica. Vol. XX. 9th ed. Prudentius—Roswitha. Charles Scribner's Sons. Boston: Little Brown & Co.
Foote, Mary H. John Bodewin's Testimony. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 13, 1886.

The Week.

THE President's action in vetoing two private pension bills which recently passed Congress is likely to call a halt on the recklessness of pension legislation. The lecture which he reads the members upon the gross carelessness with which such bills are rushed through by wholesale is severe, but it is well deserved. Mr. Cleveland's course about these minor measures furnishes ample evidence that the raids upon the Treasury threatened in the arrears scheme and other vast jobs will meet effective opposition in the White House, if the demagogues succeed in rushing them through Congress.

The new rule reported by Mr. Morrison, providing that all bills increasing pensions or creating new pensions shall be open to amendments imposing new taxes to furnish the money to pay them, does not go far enough. Every such bill ought to be sent to the Committee of Ways and Means, and this committee ought to be required to report the taxes believed to be necessary to meet the expenditure. Then the two propositions would be voted on together. It is said that the Republicans in the House do not relish the proposed rule. They want to have plenty of pensions without any increase of taxes. Well, there is one way to accomplish this, and we hope to see some brave man, like Mr. Hiscock or Mr. Reed, propose it. Let him introduce a bill to stop payments on the public debt in order to pay more pensions. A better way still would be to suspend the silver coinage. This would make room for $24,000,000 of new pensions. One thing is certain. If there is to be any considerable increase in pensions, there must be taxes to correspond or a heavy reduction of disbursements elsewhere.

The House of Representatives has done its share toward making a raid upon the national Treasury by passing a River and Harbor Bill of most extravagant proportions. This great log-rolling scheme calls for over $15,000,000, which is at the very least twice as large an amount as could justifiably be called for. Mr. Holman, of Indiana, tried hard to have the bill sent back to the committee with instructions to cut it down to $8,000,000, but only 85 members voted for this proposition, against 157 for the measure as it stood. Upon the final vote 143 Representatives supported the grab, and 102 opposed it. As there is little doubt about its success in the Senate, we may count upon the legislative department of the Government doing its best to rifle the Treasury. But, fortunately for the taxpayers of the country, another branch of the Government must give its approval before the money can be got at, and we much mistake the character of President Cleveland if he does not interpose a decided objection, which, as Thursday's vote in the House showed, would prove fatal to the steal. Not the least among the advantages flowing from Mr. Blaine's defeat is the fact that the people have now a representative in the executive chair who can be relied upon to protect them from the reckless demagogues, whose $15,000,000 river and harbor log-rolls and $300,000,000 pension-arrears scheme threaten the financial integrity of the nation.

The seizure of the American fishing schooner *David J. Adams* by the Dominion authorities for violation of the Treaty of 1818 gives New England Congressmen a chance to "show off" as defenders of the national honor, but it will hardly lead to war, or even to a rupture of commercial relations with Great Britain. The facts in the case are very simple. The Treaty of 1818 provides that American fishermen may enter the bays or harbors of her Majesty's dominions in America to seek shelter, repair damages, purchase wood and obtain water, but "for no other purpose whatever." The offending schooner entered for the purchase of bait, which is clearly in violation of the last clause, although it is claimed that the universally recognized principle of commercial freedom involves the right to enter for such purchase. But a United States statute provides that any vessel intending to touch at a foreign port and purchase goods there shall obtain a permit from the Collector of Customs of the port whence she sails, setting forth her intention, while the schooner in question had no such permit, and her master had fastened canvas over her stern to prevent identification, apparently because he knew that he had not complied with the law. The investigation which will be made by our authorities will undoubtedly lead to an amicable settlement of the pending controversy, and an arrangement which will prevent similar disputes in the future, without the necessity of enacting any retaliatory legislation, although not of course without "letting the eagle scream."

The utter collapse of the Jefferson Davis sensation is a striking evidence that the country has finally emerged from the sectional epoch in politics. Nothing could have happened which would show what the sentimental reception of the old man really meant, better than the fact that the most gushing participant in the demonstrations was that representative Southern Republican, General Longstreet, of Georgia, who brought out his Confederate uniform for the occasion. As though this were not enough to close the mouths of Northern Bourbons, who hoped that something was to be made out of the tour for the benefit of the Republican party, the two most prominent Republican papers in the South, the Wheeling (W. Va.) *Intelligencer* and the Louisville (Ky.) *Commercial*, were prompt to ridicule the idea of attaching any importance to the incident.

The riots in Cleveland, Chicago, and Milwaukee are producing a rapid change of opinion about the partition of Poland. It has hitherto been considered by the bulk of the American people a monstrous crime on the part of the three Powers which took part in it. But the events of the last few weeks are leading many to condemn the Powers for not having gone further and partitioned the individual Poles as well as Poland. One hears everywhere very severe comments on their action, from this point of view. But this is unjust. The Poland which was partitioned was the Poland of the nobles; the Poles who are bomb-throwing and roving around with red flags in the West are drawn from the ranks of a very ignorant and degraded peasantry, for whose barbarism the present owners of Poland are responsible.

Unlike Illinois, Wisconsin has a Governor to be proud of. As we have more than once pointed out, the chief responsibility for the long continuance of the disturbances growing out of the strikes in the former State rests upon the Executive, Richard J. Oglesby, whose course from the very first has been pusillanimous and promotive of disorder. With a man of the Oglesby type in the Executive chair of Wisconsin, the metropolis of that State would be to-day at the mercy of a blood-thirsty mob. But Jeremiah M. Rusk is a man of a different sort. A stage-driver and a frontier tavern-keeper in early life, he soon won the respect of the pioneers in his vicinity, and his good sense commended him to the people of the whole State as he became more widely known through service in the Legislature. A brave soldier in the Union army, he knows what war is, and understands that the only way to deal with a band of rioters is by the use of cold lead. When trouble was threatened in Milwaukee a few days ago, he went at once to the city, summoned a sufficient force of militia to suppress disorder if it should break forth, and, when the mob sallied forth in the morning bent on rapine and slaughter, he ordered that the troops should fire to kill. A single volley at long range showed the mob that the troops "meant business," and broke the backbone of the insurrection against authority. When a Polish Alderman went to the Governor and remonstrated with him, he told his visitor to go back and tell his countrymen that he would stop these riotous demonstrations if he had to call every able-bodied man in the State into military service to do it; and when the Alderman went away and began threatening on the streets that the militia should suffer for their action, the authorities notified him that he would be arrested on the charge of inciting a riot if he did not stop.

Some friends of "Labor," among whom we are surprised to see the name of Mr. Henry George, are trying to persuade themselves that it is possible in labor troubles to make a distinction between a little intimidation and a great deal—that is, between boycotting and bomb-throwing. But the point is too fine for popular apprehension. There is no difference except one of degree between concerted illegal attempts to injure any citizen in his person, property, or reputation. If we allow any committee or combination, for any

purpose whatever, to engage openly in the work of destroying a man's business or extorting ransom from him to prevent its destruction, or to fill his life with terror by threats or denunciations, we cannot in practice put any limits to its power. Outside the law and the Constitution there are no metes or bounds to the exercise of power, and no possibility of tracing them. The Constitution says that no man shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property except by due process of law, and that even when convicted of an offence by due process of law, cruel or unusual punishment shall not be inflicted, nor excessive fines be imposed on him. It is these provisions which make the United States a free country, and a more attractive residence than Russia or Turkey. They do not say that a man may occasionally have his property taken away from him, or have excessive fines inflicted on him now and then, or that he may be kicked and cuffed on such conditions as trades unions may from time to time prescribe. They say that nothing of the kind shall ever take place, on any pretext whatsoever. Nor do they allow even judges or juries to inflict what penalties they please, or inflict any penalty without proof of legal guilt. Everybody who is charged by the law with the duty of doing anything unpleasant to any citizen, has the extent of his power and the conditions under which it may be exercised strictly defined. There is no discretion left in the matter to anybody.

When we get outside the law, and begin to allow ever so little intimidation or coercion to be practised by either individuals or organizations for purposes of their own, we begin a descent at the bottom of which is anarchy—that is, arson, pillage, and murder, revolvers, rifles, and bombs. Grant that intimidation may be practised in order to compel a man to do something which he does not wish to do, by his rivals, or enemies, or employees, and the amount and kind of intimidation become at once dependent on the resistance he may offer, or the greed or unscrupulousness of his persecutors. If distributing abusive handbills about him will not suffice, he must have his customers frightened into leaving him, and his provisions stopped. If this will not do, he must be cudgelled, and his furniture and machinery smashed, and his factory burnt. If the police enable him to disregard all these things, the police must be shot or blown up. We see illustrations of all these stages of descent in the strikes of the past few weeks. Intimidation in the hands of the more intelligent strikers consists in attempts to destroy the business of those who refuse to employ them on their own terms, by trying to divert custom from them, or, in other words, by simple "boycott." In the next grade it takes the form of assault and battery and the smashing of machinery and furniture; in the next state, it consists in riotous and armed assemblages declaring war against the whole social organization. It is mere folly to suppose that we can in this country have a little lawlessness, or have lawlessness for special occasions and no others. It is something from which communities must abstain altogether if they do not mean to drink deep of it.

Alabama has had no trouble with boycotting yet, but if this crime is attempted in that State there will be no question about its receiving proper punishment. The last Legislature passed the following "act to encourage industry in the State of Alabama":

"Any person who shall, by force or threats of violence to person or property, prevent or seek to prevent any person, firm, or corporation engaged in any lawful business, or who shall in like manner disturb, interfere with, or prevent the peaceful exercise of any lawful industry, business, or calling, by any other person within the State of Alabama, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction must be fined not less than $10 nor more than $500, and may also be imprisoned in the county jail or sentenced to hard labor for the county for not more than twelve months."

No State has yet been heard of which has not upon its statute-book provisions which fully cover the crime of boycotting.

Bradstreet's collection of statistics of the eight-hour movement shows that the total number of workmen engaged in it in all parts of the country is 325,000. The demand for shorter hours has been conceded to 150,000 without a strike and to 35,000 after striking, leaving 140,000 still on strike or defeated. The trades in which the movement has been most successful are those connected with house building, agricultural-implement makers, furniture making, and machinery building. These are trades not subject to foreign competition. In those which are subject to such competition, either in the way of exportation of the domestic product or of importation of the foreign, the movement has met with little success. In some cases the employers have yielded in consequence of contracts on hand which must be filled, but have notified the men that they shall return to ten hours when the contracts are completed, or close the works. The whole movement is in fact experimental. In those branches of industry which yield sufficient profit to warrant an increase of wages—for that is what shorter time most commonly signifies—the increase will be granted. In others it will not be granted, or, if granted temporarily, it will be withdrawn hereafter. While a great deal of loss always attends such experiments, there is nothing to be urged against them so long as the rights of neither party are invaded and the law is not violated. The principal part of the loss proceeds from the stoppage of machinery. A deduction of 20 per cent. from the producing power of the Pullman Car Works, for example, means much more to the community than a reduction of one-fifth of the laboring force. But this is no valid argument to be addressed to a man who prefers not to work more than eight hours out of twenty-four.

When Master-Workman Powderly is sensible, he is very sensible; but when he is foolish, he can be as foolish as any fool in the country. His motto seems to be to throw energy into everything—good, bad, or indifferent. In the early part of the Southwestern strike, he talked like a philosopher; but when he found the strikers would not obey him, and that they had to be humored, he showed that he could be as silly and inaccurate as any of them. When that affair blew over, however, he at once recovered his wits, and the "secret circular" which was printed on Monday is really full of "horse sense." To be sure, there is nothing in it which would not be mere platitude in the mouth of any man but a Knight of Labor; but, coming from a Knight, after all that has happened and the exhibitions the Knights have been making of themselves, it has an air of almost superhuman wisdom. That it should be necessary, however, to give the Knights such simple, homely advice, sounding so like the address of the Superintendent of a Sunday-school to troublesome boys, shows what a huge job of education Mr. Powderly has undertaken. We wish him all success in it, but must strenuously oppose the suggestion of one of the Curtin Committee that he should be allowed to revise the Constitution of the United States. The pretensions of the Knights have been sadly lowered since then.

The events of the past fortnight have damaged other champions of labor besides Mr. Powderly. Martin Irons has vanished from the proud position he held for a few weeks. He evidently dislikes manual labor as much as anybody, however, and does not mean, glorious though it be, to do any more of it than he can help. He says he is now going to devote himself to "lecturing and organization." He received very large sums of money during the strike, of which no account was probably rendered to anybody, and he will perhaps work out the amount in denunciations of capital. Another great fall is that of O'Donnell. He appeared on the surface as a street rioter only six weeks ago, and then had a short period of great power and glory, in which he threatened to suspend all means of conveyance in this city, and hurled defiance at the Grand Jury and in fact the whole American people, and repeated poetry about the state of his heart, and carried a sheaf of greenbacks under his arm. Now he is deposed as a traitor, and has been deprived of all his honors. He is probably comfortably provided for, but if he had to rely on regular industry of any kind, the best thing he could get would probably be the drivership of a bobtail car. There is nothing the cause of labor needs so much as distrust of the gift of the gab; and now that the funds of labor organizations are growing, there will be terrible competition for the handling of them among the restless, windy demagogues who hate honest toil, in all the shops in the country.

The "private understandings" between the Knights of Labor and their employers generally fill so large a space in the "grievances" of the day, and lead to so much confusion and loss of time, that it would seem as though a rule should be promulgated by Mr. Powderly or some other competent authority, that in cases of negotiation, arbitration, and settlement everything should be reduced to writing, and that the committees appointed to consider labor troubles of any kind whatsoever should refuse to consider anything not recorded in black and white. When Mr. Powderly found that the Knights at St. Louis would not obey his orders after his conference with Jay Gould, he

remembered that his understanding with Gould was, that Hoxie should arbitrate with persons not in the employ of the Missouri-Pacific Company, although Gould had in his possession a telegram from Powderly's secretary to Martin Irons affirming the contrary. So also it appears that one of the moving causes of the rejection of the Third Avenue settlement by the Empire Protective Association, according to the *Herald's* report, was that "Mr. Lauterbach had promised on the part of the company many things that had not been put in the agreement, but which Downing said that he and his colleagues believed would be carried out. The men admitted that if the company could be trusted the agreement was all right, but the men, they said, had been so frequently deceived by the Third Avenue Company that they would not trust them for anything except it was put in writing. It was this omission that the men complained of, and they were very much surprised that O'Donnell should have accepted verbal promises when he knew whom he was dealing with." If the Knights of Labor are seriously in favor of arbitration as a means of settling labor troubles, they must begin by casting out "private understandings." Arbitration is a quasi-judicial proceeding. No court would allow one of the parties to a controversy to bring in new matter after the case was closed; least of all, recollections of things not remembered by the other party.

The Third Avenue Knights have refused to ratify the agreement made by their Committee. They have given as their reason for refusing that the agreement "compromises the individual reputation of our members and is degrading to the manhood of our noble order." This is a point upon which they are the sole judges. If any man or collection of men deem their honor compromised by any project offered for their acceptance, it is both their right and their duty to reject it. Nobody else is entitled to express any opinions upon such a subject, and accordingly we shall express none. Their sense of honor would be more highly appreciated by the community if it were not prefaced by a protest against the practice of arming the drivers and conductors of street-cars with pistols, as tending to create riots and bloodshed. This unwholesome proceeding on the part of the Third Avenue Company is looked upon as threatening the public peace, and is denounced vigorously. There is a very simple recipe for this evil, and that is for all persons to avoid pulling armed drivers and conductors off their cars and to refrain from attacking them. Let the strikers remain at home or in their own committee rooms and cherish their honor, leaving the new drivers and conductors the equal privilege of cherishing theirs. In this way the average manhood of the community will be raised and all breaches of the peace will be avoided. If reading matter is wanted by men who refuse to work for $2 per day, we commend to all such the touching narrative sent to Congress by the weavers of Philadelphia, who are thankful to get employment at 80 cents per day, and who complain that many of their number cannot find work even at that rate.

What is alarming Europe in the determination of the Greeks to go to war is their apparent complete indifference to the advice, or remonstrance, or even coercion of the Powers. Their ports are now blockaded, but the war fever seems to grow stronger all the while, showing, it is supposed, either that they are satisfied that the coercion will go no further than the blockade, or that there is somebody behind Greece far mightier than she is, who has promised if she fights to see her through. The general impression is, of course, that this somebody is Russia; that she is going to do for the Greeks what she did for the Servians—that is, wait till they begin to be worsted and then step in to put an end to the Mussulman atrocities, and this time put an end also to the Ottoman Empire in Europe. Last time she came very near doing it. The minarets of St. Sophia were in sight from the Russian camp when the treaty of San Stefano was signed. Another march would have carried the Russian headquarters to Stambul. That he allowed himself to be stayed by Beaconsfield's threats was something which the late Emperor was said always to have deeply regretted. It was a mistake which his successor would undoubtedly not commit under similar circumstances.

Irish home rule seems from the last advices to be in a more perilous condition than ever, owing, apparently, to Mr. Gladstone's failure to make any formal offer of a compromise to the Chamberlain Radicals. That he is willing to make modifications in the bill there appears to be no doubt, but he is unwilling to produce them until it gets into the Committee of the Whole, where it will be thoroughly overhauled. But Mr. Chamberlain and his followers are not willing to wait. They want to know before the second reading what is to be the full measure of the concessions to be made to them, leaving only the details for discussion in the Committee. Mr. Gladstone's refusal to gratify them has bitterly disappointed them, and has apparently turned many waverers against the scheme altogether. This, at all events, appears to be true of political men in London.

Whether it is true of the voters in the provinces—that is, whether they are not perfectly willing still to confide in Gladstone's discretion—remains to be seen. Until now, in spite of the great uproar made by the metropolitan critics of the plan, there has been no sign of any weakening of Mr. Gladstone's hold on the Liberal constituencies. Mr. Chamberlain was beaten on the question of supporting the Premier in his own Birmingham caucus, and more signally beaten still at the great Liberal Convention, formed of delegates from all the caucuses, plus the Liberal members of Parliament, held in London last week. He there had to submit to the mortification of hearing the epithet "traitor," levelled at him by one speaker, received with deafening applause. It consequently would be hasty to assume that Gladstone is really checked, or that one of those wonderful reactions which have so often plucked him from the jaws of failure, may not set in before the vote on the second reading and bear down all opposition. The debate will probably last a fortnight or three weeks, and the number of speakers on both sides will be very large, and it is quite fair to assume that the Ministry will be much helped by the oratory of the Opposition. In other words, the more the opponents of home rule talk, the worse they fare. They consist of two classes of orators and writers, one of which confines itself to simple abuse of the Irish *en masse*, like Mr. Bear, who, in the last number of the *Fortnightly Review*, declares that the Irish who favor the change—that is, the great majority of the people who returned 85 out of 103 members to the present Parliament—are a "crowd of Fenians, and priests, and rogues, and paupers." This is the favorite argument in the clubs, but it exasperates the working-class Radicals, who dislike seeing a whole people indicted. The other class, which concedes that there is something good in the Irish, and that home rule ought to be granted, is so barren in suggestion that the more it talks the more apparent the poverty of its resources becomes, and the more wonderful Gladstone's constructive genius seems.

The main—in fact, one might say the only—question on which those who favor home rule at all, differ among themselves, is that of Irish representation at Westminster. The Chamberlainites say that what they seek is federation, while what Mr. Gladstone proposes is separation. They want to have a certain number, at least, of Irish members remain in the imperial Parliament to deliberate and vote on imperial concerns, in which Ireland must, willy nilly, continue to be deeply interested. There is a great deal of force in this view, and it probably commands the support of the great bulk of the English and Scotch Liberals, and will finally be accepted by Mr. Gladstone himself. The Irish, however, object to anything of the kind, at least for the present, on grounds which are undoubtedly very reasonable. They say that, for well-known reasons, the bulk of the educated class in Ireland are not enlisted in the Nationalist movement, and would not at first lend much aid in making it a success. This would, in spite of the fact that Ireland now provides more than her share of the talent and capacity which are to be found in the British service, leave the new Irish government very slenderly equipped, for a while at least, with legislative ability. There would be about enough, and none too much, the Parnellites say, for the Parliament in Dublin, which would have to deal at once with many perplexing domestic problems. Where they would find fit representatives to send to Westminster they say they do not know, and fear that if they now try to man two Parliaments, the Irish cause will be discredited in one or the other. They therefore propose that the arrangements for Federal representation should be postponed until the home government is in working order. All this is very fair, and a satisfactory solution would doubtless be easily reached if the Irish were approached, by either English party, in a conciliatory spirit and on a footing of equality.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 5, to TUESDAY, May 11, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN vetoing a special pension bill on Saturday President Cleveland said: "The policy of frequently reversing, by special enactment, the decisions of the bureau invested by law with the examination of pension claims, fully equipped for such examination, and which ought not to be suspected of any lack of liberality to our veteran soldiers, is exceedingly questionable." He added: "There have lately been presented to me on the same day for approval nearly 240 special bills, granting and increasing pensions, and restoring to the pension list the names of parties which for cause have been dropped. To aid Executive duty they were referred to the Pension Bureau for examination and report. After a delay absolutely necessary they have been returned to me within a few hours of the limit constitutionally provided for the Executive action. Two hundred and thirty-two of these bills are thus classified: Eighty-one cover cases in which favorable action by the Pension Bureau was denied by reason of the insufficiency of the testimony filed to prove the facts alleged. These bills I have approved on the assumption that the claims were meritorious, and that on the passage of the bills the Government has waived full proof of the facts. Twenty-six of the bills cover claims rejected by the Pension Bureau because the evidence produced tended to prove that the alleged disability existed before the claimants' enlistment. Twenty-one cover claims which have been denied by such bureau because the evidence tended to show that the disability, though contracted in the service, was not incurred in the line of duty. Thirty-three cover claims which have been denied because the evidence tended to show that the disability originated after the soldiers' discharge from the army. Forty-seven cover claims which have been denied because the general pension laws contain no provision under which they could be allowed, and twenty-four claims have never been presented to the Pension Bureau. I estimate the expenditure involved in the bills at more than $35,000 annually. Though my conception of public duty leads me to the conclusion, upon the slight examination which I have been able to give to such of these bills as are not embraced in the first class above mentioned, that many of them should be disapproved, I am utterly unable to submit within the time allowed me for that purpose any objections to the same. They will therefore become operative without my approval."

The Senate on Wednesday amended the fourth section of the Inter-State Commerce Bill, which made it unlawful for any common carrier to charge more for a shorter than a longer haul over the same line, in the same direction, from the same original point of departure, by striking out the words "from the same original point of departure."

The House of Representatives on Thursday, by a vote of 143 to 102, passed the River and Harbor Bill, appropriating over $15,000,000.

The House Committee on Education has made one more effort to act upon the Educational Bill, but without success.

The indications now are that the attempt to secure the passage of the bill to construct a new navy will be abandoned for this session. It is said without much hesitation by the Democratic leaders that it will be necessary to prevent any more legislation which takes any considerable sum out of the Treasury.

The protectionists claim that an agreement has been reached between the Morrison and the Randall factions that the Tariff Bill shall not be brought up at this session.

The Gloucester, Mass., fishing schooner *David J. Adams* was seized at Digby, N. S., on Friday by the Canadian steamer *Lansdowne*. She is charged with purchasing bait within the forbidden limits. The U. S. Government will have the seizure investigated.

The New England Representatives in Congress were very busy on Monday introducing resolutions relating to the fisheries. No attempt was made to secure action upon any of the propositions submitted. They all asked for investigations. The Secretary of State has anticipated all of these suggestions by ordering an investigation to be made through the consular offices. It appears that the seized vessel, the *David J. Adams*, had not the permit to trade which Senator Frye considered quite important.

In Milwaukee on Wednesday two bands of rioters were fired upon by the militia. Three men were killed and a number injured.

Milwaukee remained orderly on Thursday. Troops continued to guard the threatened establishments. Several Socialist leaders were arrested. The firm stand taken by Gov. Rusk contributed greatly to the early settlement of the riotous disturbances.

In Chicago quiet was preserved throughout Wednesday. Spies, Fielden, and Schwab, three of the Anarchist leaders, were arrested. The Board of Trade raised $12,000 for the benefit of the families of policemen injured or killed in the riot of the previous night. Other contributions increased it to about $40,000.

The Chicago police discovered more dynamite machines on Friday. More Anarchists were arrested. Two of the rioters were fined $100 each. The Socialist organ, the *Arbeiter Zeitung*, reappeared on Friday in a reduced form. The keynote of its leading article was: "Forward! and unhesitatingly forward, in spite of the chicanery of the ruling classes."

More than 100 metal workers and other large manufacturers, employing over 12,000 hands, met in Chicago on Saturday, and decided to open their shops on Monday on the basis of ten hours' work for ten hours' pay. All men who desire to resume work can do so. If they fail to come back within a week, the shops will close, and the men out will be put on the black list, which will bar them from employment at other factories. This system of self-defence by employers is growing popular.

Quiet was also maintained in Chicago on Thursday and continues. An incendiary fire was started in a lumber yard, but discovered in time to prevent serious damage. An Anarchist saloon was raided during the day, and a dozen stands of rifles seized. The Knights of Labor issued a circular protesting against all acts of violence.

The striking freight-handlers at Chicago on Sunday made an unconditional surrender to the railroads. This action was brought about by the refusal of the switchmen to join the strike. On Monday all the railways in the city resumed operations, and accepted and carried all freight offered.

The Trades Assembly of Chicago held a meeting on Monday night. While no final action was taken, the general sentiment of the meeting seemed to be that a complete backdown on the eight-hour question was advisable. Men are resuming work in all classes of trades, and it is believed that the backbone of the strike is broken.

The city of Cleveland was flooded with Socialist circulars on Wednesday night.

The Cincinnati Police Commissioners have discovered that Socialists, to the number of 600, are organized, armed with effective rifles; that they control there the manufacture of dynamite bombs; that the one used in Chicago was made there, and they have now on hand for use a supply of these infernal machines. These discoveries alarmed the authorities, and militia and policemen were kept under arms night and day to suppress an outbreak. No trouble has, however, occurred.

A long secret circular from Grand Master Powderly to all the Knights of Labor was published on Monday. In it he deprecates all boycotting except that on drink. He says: "Let me direct your attention to a few little abuses: I find that wherever a strike occurs, appeals for aid are scattered broadcast among the assemblies. Do not pay one cent for such purposes in future unless the appeal comes from your own District Assembly or the General Assembly. If boycott notices are sent to you burn them. I have in my possession 400 boycott notices which were sent to assemblies with a request that they be acted upon. In fact, our order has been used as a tail for a hundred different kites, and in future it must soar aloft free from all of them. I hate the word boycott. If the men who possess money enough to buy guns and dynamite would invest it in the purchase of some well-selected work on labor, they would put the money to good use. They will never need the guns or dynamite in this country. It is my opinion that the man who does not study the politics of the nation and the wants of the people would make but little use of a rifle. The man who cannot vote intelligently and who will not watch the man he votes for after he is elected, cannot be depended on to use either gun or dynamite. If the head, the brain of man cannot work out the problem now confronting us, his hand alone will never solve it."

In the case of Wo Lee, appellant, against the Sheriff of San Francisco, decided by the United States Supreme Court on Monday, the plaintiff had been convicted under an ordinance of San Francisco prohibiting the carrying on of a laundry in a frame building, and sent to prison. The Supreme Court holds the ordinance to be a discrimination against the Chinese, and therefore illegal and a violation of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution.

The annual meeting of the New York Civil-Service Reform Association was held on Thursday night. Mr. George William Curtis delivered an address, in which he discussed the question how the Association might best help the President. He suggested that, as a practical measure, the Association could do all in its power to effect the repeal of the four years' law. The President would be relieved of much pressure from those continually asking change of office. In another way the Association should support the bill making it almost a penal offence for Senators to solicit nominations to offices. The President had told him that a judgeship had been delayed a year because he refused to name a man in whom the Senator from that State was interested. "Men will see the day," said Mr. Curtis in conclusion, "when non-political offices will be filled by merit." The following officers were chosen for the coming year: President, George William Curtis: Vice-Presidents, Carl Schurz, Charles S. Fairchild, Roswell D. Hitchcock, John Jay, William E. Dodge, Oswald Ottendorfer, Horace E. Deming, and Orlando B. Potter.

The Protestant Episcopal Convention in Philadelphia on Thursday, on the ninth ballot, elected the Rev. Phillips Brooks, D.D., of Boston, Assistant Bishop of the diocese, with the right of succession to Bishop Stevens.

The cost of investigating the Broadway Railroad scandal has been as follows: Counsel fees of Roscoe Conkling and Clarence A. Seward, $40,000; stenographer, $2,800; personal expenses of members of the Senate Railroad Committee, $600; rooms in New York Hotel for sessions, board of stenographer, and clerk, $700; assistant sergeant-at-arms, $800; assistant sergeant-at-arms and experts (detectives), $800; book expert, $700; printing, $2,400; total, $48,800.

The subscribers to the Prize Fund Exhibition this year were twenty-four in number, the New Yorkers including H. G. Marquand, John Taylor Johnston, W. E. Connor, Sidney Dillon, and Jay Gould. From these twenty-four have been chosen the judges, the prizes offered being $2,000 each. The awards made are to C. F. Ulrich, "Glassblowers of Murano"; F. D. Millet, "At the Inn"; C. P. Grayson, "Mid-

day Dreams;" and Edward E. Simmons, "Mother and Child."

A fearful storm of wind, rain, and hail visited Kansas City on Thursday, destroying many buildings in the north end of the city. Twenty people were killed and many more injured. Leavenworth, Kan., and other towns in that State and Missouri suffered serious damage by the storm.

FOREIGN.

The reply of the Greek Prime Minister to the Powers was delivered on Thursday night, and was considered by them inadequate. On Friday the Ministers of the Powers left Athens. Greek troops were hurried to the front where Turkish troops were massing. The Greek Government announced its intention of defending Greek territory against any and all advances by foreign soldiers.

On Saturday Germany, Austria, England, Russia, and Italy notified Greece that a blockade of her ports had been ordered. The Turkish cavalry had advanced to the Greek border. Turkey is supposed to have 120,000 troops on the frontier, Greece about half that number.

The foreign fleet on Sunday blockaded the Greek coast. The Government warned all vessels that if they left port it would be at their own risk. The commercial world is excited. Premier Delyannis tendered his resignation on Sunday, but it was not accepted. Turkey and Greece are hurrying troops to the front. It is rumored that Russia is secretly supporting Greece. On Monday the Greek Ministers insisted on resigning, and at noon the King accepted the resignations. He immediately commissioned M. Rikakis to form a new Ministry. Turkey sent a note to Greece explaining that the withdrawal of the Turkish Minister from Athens was a step taken simply to act in concert with the Powers, and was not intended to indicate a rupture of the relations between the Porte and Greece.

The Porte on Tuesday notified the Powers that a body of Greek irregulars was advancing toward the frontier, and that Turkish troops had been ordered to repel it.

The meeting of the Council of the National Liberal Federation of Great Britain in London on Wednesday was crowded by delegates from the different local caucuses and party members of the House of Commons. When it became evident that the party was falling well into line on Mr. Gladstone's policy, the enthusiasm became uproarious. The principal resolution offered declared that a permanent settlement of the Irish question should be attempted on the basis of giving the Irish people control of their domestic affairs, and recognized the Government bill at present before Parliament as a foundation for such a settlement. The resolution also expressed confidence in Mr. Gladstone, but requested him to accept such amendments to his bill as would enable the Liberals to agree to the measure. The amendments suggested embraced provisions retaining the Irish members at Westminster, insuring the authority of the Imperial Parliament, and the principle that taxation and representation go together. This was evidently a feeler to find out Chamberlain's strength in the meeting, and it received only twenty-five votes. The announcement was received with cheers. An amendment was next offered declaring that the time had arrived for a permanent settlement of the Irish question, thanking Mr. Gladstone for the introduction of his bill as a basis of settlement, and expressing unabated confidence in the Government. This was carried as a substitute for the original resolution without opposition and amid wild enthusiasm. It is believed in London that a complete reunion of the Liberal party is now being arranged.

In reply to a letter asking him if he would support the Home-Rule Bill on its second reading, provided it be considered a simple affirmation of the principle of home rule, Mr. Chamberlain writes to Mr. Bolton, M. P.: "If Mr. Gladstone will maintain the Imperial Parliament as the supreme representative authority in the kingdom, I will gratefully accept the concession and vote for the second reading of the bill. But I am unable to find in Mr. Gladstone's manifesto any such assurance. He asks us to grant Ireland the right to manage her own affairs. But if geographical considerations must yield to national sentiment, then the prayer of Protestant Ulster for separate consideration deserves equal attention to that given the demands of the population which Mr. Parnell represents. The fate of Ulster lies in its own hands. I have maintained my position against the bill as proceeding on lines of separation or colonial independence, instead of federation. I have considered the full representation of Ireland in the Imperial Parliament too important a detail to leave for the committee. The question must be settled on the threshold of the discussion. The extension of home rule to Scotland and Wales depends on the maintenance of a united representation of the three countries in one supreme Parliament, leading to a future federation of the great dependencies of the Crown and the welding of them into a mighty and harmonious empire. Mr. Gladstone's alternative has rendered necessary anomalies and restrictions which no true Liberal will approve. He has produced a halting measure which offers no reasonable prospect of a final settlement, and which is certain to be a fulcrum for future agitation. He has brought us within a measurable distance of civil war, threatening the ultimate creation of a foreign hostile nation, whose reconquest is actually contemplated as a possible eventuality by the promoters of the measure. So long as uncertainty prevails in matters of such paramount interest, it is impossible for those who value the unity of the empire to affirm the principle of the bill. But if, as you anticipate, the Prime Minister should find himself in a position to make the concession which has been pressed upon him by so many of his most earnest local supporters, I share your hope that the present imminent danger of a fatal breach in the ranks of the Liberal party will be happily averted." The concession alluded to is, of course, the retention of the Irish members at Westminster.

Michael Davitt has written a letter declaring in favor of Mr. Gladstone's proposals and against Mr. Chamberlain's. In the House of Commons on Thursday night Mr. Chamberlain gave notice that he would move the rejection of the Land-Purchase Bill.

Lord Tennyson has joined the Loyal Irish Patriotic Union, the object of which is to resist the granting of home rule to Ireland.

Mr. Gladstone, in moving the second reading of the Home-Rule Bill in the House of Commons on Monday night, made the following reference to the modifications he was willing to concede: The bill provides that Ireland shall not be excluded from imperial affairs. Clause 29 provides for a recall of the representatives in both houses of the Irish Parliament before the Parliament can proceed to the alteration of a statute upon which the two countries do not agree. Another clause provides that on certain conditions the Irish Assembly may vote sums of money for purposes excluded from its ordinary cognizance. He trusted that should Great Britain be involved in a great war, when Ireland would be exposed to the common danger, the Irish Assembly would respond to a message from the Crown by voting money to prosecute the war. Though abiding in the principle that the Irish members should not sit in the Imperial Parliament, the Government was willing to meet the difficulty by providing that when it was proposed to alter the taxation of Ireland relating to the customs and excise duties, Irish members would be enabled to appear in Parliament and share in the debate. The Government was also willing to appoint a joint commission from the English and Irish Parliaments, which would meet from time to time to consider some questions of imperial or common interest. No great question, such as succession to the Crown, ought to fall under the discussion of this secondary authority, but many questions, such as treaties of commerce, might require direct communication between both Parliaments. He would, therefore, propose, on behalf of the Government, some plan of this kind. He proceeded to explain that the Government remained undecided as to the conditions under which Irish members or an Irish commission should appear in the Imperial Parliament. The Government did not consider this to be a vital point. In his opinion, if the Irish members came back in any numbers, it would be necessary to devise a new system of election. He should certainly have no jealousy of the Irish members. If they should reappear in their force, he would rather have them amply than scantily and jealously treated. In conclusion Mr. Gladstone declared that the main object of the bill was to abolish, root and branch, the discontent prevailing in Ireland, and to restore social order by the removal not merely of the symptoms, but of the causes of that discontent.

Mr. Gladstone's reference to the crucial question of the retention of the Irish members at Westminster was heard in dead silence. When it was realized that he had laboriously left things much where they were before, only adding that the Government would be open to consider any suggestions made in a subsequent committee on the bill, immense disappointment was shown in the House. Mr. Chamberlain had prepared to speak, accepting the terms. One of his supporters had arranged to follow him. Everything was upset by Mr. Gladstone's speech. Mr. Labouchere, who had acted as the go-between for the Government and the various sections of its opponents, came out into the lobby, complaining that he had been made a fool of. For some time the excitement ran high. It is believed that without a change on the part of Mr. Chamberlain's followers the bill is dead.

Queen Victoria opened in person the Liverpool International Exhibition on Tuesday. She was enthusiastically welcomed.

Shelley's tragedy "The Cenci" was performed at Islington on Friday night, before a brilliant audience, including Mr. Browning and Mr. Lowell. Miss Alma Murray as *Beatrice* and Mr. Vezin as the *Count* aroused great enthusiasm. The acting of the tragedy occupied four hours.

Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes arrived at Liverpool on Sunday. A distinguished party met him on a special boat. The *Standard* on Monday, referring to his arrival, said: "The *Cephalonia* has landed a guest as honored as any who has crossed the Atlantic within the memory of the present generation."

The new French loan was issued on Monday morning. By 2 P. M. the subscriptions aggregated thirty times the amount of the loan.

The Belgian Premier has announced that a loan of $8,600,000 would be issued to provide work for unemployed artisans and laborers.

The Spanish Cortes was reopened in Madrid on Monday. Señor Sagasta read the speech from the throne. The Government, it states, is studying the Socialist question in view of the importance which that question is assuming abroad. A measure will be submitted prolonging all treaties of commerce. The financial policy of the Government has been arranged to avoid an increase of taxation. It is stated that the treaty with America has not yet been signed, and that the negotiations continue.

The news from Burmah on Wednesday was very sensational, and showed that the natives, with the assistance of the Dacoits, had, temporarily at least, got the better of the British army of occupation. One despatch stated that the insurgents had got possession of Mandalay and had burned 4,000 houses. The officers commanding the British forces telegraphed to Lord Dufferin, the Viceroy, for aid.

THE ROOT OF THE TROUBLE.

THE striking switchmen in Chicago have been denouncing the action of the mob in that city as "an irredeemable injustice to the organizations and working people of Chicago," and "an insufferable insult to the liberties of all." The District Assembly No. 24 of the Knights of Labor have also issued a circular denouncing the mob, and declaring that they have "neither sympathy nor affiliation with any class of men who set law and order at defiance," and that they have "consistently and persistently deprecated a resort to violence." The Buffalo strikers have passed resolutions of the same sort. This is all very proper, and we have no doubt that the great bulk of the Knights of Labor are sorry for and shocked by what has happened in Chicago, and are sensible of the injury it will do to what is called "the cause of labor."

But it is due to the cause of order, which contains not only the cause of labor but many other good causes, to say that deprecatory resolutions about violence will do no good, no matter how many District Assemblies may pass them, as long as the Knights of Labor keep alive, as the working hypothesis of their organization, the notion that a man has a right to be hired on his own terms by another man, whether the other man wants him or not; that, in short, a laborer's or mechanic's place is a piece of property which he is entitled to hold as long as he pleases, and which the employer has no right to take away unless he goes out of business. In domestic service and in small shops this right is not asserted; but it is in all or nearly all the great establishments and enterprises in the country in which many men are employed. As a rule, whenever any large body of hired men make demands on their employers about hours, or wages, or processes, with which the employer refuses to comply and they strike, the strike is not, as it ought to be, a simple failure of business men to agree on a bargain. It is, in the eyes of the men, a declaration to the world that they are the victims of some kind of wrong; that the employer has taken from them something which rightfully belongs to them, and which, if the law were what it ought to be, he would be compelled to restore. They therefore fill the air with denunciations of him, and with appeals to the public and to the Legislature and the Railroad Commissioners and the press for sympathy and support in compelling him to come to terms or disgorge, and to carry on his business in the manner which the strikers think best. They hang round his premises, or post "pickets" round them to watch what he is doing, precisely as if he had a lot of stolen goods which he would dispose of secretly if not watched. They accuse him, in the newspapers and in speeches, of all sorts of offences—such as cruelty, injustice, breach of promise, falsehood, treachery—and urge his customers to punish his infamy by not purchasing his goods. Now there is, we venture to assert, not a Knight of Labor in the country, from Grand Master Workman Powderly down to the humblest Outside Esquire, who does not hold, or sanction, or in some manner countenance this view of the rights of "labor." No strike ever occurs in which they do not bolster up, by subscriptions or denunciations, the theory that the strikers have a right on their own terms to the places they have left, and that it is a fraud or grievous wrong of some kind for the employer to fill them with other people, and that the Legislature, or Congress, or the Railroad Commissioners, or Eternal Justice, or somebody ought to step in and prevent it.

We say unhesitatingly that as long as this doctrine is held and acted on by the labor organizations, strikes will continue to be what they are now, incipient or inchoate riots; and strikers, in a vast majority of cases, rioters waiting for a chance to commit violence. It is this doctrine which puts a large force of police on duty wherever a strike occurs, and which inflicts on us the shameful spectacle of public vehicles travelling with armed guards in the streets of a great city, like the diligences in old times in the mountains of Spain and Sicily.

Nor is there anything surprising about this. A very large proportion of the strikers in all trades are ignorant men. They are all poor men. To fill their minds with the idea that they have a right to be hired by another man, whether he wants them or not, and to stay in his service until they themselves choose to leave, and when they do leave to have the places kept vacant for them until they signify their readiness to come back—to fill their minds with this idea, and then expect them to look calmly on while the employer does what he pleases with their property, is expecting too much of human nature. Their state of mind under such circumstances is naturally and inevitably one of readiness for violence or proneness to violence. Every brickbat and loose paving-stone they see is a temptation to violence. The mere sight of the police enrages them, as representing force in the service of fraud. Until the trades-unions somehow or other get rid of this absurd and anti-social theory; until they extirpate it from their heads, books, papers, and documents, and take their stand simply as organizations of American business men with a commodity for sale, there will be little use in their protesting so much against the bombists. As long as they hold it they will wail in vain over the conduct of the wicked outsiders, who get up riots for the discredit of the strikers, while the strikers are in their halls studying political economy and thinking out the labor problem.

BOYCOTTING OF CHINAMEN ILLEGAL.

IT has been demonstrated upon the Atlantic Coast during the past few weeks that boycotting is a crime, to be punished by the laws of the land, like any other crime. While public attention in this part of the country has been engrossed by the boycotting of white citizens, the people of the Pacific Coast have been informed by high judicial authority that the boycotting of yellow aliens is also in violation of law. This decision has thus far, we believe, received no notice in the East, but the full text of the Judge's opinion shows that it merits the attention of the whole country.

Thomas Baldwin was brought upon a writ of habeas corpus before the United States Circuit Court for the Ninth Judicial Circuit, over which Lorenzo Sawyer presides, in the California District, District Judge Sabin sitting with the Circuit Judge. Baldwin had been arrested under a warrant issued by a United States Commissioner, upon the charge of conspiring with a number of other persons to deprive certain Chinese, who resided in the town of Nicolaus, Cal., but were not citizens of the United States, of their right to reside and pursue their lawful vocations in that town, and of actually depriving them of such right by forcibly expelling them from their homes and from the town, in pursuance of such conspiracy, thereby depriving them of their rights and privileges under the laws, and of the equal protection of the laws, guaranteed to them under our treaty with China. The charge was founded upon section 5519 of the Revised Statutes of the United States (commonly known as the Kuklux Act), which reads as follows, the portion applicable to this case being printed in italics:

> "*If two or more persons in any State or Territory conspire*, or go in disguise on the highway or on the premises of another, *for the purpose of depriving, either directly or indirectly, any person or class of persons of the equal protection of the laws, or of equal privileges and immunities under the laws;* or for the purpose of preventing or hindering the constituted authorities of any State or Territory from giving or securing to all persons within such State or Territory the equal protection of the laws; *each of such persons shall be punished by a fine of not less than* $500 *nor more than* $5,000, *or by imprisonment, with or without hard labor, not less than six months nor more than six years, or by both such fine and imprisonment.*"

Judge Sawyer declared that there could be no doubt that the acts charged were within the provisions of this section, and that, if the provisions, so far as they embrace Chinese aliens, were constitutional and valid, these acts constituted very grave offences against the United States. He therefore addressed himself to a careful and candid inquiry as to this question of constitutionality. The Supreme Court of the United States decided a few years ago that this section was unconstitutional and void so far as it applies to citizens of the United States within a State, in a case (brought under the Fourteenth Amendment) known as the Harris case; the Court holding that this Amendment was aimed only at *State* action, and did not apply to unlawful combinations of individual citizens against other citizens, acting wholly without color of law or authority of the State. The section was declared unconstitutional solely on this ground; the provisions of the Amendment authorizing appropriate legislation to enforce it being considered to extend no further than to protect the rights expressly provided for in the Amendment.

The California case stood upon an entirely different basis. The persons against whom the conspiracy was aimed were Chinese aliens, who did not rely upon the Fourteenth Amendment alone, or indeed at all, except so far as the right to enjoy all the privileges and immunities of citizens and the equal protection of the laws is implied from its provisions recognizing the rights, by protecting them from hostile State legislation. The Chinamen relied mainly upon other express provisions of the Constitution, especially that found in article 6, which says that "all treaties made or which shall be made under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land, and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws

of any State to the contrary notwithstanding"; and the provision in section 8 of article 1, that Congress "shall have power to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, *and all other powers* vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof."

It is thus obvious that whenever a treaty is ratified between the United States and any foreign nation it becomes the supreme law of the land, and that not only State laws, but even State constitutions, are subordinated to it. The Supreme Court has held that "rights and immunities created by or dependent upon the Constitution of the United States can be protected by Congress," and the rights and immunities guaranteed by the treaty with China are of course "dependent upon" the Constitutional provision regarding treaties quoted above, and consequently "can be protected by Congress." Baldwin's counsel had suggested that Chinese aliens on this principle would be better off than American citizens, but the Judge disposed of this claim very summarily. In the first place, he said, "it is presumed that the State will protect its own citizens, while long experience shows that it will not always protect foreigners against the prejudices and hatred of citizens"; but, in the second place, "whether the suggestion of counsel be true or not cannot affect the question, for the State has surrendered its power over the intercourse of its citizens with foreign nations to the national Government." The power to make treaties, and to grant rights within the States to aliens under treaties, involves necessarily the power to protect those rights, when granted, against the acts either of the States or of the citizens of the States. "There can be no doubt," said Judge Sawyer, "that making the violation of any rights so secured by the Constitution and treaties 'made under the authority of the United States' by a combination of individuals a criminal offence against the nation, and punishable as such, as is provided by section 5519, is a proper mode of protection."

By article 5 of the Burlingame treaty, "the United States and the Emperor [of China] cordially recognize the inherent and inalienable right of man to change his home and allegiance, and also the mutual advantage of the free migration and emigration of their citizens and subjects respectively, from the one country to the other, for the purposes of curiosity, of trade, or as permanent residents." Article 6 of the same treaty secures to Chinese residents "all privileges, immunities, and exemptions enjoyed by the citizens and subjects of the most favored nation." The amended treaty of 1880 adds the still more comprehensive word "rights" to the words "privileges, immunities, and exemptions," and expressly provides that "Chinese laborers who are now in the United States shall be allowed to go and come of their own free will and accord." Article 3 of the latter treaty is as follows:

"If Chinese laborers, or Chinese of any other class, now either permanently or temporarily residing in the territory of the United States, meet with ill-treatment *at the hands of any other persons*, the Government of the United States will exert all its power to devise measures for their protection, and to secure to them the same rights, privileges, immunities, and exemptions as may be enjoyed by the citizens or subjects of the most favored nation, and to which they are entitled by treaty."

What some of the rights thus secured by treaty to the Chinese are, will appear from an examination of the existing treaty with Great Britain, which provides that:

"The inhabitants of the two countries respectively shall have liberty freely and securely to come with their ships and cargoes to all such places, ports, and rivers in the territories aforesaid [of the United States and Great Britain] to which other foreigners are permitted to come, to enter into the same, and *to remain and reside in any parts of the said territories respectively.*"

Judge Sawyer proceeded to apply these principles to the case in hand, as follows:

"Thus the United States Government has, by these treaties, made in pursuance of the Constitution and under the authority of the United States, imposed upon itself the express obligation 'to exert all its power to devise means for their [Chinese residents'] protection,' and to secure them 'the *rights*, privileges, immunities, and exemptions' to which they are entitled where such Chinese residents 'meet with ill treatment *at the hands of any other persons*,' as well as in consequence of unfriendly legislation by the States. This right is not limited to State action, as the Fourteenth Amendment was held to be limited, but it is expressly extended to individual acts. Among those rights is the right to select a place for *temporary or permanent residence*, and to reside and pursue their lawful vocations at the places so selected. Proper means for protecting these rights certainly include the enacting of criminal laws for enforcing, protecting, and securing the rights guaranteed by the treaties made in pursuance of the provisions of the Constitution. These Chinese residents of Nicolaus therefore had rights arising under and dependent upon the Constitution of the United States and the treaties made in pursuance thereof between the United States and the Emperor of China, which were violated by the acts charged upon which the arrest was made, and rights which it was competent for Congress to protect by legislation in a proper form, under the clause cited, which authorizes it 'to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States or in any department thereof.' And it was its imperative duty to protect such rights."

Judge Sawyer held that the case of these Chinese alien residents of Nicolaus was clearly distinguishable from that of United States citizens arising under the Fourteenth Amendment, which was considered in the Harris case, and rested upon other and further provisions of the national Constitution. Very properly, however, he considered the questions "of too vast consequence to be finally determined by a subordinate court," and he therefore allowed a writ of error to the Supreme Court of the United States, releasing the prisoner on his own recognizance until such decision should be rendered, and expressing the hope that the question might be promptly decided.

MUST WE HAVE ANOTHER INDIAN WAR?

HARDLY have the Chiricahui-Apaches disappeared from our Southern frontier, where, for the second time in one year, they have outwitted over-confiding and over-confident General Crook, when a new speck of war is visible in the same quarter. The most powerful tribe in the Territories adjoining Mexico, the numerous, well-armed, and comparatively "wealthy" Navajos, are said to be encroaching on the poor settlers of the San Juan country, and ready to support their encroachments with all the terrors of Indian warfare. The newly confirmed executive head of the Territory of New Mexico is placing full faith and credence in these alarming reports. There are rumors of militia movements, of local mobilization. The possibility of an outbreak is not to be denied; but its likelihood depends on the action, not of the Indian, but of the whites and of the Territorial authorities. It might become a very serious, even a very disastrous affair, for the Navajos cannot be easily trifled with. They are too numerous, too well supplied with Winchesters and with fleet stock, and, should they go to war, they are too closely connected with the Apaches.

The Navajos or Din-ne are the main stock of that Athapascan branch of Indians, speaking dialects of the Tin-ne language, which has spread to the southward as far as northern Mexico, and has, ever since the memory of man, been the scourge of this region under the name of Apaches and of Navajos proper. They first appear as Querechos in 1584, being thus called by Antonio de Espejo. Again, in 1598, Juan de Oñate includes them, with their congeners, the Jicarillas, as Apaches of the Mountains. In 1630, Fray Alonzo de Benavides calls them Apaches of *Navajo*, defining this latter word to signify "extensive cultivated fields." The word "Apache," as Mr. Cushing has satisfactorily ascertained, is of Zuñi origin, and designates in the idiom of that tribe the Navajos as well as their Southern cousins. "Apachu" means an enemy of the roving kind, or less stable at least than the Pueblos.

The hereditary enmity of these Tin-ne tribes was, for the Pueblos, a source of constant dread, often of utter ruin. It was not so much direct attack, onslaught in force, as constant harassing, which worried the village Indian, and drove him finally from place to place. The Apaches were too shiftless for congregating into large bodies, the Navajos too busy at home. But small war parties of the latter vexed the Pueblos constantly, destroyed their crops, or hung around their fields in such a manner as to impede cultivation, and finally to compel removal. If the Pueblos went out into the Navajo country as invaders, it was an easy matter for their enemies to waylay and overpower them by superior numbers. Thus they almost completely exterminated the tribe of Jemez in the beginning of the seventeenth century.

Notwithstanding their persistent hostility towards the more sedentary Indians, the Navajos stood, when the Spaniards first became acquainted with them, on a higher level of culture than the Apaches proper. They were great land tillers, they lived in dwellings underground, and had sheds for their crops and stores besides. They also were much more numerous. Had they broken out and scattered like the Apaches, they would easily have wiped out the feeble sedentary tribes. But, even in the seventeenth century, the Navajos had too much at stake to become essentially shiftless and constantly aggressive. Before the arrival of the Spaniards they already raised crops; after the whites settled in their neighborhood they acquired flocks. The first step in that direction was made about 1627, through the Church. Once acquainted with the utility of sheep, horses, and cattle, the Navajos eagerly sought to increase their number. "Raising" was not fast enough for them; it was easier to prey upon their old enemies the Pueblos. The Spaniards defended the latter, as they were in

duty bound, and the result was, that the enmity of the Navajos became as bitter towards the whites as towards the village Indians proper. After the Spaniards had been driven out of New Mexico, the Navajos turned against the Pueblos alone.

The reconquest in 1692-94 inaugurated a system of Indian campaigns in defence of Pueblos and Spanish settlements. They achieved no reduction of the Navajos. On the contrary, as the colony, owing to the general weakening of Spain, grew more and more powerless, they became the aggressors and tormented it continuously, with few intervals of peace, even after the American annexation. The removal of the tribe from its original mountain-home to the hot and level district of the Bosque Redondo in 1865, threatened to check their agricultural tendencies. Since they were reinstated in their old domain in 1868, the present Navajo Reservation, they have always been peaceable as a tribe, and have in appearance made rapid progress. The fact is, that they merely returned to their original status of land-tilling aborigines, with the addition of more numerous herds of cattle, droves of sheep, and of better and finer horses. They irrigate to-day as they did formerly, they weave woollen blankets, and while some of them dwell in adobe houses, the majority still occupy the log-cabin, half dug-out, well known under the name of *ho-gan*. The Navajos, in addition, have money; they are the wealthiest tribe of the Southwest. At peace with their surroundings, the Navajos are yet prepared for war. Excellent fire-arms are plentiful among them, and so is ammunition. Unruly boys, criminals, have sometimes taken an active part in the depredations of their cousins the Apaches, but the tribe at large has never countenanced such excesses. Well prepared for the defensive, the offensive is distasteful to them because it would be ruinous to their interests and prosperity.

The reservation occupies a part of northwestern New Mexico and of northeastern Arizona, covering an area of about 2,100 square miles in each Territory. It is a cold mountain region, profusely covered with snow until late in the spring; its fertile valleys are adapted to agriculture. The northeastern corner, watered by the Rio San Juan, contains arable and irrigable tracts, and it is there that the trouble has arisen which, it is muttered, might culminate in a Navajo war. The truth of the matter is, that there are difficulties brewing between the Indians and whites in the San Juan country. But the latter, not the Navajos, have been and still are the aggressors. For some time past, American squatters have recklessly crossed the borders of the reservations, and "entered" and preëmpted lands. This is a clear and ruthless violation of the rights of the Navajos. There are instances where whites have squatted on ground actually used and cultivated by the Indians, seized their irrigating ditches, and appropriated the water therein to the detriment of the owners. These legitimate owners, the Navajos, have protested, civilly and kindly, but without avail. The American intruders have simply stuck, deaf to all remonstrances, to all entreaties. It is simply another instance of that outrageous and brutal process of crowding out, so famous and often so successful (with weaker and less permanently located tribes) in our intercourse with aboriginal populations.

It is said that the Governor of New Mexico sympathizes with the white trespassers to the extent of inclining toward affording them the aid of the Territorial militia, for the purpose of dispossessing the Navajos forcibly. This would be a most ill-advised move. The Indians are clearly in the right, and as yet stand on the defensive. Should they be attacked, they can bring to bear upon their assailants, in case of need, about five thousand warriors, able-bodied men, inured to hardships of every kind, and thoroughly up to every expedient of Indian strategy and tactics. Such a body of men, fighting for their homes, are more than a match for the bulk of Territorial militia. The Navajos are desirous of avoiding war. They have suffered and still suffer, rather than expose themselves to the effects of a collision. But the situation is gradually becoming unbearable to them, and they may at last resort to violence against the intruders, as they have a perfect right to do. A Navajo war would be the direst calamity which could befall New Mexico as well as Arizona. Should the whole tribe rise, then the Apaches are likely to follow suit, and then—? If Gerónimo, with his band of not over fifty, could create such a disturbance, how much damage will seven to eight thousand of the same kind create? In the end they would be conquered, but at what a fearful cost of life and property! Instead of upholding the claims of trespassing and law-breaking whites (so far as settlement on Navajo lands is concerned), the proper thing to do is to restrain these intruders, compel them to respect the rights of their Indian neighbors, and to let the Navajos severely alone.

THE "CHATTERBOX" TRADE-MARK CASES.

DURING the recent hearing before the Senate Committee on Patents upon the copyright bills, Mr. Dana Estes, of the Boston firm of Estes & Lauriat, made the statement that he was the publisher of the "only foreign book that ever had the benefit of the protection of American law." "By a series of accidents, perhaps, and perhaps some skill," he continued, "I have the right under American law—not statute law, but common law—of publishing the book I hold in my hand in this country." No doubt some of Mr. Estes's hearers received the impression from the above statement that the privilege he boasted of enjoying was due to a common-law right of literary property, and he failed to explain, as he might have done, that his protection was due to the law of trade-marks, and, therefore, in reality it was not his book which was secured to him at all, but only a trade-mark property in its title. The history of the publication in this country of the book referred to, the well-known *Chatterbox*, is not without interest, and, as related by Mr. Estes when before the Committee, may be summarized as follows:

The volume was first published in England as far back as 1868, the intention being by a careful and judicious selection of wholesome reading matter, made more interesting by well-executed illustrations, to furnish a substitute for the vicious cheap literature so freely circulated in England, corresponding to the wretched dime-novel of this country. The book became popular and began to be imported into this country, selling, at wholesale, for from seventy-five to ninety cents. Mr. Estes imported a number of copies in 1878, and, having disposed of them, found himself unable to obtain any more from the publisher, upon which he manufactured and issued an edition of 20,000 copies. He called the publisher's attention to this transaction, and proposed to him that if he would send over his stereotyped plates and authorize the American edition, the publisher of the latter would allow him threepence a copy for all sold in this country. This proposition was not immediately acceded to, and in 1879 a second American edition was published; but in 1880, Mr. James Johnston, the English publisher, according to Mr. Estes, assigned to the latter "all his rights and title in America to not only the book, but, as I required him, to the trade-mark of the word 'Chatterbox.'" This assignment, we learn from another source, was for a term of ten years from January 1, 1880. From that date Estes & Lauriat have yearly issued an authorized American edition of this popular book, which, according to the publishers' statement, has numbered from 50,000 to 100,000 copies, requiring an average use of 100 tons of American paper annually; and, although the wholesale prices have been reduced to from forty to sixty cents, and the English copyright and trade-mark proprietor has been paid out of the profits a royalty of from $3,000 to $5,000 per annum, a "good, handsome residue" has remained for the American publisher. The fact, according to this statement, that the only foreign book which has been protected from infringement by our courts has, since such protection, been sold for about two-thirds of the price obtained previously when it was subject to competition with other reprinted editions, should go far to assure those who have had fears that an international-copyright law would, of necessity, increase the price of foreign books.

But the example originally set by Mr. Estes of reprinting the work without authorization was followed by others whom he facetiously calls the "ubiquitous pirates," though he took pains especially to disclaim this appellation for himself. These reprints were also, no doubt, profitable; at any rate the publishers of them do not seem to have been willing peaceably to discontinue publication, whereupon suits were brought against them in the Federal courts. The first of these which we find reported—Estes and others vs. Williams and others (21 Federal Reporter, 189-190)—was decided in the Circuit Court for the Southern District of New York, July 31, 1884. The claim made by the defendants in this case was that, there being no American copyright to prevent, the defendants might print and publish the book in this country, and that if they had not the right to do so, at least the plaintiffs had no right to prevent them. Justice Wheeler held that

"There is no question but that the defendants have the right to reprint the compositions and illustrations contained in these books, including the titles of the several pieces and pictures. . . . That does not settle the question as to the right claimed here. There is work in these publications aside from the ideas and conceptions. Johnston was not the writer of the articles nor the designer of the pictures composing the books, but he brought them out in this form. The name indicates this work. The defendants, by putting this name to their work in bringing out the same style of book, indicate that their work is his. This renders his work less remunerative, and, while continued, is a continuing injury which it is the peculiar province of a court of equity to prevent. . . . Johnston had the exclusive right to put his own work, as his own, upon the markets of the world. No one else had the right to represent that other work was his; not the right to prevent the copying of his, and putting the work upon the markets, but the right to be free from untrue representations that this other work was his when put upon the markets. This gives him nothing but the fair enjoyment of the just reputation of his own work, which fully be-

longs to him. It deprives others of nothing that belongs to them."

Considering next the question of the transfer of Johnston's right to the plaintiffs, the Court held that as he had the right to put his work upon the market as his, there was no apparent reason why he could not give the plaintiffs the right to put his work upon the market as his. To the objection made that the plaintiffs also trespassed upon Johnston's rights before they acquired them, the Judge answered, that if true they might be liable for the damages, but that such a trespass would not prevent them from acquiring a lawful right in a lawful manner. A decree for an injunction and an account was rendered.

A second case—Estes and others *vs.* Worthington—was decided in the Circuit Court for the Southern District of New York, January 5, 1885, and reported in 22 Federal Reporter, 822-823. Judge Wallace held that the validity of the complainant's title to a trade-mark in the word "Chatterbox" was established by the decision referred to above and was not open to controversy. But this suit was brought upon a motion for a preliminary injunction and was controverted upon the ground of laches, and this defence was sustained by the opinion of the Court:

"The only doubt as to the complainants' right to a preliminary injunction is suggested by the fact that the various publishers of such books since 1876 have been permitted without prosecution to apply the word to their publication of juvenile books in this country, and have used it as a trade-mark in hostility to the real proprietors; and among them were the complainants themselves, who did so for two or three years before they purchased the right of Johnston. Laches in prosecuting infringers has always been recognized as a sufficient reason for denying a preliminary injunction. . . . Where, as in this instance, the extensive use of the trade-mark by others with the implied acquiescence of the owner has contributed to give a reputation and create a demand for the article to which it has been applied which it would not otherwise have acquired, equity should not by any stringent intervention assist the owner to secure these fruits. The complainants do not occupy a position that commends them to a court of equity, because they seem to have refused to recognize the rights of Johnston, the original proprietor of the trade-mark, until they thought it would be more profitable to purchase his rights in this country and obtain a monopoly here in the use of the trade-mark."

The motion for a preliminary injunction was denied. A third suit, against Frank Leslie, the American News Company, and Patrick Farrelly, was decided by Judge Wheeler (United States Circuit Court for the Southern District of New York), April 8, 1886. The defence of laches was attempted in this suit also, but Judge Wheeler held that Johnston, the original proprietor, had vindicated his right as often as it was invaded to his knowledge up to 1880, when he transferred it to the plaintiffs, Estes & Lauriat, who since then have continually asserted it in one way or another. In this case the book defended seems to have been an independent American compilation of selections and illustrations, but imitating in form, style, and binding the original work, the most important difference being that instead of the simple title *Chatterbox* it was called *Frank Leslie's Chatterbox*, which, however, the Judge held, appeared to be done, "for the purpose of adding the reputation of Frank Leslie and of that publishing house to that of the *Chatterbox* rather than for that of building up a new reputation under that name. If nothing had been wanted of the popularity which had been acquired under it, and which it stood for, it could have been left and another name taken to build up."

A decree was rendered for an injunction and an account, with costs. A similar decree was granted by Judge Shipman, April 19, in a suit brought in the same court, against Belford, Clarke & Co., of Chicago.

HOME RULE.—OUTLOOK FOR THE SECOND READING.

London, May 1.

The "so called holidays" are drawing to a close, and the party managers are counting up their losses and gains, with a view to the approaching struggle over the Irish Government Bill. Forty-one Liberal members of the House of Commons have declared against the bill; twenty or thirty more are understood to be hostile. These members represent a serious defection; but the eighty-six Irish votes will make up for all deficiencies, and the Government whips count on obtaining a majority of not less than ten for the second reading. It is quite impossible to say what may happen when the bill gets into committee. Mr. Morley anxiously assures his Liberal critics that the bill is not made of cast-iron; all reasonable amendments will be carefully considered. But the worst of it is, that the chief amendments already suggested are dangerous to the measure whether they are accepted or refused. If, for example, the Irish members are retained at Westminster, we lose the one argument for the bill which has most effect on the opinion of the British working classes, the argument on which Mr. Morley himself has consistently relied. If, on the other hand, the Government insists on the clauses which exclude the Irish members, they will almost be driven to admit that the bill is an instalment of separation. Mr. Justice Stephen, whose judicial dignity has not prevented him from taking an active part in this controversy, notes with malign satisfaction that the arguments for and against exclusion are equally conclusive and equally fatal to Mr. Gladstone's schemes. Again, it is tolerably plain that when the financial clauses of the bill are under discussion, Mr. Parnell will be compelled by Irish opinion to ask for better terms. If this demand is refused, it will be vain to pretend that the Irish have accepted the bill as a final settlement. But, on the other hand, it is not easy to make any further concession to Ireland without doing manifest injustice to the British taxpayer.

In spite of the activity displayed on both sides, the debate of the vacation has been characterized by a certain air of unreality. Nobody defends the two Irish bills as they stand; nobody expects them to pass. They are treated as a mere draft or sketch, subject to indefinite alteration; and Mr. Morley has gone so far as to contend that there is nothing to prevent Mr. Chamberlain from voting for the second reading of the Government bill. On the other side, the opponents of the two bills are almost equally vague. Mr. Chamberlain is "not irreconcilable." Even Lord Hartington has made one or two movements which lead people to think that he is beginning to swing round slowly with the tide. Among the Conservatives there is also a good deal of "fencing and skirmishing." Lord Iddesleigh and Sir Michael Hicks-Beach are put forward to make regulation speeches in defence of the Union, but Lord Randolph Churchill is unusually silent. The time may come when a Conservative leader will be wanted who can deal with home rule and land purchase on lines of his own. In Ireland itself things have been kept very quiet. Mr. Parnell and his friends are playing a somewhat delicate game, and a few imprudent speeches might do much to imperil the success which they have achieved. They must not show themselves too eager to accept Mr. Gladstone's offer; if they did so, they would come into collision with Mr. Davitt and other leaders of Irish opinion who regard this bill as a mere instalment of their rights. But the Parnellites must not be too free in pointing out the deficiencies of the bill; if they took this line, they would play into the hands of those British politicians who contest Mr. Gladstone's statement that his measure possesses the advantage of finality. Mr. Parnell occupies his usual position: he accepts all that Parliament will give, and reserves his right to ask for more.

If the Prime Minister can succeed in piloting his Irish Government Bill through the Commons, it will be amusing to watch its reception in the Upper House. Beyond the members of the Government there are probably not six Lords of Parliament who will vote for any measure of home rule. Lord Spencer's support has been immensely useful to Mr. Gladstone in the way of conciliating moderate Liberals generally, but even Lord Spencer will produce but little effect on the closed ranks of his own order. The ex-Ministers among the Liberal peers are the most intractable opponents of the Government. We look forward to one of those full-dress debates in which the Lords put forth all their powers, but the debating will be almost all on one side. Lord Granville will stand aside, in a politely sarcastic attitude, while his noble friends behind him—Argyll, and Selborne, and Derby, and Sherbrooke, and Grey—march up and down over the ruins of the bill. How will this demonstration affect the position of the House of Lords? That depends on the event of the next general election; and that again depends on forces which we are not yet in a position to estimate. If the Government went to the country to-morrow, I think it probable that their majority would be seriously reduced. There is no active enthusiasm about home rule, unless in the North of England, and even there the personal influence of Mr. Gladstone counts for more than the merits of his scheme. There is a very active dislike of home rule, and this feeling will be strong enough to deprive the Liberals of many good workers, and to turn the balance against them in many doubtful constituencies. At the last election the choice of candidates led to domestic difficulties in many places; at the next election the same difficulties will recur on a wider scale and in a more aggravated form. The Gladstonian section of the party will of course endeavor to get rid of every candidate who will not pledge himself to home rule; the Unionists will retaliate by refusing to work for any candidate who is not pledged against it.

We have already had a foretaste of these difficulties in the amusing quarrel which has taken place at Burnley. That stronghold of Lancashire Liberalism has been most faithful in its support of Mr. Peter Rylands, an unimpeachable Radical of the economical school. But Mr. Rylands will not hear of tampering with the Union; nor will he consent to lend either 50 or 150 millions sterling to any Irish Government whatever. Therefore he is, for the moment, under a cloud, and 3,000 of his supporters have been to Hawarden, to picnic under the trees and to demonstrate in favor of Mr. Gladstone. The Burnley Conservatives are delighted, and swear they will vote for Mr. Rylands to a man; but whether they will help him by doing so remains to be seen. Another comedy of the same kind has been presented in Edinburgh. The present Home Secretary, Mr. Childers, was returned for the southern division of the city by the Moderate Liberal vote, in spite of a strong Radical protest. Now the Whigs are dismayed to find themselves represented by a member of this home-rule Government, while the Radicals are coming round and would like Mr. Childers to give them an address on the beauties of Mr. Gladstone's Irish policy.

Our immediate prospects, then, are far from cheering. Until this question is disposed of, no other political work can be put in hand; and it

can be disposed of only in two ways: either we must have a measure of home rule strong enough to pacify Irish opinion and relieve the pressure of Irish affairs on Parliament, or we must have a British party strong enough to be completely independent of the Parnellite vote. There is no chance at present of the Conservatives obtaining a majority over Liberals and Parnellites combined. There is no chance of the Liberals obtaining a majority over Conservatives and Parnellites combined, unless they can make up their minds to a definite programme and unite all the sections of Liberalism in support of it. But how is this union to be attained? Organization has been tried, on models borrowed, or supposed to be borrowed, from America. But the caucus has never worked quite successfully in England. The decisive vote in our elections is the vote of the people who object to be identified with associations and committees; and a single imprudent turn of the screw will send a great body of wavering opinion in some unexpected direction. Perhaps, then, if we wish to see our great parties united on definite principles, we must listen to the advice of Mr. Matthew Arnold, and begin to educate the mind of the British Philistine.

This will no doubt be a slow process, as Mr. Arnold's own fate seems to show. For the last quarter of a century he has been mildly reproaching us with our ignorance, and we have received his reproaches with stolid calm. And now he is writing in the *Nineteenth Century* to assure us that, whatever our Irish policy may be, we are doomed to failure; that Mr. Gladstone is no statesman, and that we never should have taken him for a statesman if it had not been for our total want of culture. It may be feared that this protest will fall as flat as the protest of Professor Huxley. Mr. Arnold's oracle will be accepted by the cultured persons who need no repentance. But then they do not need to be told that Mr. Gladstone is no statesman; they all think so already. The uncultured elector will believe in his leaders much as before; and the oracle is perhaps not so precise as we could wish in showing how this state of things can be altered for the better. R.

ITALY.—THE GENERAL ELECTIONS.

BOLOGNA, April 28, 1886.

AT last Signor Depretis has decided "on obtaining permission from the King to dissolve the Chambers and appeal to the country," or, to speak correctly, he has been compelled to do so by the House, the country, and the King. For the last four months anarchy has reigned supreme in the Chamber of Deputies, where from the commencement of the present Legislature there has never been a clear line of demarcation between the Ministerial party and the Opposition. In the famous programme of Stradella, Depretis, an "old parliamentary hand," and at one time prominent among the members of the Liberal party in Piedmont, promised the country a perfect Eldorado of progress if they would send up deputies to support his policy. In 1861, that is to say before Venice was freed from the Austrians, or Rome capital of Italy, in a population of twenty-one millions and a-half there were less than half a million of electors. At the last census, in 1880, the population amounted to twenty-eight and a-half millions, and the electors to 621,000. In 1882, after the extension of the suffrage, the electors amounted to 2,000,000, but of these only 1,223,000 went to the polls. These, however, gave Depretis his desired majority, whereupon he immediately turned his back on the radical Liberals and attempted "to transform the parties," and, on the principle of the eclectics, "pick and choose certain deputies and groups of deputies out of the old Moderate and the Moderate Liberal factions." Now, as the Moderates had ruled the country exclusively between the years 1860 and 1876, and were beaten along all the line in the latter year by the Party of Progress, as they styled themselves, and as, after the death of Rattazzi, Depretis was chosen head of that party, this proceeding was regarded as most unfair and out of order. Naturally, the Moderates, who saw no chance of seizing the reins afresh, were enchanted, but as Signor Bonghi, a pillar of the Moderate party, explains in a very clever article in the *Nuova Antologia* for April, entitled, "The Situation of the Country and the Elections," the man was not adapted to the work, and many of his colleagues in the Ministry were entirely opposed to it; hence we have had a series of what are called partial crises, Ministerial stews—the Premier trying to conciliate now this fraction, now that, and ending by discontenting all of them.

He had promised a thorough social reform throughout the country. Nowhere is such reform so much needed. There is, for instance, a popular demand that the charitable institutions in Italy be reformed; that sixty-five per cent. of the annual income shall not be squandered in administration; that the accounts shall be made public; that the municipal councillors shall be the administrators; that the funds shall be spent for the poor and not for the rich. Depretis, like all his successors, has done nothing in this direction. So with the law on strikes, on preliminary imprisonment, the law that was to render masters responsible for accidents in manufactories, mines, etc. A very mild law to secure this responsibility passed in the House, but was wrecked in the Senate. Hence you have the entire class of workingmen and peasants in arms against the Government. There was likewise to be a reform in the communal and provincial laws. The representative of the Government, the prefect, is the head of the provincial council; all the municipal authorities depend upon him; his approval is necessary for their budgets. For instance, a town council votes a sum for a monument to Victor Emanuel, approved; for Garibaldi, for Mazzini, cancelled, if the prefect happens to be a *codino*. Nothing has been done. The penal code was to be reformed; no reform effected. In short, if we except the abolition of the forced paper circulation and of the grist-tax, counterbalanced by new taxes too numerous to mention, together with the equalization of the land tax, which has disgusted southern Italy and given very slight satisfaction in the north, no single act during the last three years has produced or promised any amelioration in the country.

Then, personally, Depretis has offended everybody, on the one hand by his arrogance, summed up in his favorite expression: *Piace a me e basta* (It is my pleasure, and that is enough); on the other, by his innate and ever-increasing hesitation of character—pledging himself to a line of policy to-day, thinking over it to-morrow, and acting in a precisely contrary direction. Curiously enough, in his famous programme of Stradella, in passing sentence on the Moderate party he dictated his own:

"The Moderate party," he said, "has become impotent to solve any great national questions; hence it discourages and discredits parliamentary institutions. The Ministers themselves see that their aim is not the aim of the nation, that they therefore cannot reach it by a straight path, are obliged to live haphazard, to occupy and tire out the House with petty laws and petty questions, to temporize, to live by makeshifts, by dint of partial changes in the Ministry, of frequent vacations, of interpellations got up by mutual consent, etc., etc. These petty tactics, by means of which the Moderates have dragged along their weary life for many years, will never be those adopted by myself or my colleagues. No, I proclaim it aloud, we mean to live well and die an honored death. Never will we allow the sentence, fatal above all to a ministry, to be applied to us: *propter vitam vivendi perdere causas*, which, freely translated, runs: 'Lower your flag, but save your skin.'"

This is precisely what the country accuses Depretis of doing. If only a year ago he had definitely resigned, declaring, as he now does, that he cannot secure a working majority, his Ministry might have died an honored death and he might have reappeared at the head of another ministry in some future Parliament. At present, his chances seem very slight indeed. In the south of Italy the ministerial phalanx has disappeared like snow-wreaths in thaw; the old constitutional associations, even the Monarchical Union of Naples, siding openly with the Opposition. The Minister of Justice, Tajani, was openly hissed at Lecce and Brindisi. There is a general impression abroad that the Italian finances are in a very bad state, that the pretended equilibrium between income and expenditure is a mere hoax, and that Signor Magliani's successor, when once the accounts are examined, will be very hard to find.

To fill up the measure of ministerial iniquity, the press and the public accuse the Government as the real culprit and author of the massacre of the Italian scientific expedition under Count Porro, which left Zeila on March 27. It is reported that all the members have been treacherously murdered by the Emir of Harrar in the Somali country. Up to the present moment nothing further is known since the receipt of a telegram from the Italian consul at Aden (April 25), which reported that the Emir of Harrar, after ordering that all the Europeans in his capital be put to death, attacked near Gildezza with 200 soldiers Count Porro's expedition and massacred the whole party; that he then proceeded to Gildezza, and captured the town, taking prisoners the Anglo-Egyptian garrison, which consisted of about a hundred men. When the fearful news reached Milan, Stanley, who was being lionized there, exclaimed: "It is only too possible!" The excitement is tremendous, as this fresh massacre follows on that of Giulietti, Bianchi, Diana, Monari.

The common feeling is, that the interests of scientific explorations have been sacrificed by the shilly-shallying foreign policy of the Italian Ministry, who got up their African expedition to call off public attention from the picking and stealing contract of the railway conventions. In December, 1885, the radical newspaper of Milan, the *Secolo*, sounded a note of alarm: "The new Minister for Foreign Affairs, Robilant, is bent upon a new African expedition, and is now trying to induce the Society for Commercial Exploration resident in Milan to pick the chestnuts out of the fire." In fact, an agent of the Government, Commendatore Colacci, came to Milan and confided to the Society that the Government intended to occupy Zeila, and that England was inclined to cede it; hence it was their intention to send out an expedition so as to prepare the way for a second, for the occupation of Harrar! Count Porro, who is about forty years of age, son of the famous Milanese patriot and conspirator of 1821, went to Rome and received from the Government muskets, ammunition, and a sum of money, Count Robilant, however, saying: "I neither do nor do not advise an expedition to Zeila and Harrar, but should Italian interests be furthered by such an expedition, the Government will intervene to protect them." Count Porro returned to Milan full of hope. Himself a military man, he induced several officers to accompany him. It was remarked at the time that he embarked at Naples on the same day, the 26th of January, and in the same steamer, *Domenico Balduino*, as did the fated Bianchi the year before. On arriving at Aden the English Consul

said to Count Porro: "Do you call this a commercial expedition? You have too many military men, too many arms; you will never pass. What is it you mean to do in Africa?" "To facilitate our commerce and find for it new and shorter paths." "With soldiers, with muskets, and chests of ammunition?" asked the Consul, and, dwelling upon the increasing agitation in Harrar, he advised Porro to return to Massowah. Fifteen days later Porro returned and agreed to confine the expedition to a very few persons, the Consul offering to escort them up to Gildezza, but no further. Porro, with Count Coccastelli, Dr. Gottardi, Prof. Licata, Bianchi, Romagnoli, Zanini, and two servants, started; the rest of the expedition returned to Italy. Italian correspondents at Aden continued to comment upon the extreme risks, and on the hatred, amounting to fanaticism, of the Emir, and Porro himself wrote: "The Emir of Harrar is a greater fanatic than his predecessors. He insists upon all the population of Galla becoming Mohammedans. He has 300 Remington muskets and two mountain pieces (Krupp), which the English left him when they caused the Egyptian garrison to evacuate. When he goes out for a *chase*, he takes about two-thirds of his armed men, chiefly Somali, leaving the remainder to guard the capital." Porro was exceedingly annoyed because the English Consul would reduce the numbers of the expedition, but Mr. Hunter was firm, and to him it is now really owing that the men, if all are massacred, are 9 only, instead of 168.

Every one is, of course, clamoring for the Government "to do something," and the report is that the Government is waiting to know what England will allow Italy to do. Stanley, on being asked what could be done, made answer: "Does your Government mean to send out an armed expedition? This will take a large sum of money and a quantity of soldiers; and, first of all, you must have England's permission, even if you occupy Harrar. England is still mistress of the port, which is Zeila." On being told that, though the expedition had been assisted by the Government, it was not an official expedition, "Then," he replied, "if you don't mean to go to war, register this catastrophe as a page of experience, and learn that Africa is not the country in which to commit imprudences." Most sensible advice assuredly, and, after the conduct of the English Consul, Count Porro must be reckoned among the "imprudent"; but this does not exempt the Italian Government from an immense responsibility. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

EXCOMMUNICATION IN THE METHODIST CHURCH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In *Nation*, No. 1084, a question is asked about the published threat of Rev. S. Dimmick, that his members "will have to leave the church if they sign a petition for license," and its relation to Roman Catholic excommunication. If the question should not be sufficiently answered before this letter reaches you, I would like to reply that a marked difference between the cases exists in this, that, in the Roman Catholic Church, excommunication does sometimes occur and is effective, while in the Methodist Episcopal Church, to which Mr. Dimmick professes to belong, the sort of expulsion which he threatens, in a certain contingency, to visit upon the members of his church, is altogether impossible.

If the author of this notion should ever proceed against any of his members to expel them, he would find that they enjoy all the essential rights of trial by jury. The fault in question is classified, in the law of the Methodist Episcopal Church, under "Imprudent and Unchristian Conduct," for which specific procedure is laid down. For the first offence of which notice is taken, the preacher may administer private reproof. On a second offence, he may take one or two discreet members of the church to witness the remonstrance. "On a third offence let him be brought to trial."

So it is not for the pastor to say, before the trial, who "will have to leave the church"; but then, prohibitionists must be indiscreet.

W. C. Sawyer.

Dresden, Saxony, April 23, 1886.

PARTIAL VETOING OF APPROPRIATION BILLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In relation to your editorial article in the last number upon separate vetoes of appropriation bills, the case is even stronger than you state it. There are no less than fifteen States which have incorporated this principle in their Constitutions, viz., New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Minnesota, Nebraska, West Virginia, Missouri, Arkansas, Texas, California, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Florida, and Louisiana. See sec. 310 of my work on 'American Statute Law.'—Faithfully yours,

F. J. Stimson.

31 W. 17th St., May 4, 1886.

THE FRENCH CODE ON BOYCOTTING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps it may be of some interest to your readers (as an addition to your quotation from the French "Code Pénal") to look into the following decisions of the "Cour de Cassation," which give a definitive and binding interpretation of articles 414 and 415 of said Code.

(*a.*) Law, though recognizing the right of coalition, punishes any interference with the free exercise of industry or labor, which manifests itself by threats of interdiction, uttered either against a proscribed workman or employer, or against the workmen who choose to remain in the same workshop.

Is to be considered as an accomplice any person who, in execution of a plan contrived beforehand, watches the doings of the proscribed workman, and gives information in order to insure the success of such measures of interdiction.

There is an implied threat in any written order, given in the name of the association or its members, to leave the workshop where the interdicted workman is employed. (Cass.—April 5, 1867.)

(*b.*) The Central Committee, acting and taking resolutions in the name of the striking workmen, whenever its members refuse to such as wish to withdraw (from the strike) permission to work, is guilty of unlawful interference with the free exercise of labor. (Cass.—Feb. 23, 1886.)

(*c.*) The fact that workmen demand from their employer, by threatening to desert his workshop if he refuses, the dismissal of another workman, is rightly considered as unlawful interference with the free exercise of industry and labor, when it is the outcome of a plan contrived beforehand to deprive of access to the workshop such workmen as refuse to enter the union, and accept labor from firms boycotted by said union (*mises par elle en interdit*). (Cass.—August 28, 1873.)

Please remark that the last decision was pronounced under a Republican administration. I must add, though, that in the present labor troubles at Decazeville the Government's attitude has lately been stamped with lamentable uncertainty, and that its alternative *coups de force* and hesitations have demonstrated, *a contrario*, how much immediate and decisive, but *consistent*, action is desirable in such emergencies. The manacles on Roche's and Duc-Quercy's wrists were, it seems, a useless and therefore dangerous display, but the meek submission to Basly's impudence is suicidal indeed!

Such reflections and examples are perhaps not out of season, at a time when true friends of the United States have to deplore the fact that Hyndman, the noted English Socialist, praises President Cleveland's message as "admirable." Ought not this eulogy, coming from such a quarter, to remind the eminent Chief of the Executive of old Laocoön's cautious motto: "Timeo Danaos et dona ferentes"? A. Du Four.

Charlotte, N. C., May 8, 1886.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE KNIGHTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A pamphlet of 78 pp., called the 'Constitution of the General Assembly, District Assemblies, and Local Assemblies of the Order of the Knights of Labor of America'—first adopted at Reading, Pa., January 1-4, 1878, revised at various places, and finally at Philadelphia, September 1-10, 1884—throws rather more light on the aims and methods of the organization than has been elicited by the Congressional Investigating Committee from Mr. Powderly and his fellow-witnesses.

The preamble of three pages gives, as the reason for forming the order, "the alarming development and aggressiveness of great capitalists and corporations, which, unless checked, will inevitably lead to the pauperization and hopeless degradation of the toiling masses," and says "it is imperative, if we desire to enjoy the full blessings of life, that a check be placed upon unjust accumulation and the power for evil of aggregated wealth."

The order of Knights of Labor is formed, 1st, "To make industrial and moral worth, not wealth, the true standard of individual and national greatness"; 2d, "To secure to the workers the full enjoyment of the wealth they create, sufficient leisure in which to develop their intellectual, moral, and social faculties; all of the benefits, recreation, and pleasures of association—in a word, to enable them to share the gains and honors of advancing civilization."

In order to secure these results, the Knights "demand of the State" thirteen different things, among which are: "the recognition, by incorporation, of trades-unions, orders, and such other associations as may be organized by the working masses to improve their condition and protect their rights"; "the abolition of the contract system on national, State, and municipal works"; "the enaction of laws providing for arbitration between employers and employed, and to enforce the decision of the arbitrators"; "to prohibit the hiring out of convict labor"; "that a graduated income tax should be levied."

These are followed by five "demands on Congress," which provide for the abolition of all existing banking systems, and "that all money shall be issued in necessary quantity direct to the people" by the Government; "that no interest-bearing bonds, bills of credit, or notes shall ever be issued by the Government, but that in case of need the emergency shall be met by issue of legal-tender, non-interest-bearing money." It is also "demanded" that the Government shall "organize financial exchanges, safe deposits, and facilities for the deposit of the people in small sums"; also, that the "Government shall obtain possession by purchase, under the right of eminent domain, of all telegraphs, telephones, and railroads, and that hereafter no charter or license be issued to any corporation for construction or operation of any means of transporting *intelligence, passengers, or freight.*"

All of these, with some minor "demands," one might think, would constitute changes in the existing order of things radical enough to justify less peremptoriness in dealing with the general and State Governments, but the arrogant tone of the organization has been uniform in its relations to its own members, the vast number of workingmen outside, the employers, and the state.

The remainder of the "Preamble" is as follows:

"And while making the foregoing demands on the State and National Government, we will endeavor to associate our own labors—

"XIX. To establish coöperative institutions such as will tend to supersede the wage system by the introduction of a coöperative industrial system.

"XX. To secure for both sexes equal pay for equal work.

"XXI. To shorten the hours of labor by a general refusal to work for more than eight hours.

"XXII. To persuade employers to agree to arbitrate all differences which may arise between them and their employees, in order that the bonds of sympathy between them may be strengthened, and that strikes may be rendered unnecessary."

The chief mode of "persuasion," except, indeed, that of destroying the property of their employers, and beating, maiming, and killing such of their fellow-workingmen as do not agree with them, is the boycott, and in the cases where employers have been thus "persuaded" it is doubtful if "the bonds of sympathy" have been greatly strengthened. A prisoner in Delaware was asked by a visitor how he came to be confined. He answered, "I was sent here because a man gave me a gold watch." Curiosity led the questioner to ask the reason of such an apparently strange action on the part of the authorities, and he at last worried out of the convict that he was obliged to knock down the owner of the watch and pound him for some time before he would consent to make the present. A process very like this is now being actively carried on by the Knights, in a few recent instances happily terminating like the one above narrated.

The "arbitration of all differences between workingmen and their employers" would be as fatal a blow to the industries of this country as the adoption of any of the vagaries of Mr. Powderly and his friends. It would inevitably lead to a sacrifice of independence of action without which nobody otherwise competent could successfully conduct business operations. No man would be willing to invest his capital in enterprises in which his loss or profit was dependent, not on his own ability, but on the caprice of a board of arbitrators which, even under the most favorable circumstances, could not be expected to be familiar with the details and condition of his affairs. That any such board should have the power to tell a manufacturer that he must pay a certain price for a certain service, irrespective of what he can get it for; or employ ten men on a job which he thinks eight can do; or discharge certain of his workmen because they don't belong to trades-unions aiming at his existence, is a proposition that can only come from men bent on the destruction of accumulated wealth, and be supported by those ignorant of the first principles of business administration, or political demagogues willing to lend themselves to any action which may bring them votes. We might better have such of the amendments to the Constitution of the United States as Mr. Powderly kindly offers to furnish, if they should be adopted.

It will be seen by sec. 21 that there is an agreement among the Knights of Labor to "shorten the hours of labor by a general refusal to work more than eight hours." Mr. Powderly keeps on saying that it is not time yet for any eight-hour movement, and that he disapproves of it. Why, then, does this pledge, to which all of his dupes bind themselves, still remain in the "Constitution"? He is the head of the "General Assembly." "This General Assembly has full and final jurisdiction, and is the highest tribunal of the order of the Knights of Labor. It alone possesses the power and authority to make, amend, or repeal the fundamental and general laws and regulations of the order." "It can also tax the members of the order for its maintenance." If Mr. Powderly has the substance of the power given him by the Constitution of the Knights of Labor, he could have saved the country millions of dollars, and the laboring classes untold misery, by exercising it in accordance with the majority of his utterances. If he has no real authority, and the head of his organization (for it must have one somewhere) is not on his shoulders, he is, instead of a designing and crafty scoundrel, a figurehead to divert suspicion from the hidden machinations of abler villains until their ends are obtained. He is probably the Gammon of the concern—working for the same purposes as the others. Should a general uprising take place against the tyranny and outrages of the Knights, and destruction threaten them, then Mr. Powderly will step forward to arrest the blow by referring to his own moderation and conservatism as expressed on every possible recent occasion, forgetting his early utterances, when his prospects were fairer, and he spoke of boycotting as a weapon to be used very gingerly, or his letter to Mr. Gould wherein for once he loses his temper and betrays his real animus, after the manner of an enraged virago. Now, it is safe to say, he abhors boycotts and deprecates strikes. On the other hand, should the spirit of liberty and patriotism be so degraded and deadened as to be unable to cast from us this incubus, and the American people be finally brought to the condition of servitude contemplated by the Knights of Labor, then Mr. Powderly will rise up at the grand division of spoils and claim the lion's share as his reward.

To return to the "Constitution." The duties and powers of the General Assembly and of its officers are very fully set forth in forty-five pages of the pamphlet. Then follows the Constitution for District Assemblies, which are each composed of duly accredited delegates from at least five local Assemblies. The officers of a District Assembly consist of a master workman, worthy foreman, recording secretary, financial secretary, treasurer, and statistician, inside esquire, outside esquire, and venerable sage. The local Assemblies have, in addition to this list, an almoner, insurance solicitor, and an "Unknown Knight." There are many allusions to the "secret work," pass-words, signs, etc., of the organization, and the money contributions are most thoroughly provided for. Travelling cards and the annual travelling pass-word are given to such of the members as desire to travel. To get these they must be in good standing and have all dues paid up. Some of these cards were found on the captured rioting Third Avenue horse-car strikers of late. There are several provisions as to eligibility for membership: "No person who either sells or makes a living or any part of it by the sale of intoxicating drink, either as a manufacturer, dealer, or agent, or through any member of the family, can be admitted to membership in this order"*; and "no lawyer, banker, professional gambler, or stock broker can be admitted." These are the only limitations mentioned, except that "three-quarters in number of any local Assembly must be wage-workers or farmers, and this proportion must be maintained for all time," and nobody under sixteen years of age can be a member. Each local Assembly fixes the charge for initiation, but in no case can it be less than $1 for men and 50 cents for women. More can also be charged for a skilled mechanic than a laborer. Under the head of "Discussions" it is provided that each local Assembly shall devote not less than ten minutes or "more than an hour of each regular session thereof to the discussion of subjects bearing upon the labor question, such as 'Convict labor,' 'Eight hours,' 'Child labor,' 'How can the toiler receive a just share of the wealth he creates?' etc."

While there is an element of good in the pamphlet, the purpose of its designers is but thinly veiled, and is to foment and encourage among the laboring classes a feeling of discontent and antipathy toward all who have succeeded better in the race of life than they, which feeling can be utilized, through the power of a compact and manageable oath-bound organization, to destroy existing social institutions and give us a taste of the scenes of the French Revolution. The time is past for business men to affect an esteem for Mr. Powderly or the Knights of Labor. Either they, in anything like their existing form, or else the principles of American liberty, must go to the wall, and it will be, in the end, a mercy to the rank and file of the order to make their abandonment of it a condition of employment. It is no more than a wise precaution on the part of employers to decline the services of men sworn to obey without question any command that may be given them by an order which has shown itself hostile to every organized industry, and whose leaders flourish only in times of business and industrial distress. D. S.

Brooklyn, May 4, 1886.

* This provision is evaded in the case of brewers, bartenders, etc., by taking their money and giving them cards and the substance of membership without the name.

THE KENTUCKY RESOLUTIONS OF '98.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It having been satisfactorily ascertained that the genuine text of the first resolution in the Kentucky "Resolutions of '98" contains the clause, "its co-States forming, as to itself, the other party," which has dropped out in editions of 'Elliot's Debates' published since 1832, the way is now open, as you justly remark, for critical inquiry into the origin and probable motive of that omission, if it was not accidental. The Resolution in its integrity reads as follows:

"Resolved, That the several States composing the United States of America are not united on the principle of unlimited submission to their General Government; but that, by compact under the style and title of a Constitution for the United States and of amendments thereto, they constituted a General Government for special purposes, delegated to that Government certain definite powers, reserving, each State to itself, the residuary mass of right to their own self-government; and that whensoever the General Government assumes undelegated powers, its acts are unauthoritative, void, and of no force: That to this compact each State acceded as a State, and is an integral party, its co-States forming, as to itself, the other party: That the Government created by this compact was not made the exclusive or final judge of the extent of the powers delegated to itself; since that would have made its discretion, and not the Constitution, the measure of its powers; but that as in all other cases of compact among parties having no common judge, each party has an equal right to judge for itself, as well of infractions as of the mode and measure of redress."

As preliminary to this inquiry I beg leave to state that the genuine text was correctly reproduced by Elliot in his first compilation of these Resolutions, as printed in the Appendix to what was originally known as volume 4 of the 'Debates.' This volume was published in 1830—its "Prefatory Note" bears the date of May 26 in

that year—and therefore was issued immediately in the wake of the great "Nullification Debate" signalized in the Senate of the United States by the memorable speeches of Hayne and Webster, in which the "Resolutions of '98" were passed under review.

A new and powerful impulse was given to nullification polemics two years afterward by the discovery, early in March, 1832, of a series of resolutions, preserved among Mr. Jefferson's papers and drawn up in his handwriting, against the constitutionality of the Alien and Sedition laws. It was seen at once, on a comparison of this Jefferson draft with the text of the Kentucky series, that the former was the textual basis of the latter, with a few very important modifications. Immediately in the wake of this discovery Elliot published, in May, 1832, a sensational pamphlet entitled 'The Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions of 1798 and '99; with Jefferson's original draught thereof. Also, Madison's Report, Calhoun's Address, Resolutions of the Several States in Relation to State Rights, with Other Documents in Support of the Jeffersonian Doctrines of '98.' In this publication the editor exhausts the art of typography in giving, by the prodigal display of italics and capitals, a strong nullification emphasis to his whole collection of documents.

It is interesting to observe that in this political pamphlet "the original draft" of Jefferson is found to contain the clause in question, but the clause has vanished from the text of the Resolutions as they purport to have been passed by the Legislature of Kentucky in 1798. This is the earliest omission of the clause which, after a diligent search, I have been able to find, and from this time forth the corruption appears to have imperceptibly stolen into successive editions of 'Elliot's Debates,' as subsequently "published under the sanction of Congress" with the supervision of the same editor.

It would be premature to speculate on the probable motive of this omission, for some of your readers may refer me to an earlier source of the corruption, and it may have been purely accidental. In view, however, of the fact that a correct copy of the Resolutions was given by Elliot in 1830 and an incorrect one in 1832 and afterward, it would not seem easy to absolve him from the charge of careless proof-reading, unless it can be shown that he reproduced his mutilated copy from an earlier copy having every appearance of genuineness.

The clause was of critical significance under the stress and pinch of the Nullification controversy in 1830-32. With this clause arrayed in the forefront of the Kentucky series, it was not easy, in the name of that declaration, to vindicate the constitutional right of each individual State to nullify, without opposition from its sister States, an act of Congress held by it to be unconstitutional: for if, in ratifying the Constitution, each State had to wait for the coöperation of a sufficient number of "co-States" to give validity to its own adoption of that instrument, and if, "as to itself," the "co-States" so ratifying the Constitution were "the other party" to the "compact," then it followed by parity of reasoning, on the strictest principles of the State-Rights logic, that each State, in declaring an act of Congress null and void, had to wait for the coöperation of a sufficient number of its co-States ("the other party") in order to give validity to the new definition or allocation of Federal powers involved in its nullification manifesto. But this doctrine was fatal to the pretension of the South Carolina Nullifiers in 1830-32.

JAMES C. WELLING.

WASHINGTON, May 8, 1886.

THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM AT THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The reports recently presented to the Board of Overseers of Harvard College by a committee charged with the consideration of proposed changes in the requirements for admission to college, of the practical working of the elective system, and of the plan of voluntary attendance now in operation at Harvard, are models in their way, and are valuable contributions to the discussion of the subjects they treat. They are well worth the attention of persons engaged in college management anywhere, whether interested in all the details or not. For us at the University of Michigan they have a peculiar interest, dealing as they do with problems on which our academic faculty has been engaged for several years, and we have been much gratified to see how closely, sometimes even in minute particulars, the conclusions of the Harvard committee are in accord with the practice that our experience has led us to think the best. The organization of the University at Ann Arbor differs in many respects from that at Cambridge, and it would hardly be right to emphasize very strongly any points of resemblance or points of contrast in matters relating solely to details of internal administration; yet, broadly speaking, both institutions have the same end in view, and have adopted in the main similar methods. A short account of what has been accomplished here in certain directions I hope may be acceptable to your readers, especially those that have seen the Harvard reports.

The question whether a knowledge of Greek should be required of all students was settled as long ago as the year 1851 for the University of Michigan by a legislative enactment which directed that "the Regents shall provide . . . for the admission of . . . students without previous examination as to their attainments" in ancient languages; and the problem for the Faculty has been, while requiring Greek for the course leading to the degree of bachelor of arts, to get from the schools an equivalent preparation in science, modern languages, or English branches, for those students who enter the University as candidates for degrees in science, in philosophy, or in letters. The aim has been to make the different degrees conferred, as far as practicable with courses so widely different in character, represent equivalent amounts of work, so that they may be regarded by students and by the community as equally honorable.

For thirty-five years the high schools of Michigan and other feeders of the University have been encouraged to direct the preliminary training of pupils fitting for college in the way that seemed best in each particular case. In some of the larger schools a creditable supply of apparatus for laboratory instruction in science is provided, but this is by no means yet the rule, though a marked advance in this respect has been observable in the past few years. The result in Michigan goes far toward showing that, for the present at least, if any substitute for Greek is to be accepted at Harvard, a very few schools only will be in condition to give training in science at all equivalent to that now secured by the study of Greek. The weight of testimony here is strongly in favor of the plan recommended in Mr. Smith's minority report. It may be added that the youthful Agassiz or Faraday will find himself badly hampered if ignorant of the modern languages, and it will be well for him to acquire a knowledge of them early in life.

The elective system became a prominent feature at the University of Michigan some ten or twelve years ago, though even at an earlier date a considerable range of choice was allowed the upper classes. After a long and careful discussion, the Academic Faculty in the year 1879 made a radical change and adopted a modified or limited elective system, to whose advantages all grades of collegiate students were admitted. Briefly summarized, the principal features of that plan were as follows: (1) the instruction offered to undergraduates was arranged in half-year courses, some being given once a week, some twice, others three, four, or five times; (2) each student was allowed to choose, from all the courses offered in any half-year, such as he could take with profit, the Faculty reserving the right to regulate, when necessary, the number of hours a week any student should be engaged in the class-room; (3) the completion of a specified amount of work, whether the time spent were longer or shorter, entitled a student to his degree provided one important condition was satisfied, viz., that at some time during his term of study he should have pursued and passed examinations on a certain set of prescribed studies, the sets varying in kind and in amount, according to the title of the degree to be conferred. About one-half of the total requirement consisted of prescribed studies, except in the engineering department, where the proportion was about four-fifths. A candidate for the degree of bachelor of arts was obliged to take in the University both Greek and Latin equivalent to a daily exercise in each language for something more than a year and a half; for the degree of bachelor of philosophy a corresponding amount of Latin, French, and German was prescribed; for the degrees in science and in letters the prescribed studies included a relatively larger proportion of physics, chemistry, history, or English; all the sets included mathematics and, except for students in engineering, the elements of psychology.

A trial of a year or two in the administration of this system disclosed two serious defects: the incoming freshmen found it difficult to choose wisely, and the older students were tempted to undertake too much work, for the sake of shortening their college course by six months or a year. Recognizing these defects, the Faculty did not hesitate to retrace its steps. The liberty of choice accorded to freshmen was very much restricted, so that, at the present time, the work of a student in his first year is practically, though not absolutely nor in all cases, confined to a limited portion of the studies prescribed for graduation. The second difficulty was met by setting a limit to the number of hours a week a student could take, a limit which could not be exceeded without special permission. All requests for extra hours are referred to a standing committee of the Faculty. They are granted or denied according to the committee's view of what would be best for the student. A position on this committee is no sinecure. Under this arrangement the normal length of the college course is four years, though not a few in each class complete all requirements in three years and a half, or so nearly complete them that time is gained in the fourth year for advanced work in special topics or for entrance on the study of a profession. Incidentally, too, the lines of demarcation between freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors are to some extent obliterated.

The character of the prescribed work has been modified from time to time, and its amount has been reduced as rapidly as experience has shown a reduction could be made to advantage. Pains are taken to advise students of the proper sequence of studies. The annual calendars and announcements contain recommendations and suggestions as to the proper coördination of studies, which are intended expressly to aid persons who wish to acquire more than ordinary proficiency in some one line of work—philosophy, for exam-

ple, or chemistry, physics, astronomy, geology, or biology.

In the ways above indicated, the University of Michigan, in its department of literature, science, and the arts (the professional schools, of course, are not here taken into account), has endeavored to secure the acknowledged benefits of a free election, and to guard against its worst dangers. The results so far attained have been highly satisfactory, though the avenues of improvement are not yet closed. In one direction, it is true, an important step in advance has already been taken. I refer to the opportunity that the more ambitious or the more mature students, whose attainments warrant the Faculty in granting them the privilege, have of completing the last year and a half or two years of their college course, on conditions even more favorable to the development of individual taste and talent than the simple elective system in itself contemplates. It would make this letter too long to describe in detail the "university system," as we call it here; it is an interesting outgrowth or extension of the elective system, and one that promises good results in the future, if wisely administered. Neither is there room for any notice of the marking system or of the question of voluntary attendance at recitations. These topics may perhaps be taken up in a future communication.

W. H. PETTEE.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, May 1, 1886.

Notes.

THE 'Q. P. Index Annual for 1885' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.) is now ready—forming the fifth in its own series, the nineteenth in the general. Some fifty periodicals are selectively indexed by Mr. Griswold's ingenious system of numbering. The authors are placed in a list by themselves, each with a numerical designation by which ready reference is made from his proper article.

Charles Scribner's Sons will issue in the early autumn the second volume of the 'Cyclopædia of Painters and Paintings,' edited by John Denison Champlin, jr., and Charles C. Perkins. The first volume, now ready, contains 105 outline views of the important pictures of the older masters, 182 portraits, and 212 signatures, besides twelve full-page photogravures (mainly) after works of the modern school. The arrangement of painters and pictures is under a single alphabet. There are to be four volumes in all, quarto, and the limit of copies is 500.

Cassell & Co. publish immediately 'Representative Poems of Living Poets,' the selection involving eighty English and American writers, and nearly three hundred selections made by the poets themselves. Mr. George P. Lathrop furnishes an introduction.

Thomas Whitaker will issue next week 'The Church Revived,' a full account of parochial mission work in England and America, by the Rev. J. W. Bonham.

William S. Gottsberger publishes this week 'The King's Treasure-house: a Romance of Ancient Egypt,' translated from the German of Wilhelm Walloth by Mary J. Safford.

Henry Holt & Co. have nearly ready 'Whom God Hath Joined,' a *Tendenz* novel, by Mrs. Elizabeth Gilbert Martin, which has appeared serially in the pages of the *Catholic World*; and 'Children of the Earth,' yet another novel, by Miss A. R. Macfarlane.

Prof. Arthur Sherburne Hardy's new novel, 'The Wind of Destiny,' is about to be issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. They also announce for their Riverside Paper series 'The Cruise of the *Alabama*,' by P. D. Haywood; 'Not in the Prospectus,' by Park Danforth; 'Burglars in Paradise,' by Miss Phelps; and 'The Man Who Was Guilty,' by Flora Haines Longhead. Further, a new volume of poems by Mrs. S. M. B. Piatt, entitled 'In Primrose Time: a New Irish Garland.' (Can the time of Beaconsfield be thus indicated?)

'The Mystery of Pain,' by James Hinton, M.D., is in the press of Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston.

Ginn & Co. publish during the next two months 'The Practical Elements of Rhetoric,' by Prof. J. F. Genung, of Amherst; and 'The Beginner's Latin Book,' by W. C. Collar and M. G. Daniell.

A series of monographs on education, in preparation by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will begin with a 'Bibliography of Pedagogical Literature,' compiled by Prof. G. Stanley Hall.

The second volume of the "Olden Time Series" (Boston: Ticknor & Co.) is 'Days of the Spinning Wheel,' but, like its predecessor, its contents are better covered by the general than by the specific title. Under whichever designation, one may be edified by reading the calm contemporary newspaper report of the Boston Massacre; a sumptuary regulation in that city, in 1788, forbidding (shade of Samuel Sewall!) scarfs, gloves, rings, and liquors at funerals; correspondence relating to a fire charity, collected and brought over by Whitefield in 1764; advertisements showing the activity of the slave market before the Revolution, or telling of cows on Boston Common as late as 1788, or proving the existence of mahogany furniture as early as 1759, to the confusion of certain colonial antiquarians who have held this to be a heresy. Here, also, one may be reminded that as far back as 1762 they were making 40,000 pairs of shoes annually in Lynn, Mass.; that in 1775, in Salem, one could listen to a popular scientific lecture on electricity, "every evening in which the air is dry," at a pistareen a lecture; that there was lively celebration of Guy Fawkes's Day in the last century, and that (*teste* the author) even last year, near Marblehead, a bonfire on that date was a genuine survival; finally, that at New Hackensack, Dutchess County, N. Y., in 1789, mysterious rappings and moving of furniture, etc., attended a young girl in a respectable family, and perplexed investigators.

Harper & Bros. take advantage of the interest in the Irish question to republish Miss Edgeworth's 'The Absentee,' in their Handy Series.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have brought out a new edition of the late Keith Johnston's 'School and College Atlas of Ancient Geography,' much improved in every respect, and enlarged by a summary exhibit of ancient geography from the pen of Prof. W. F. Allen, of the University of Wisconsin, whose name is a guarantee of scholarly accuracy. While the maps as such are not remarkable specimens of cartography, they are distinct and free from overcrowding. There is an index, in which the modern name accompanies the ancient, and throughout the pronunciation is carefully indicated. Altogether, the work seems to us second to no other available for English-speaking students.

Rarely does one meet with more beautiful maps than those which compose the first instalment of the second edition of Dr. Richard Andree's popular 'Allgemeiner Hand-Atlas' (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Westermann). The execution is in admirable taste as to lettering, tint, etc., and is only objectionable on the score of extreme fineness in the more crowded portions. A magnifier would almost be necessary to save the eyes. Many of the plates are quite novel in their selection and division, and will be a substantial addition to maps which subordinate the districts in question. There are to be twelve *Lieferungen* with 120 map-plates (against 96 in the former edition). The wonder is that they can be furnished for two marks each.

'Common Sense in the Nursery' (Chas. Scribner's Sons) belongs to Marion Harland's series of common-sense books, and its name is well given. Babies are necessary in families, and care corresponding to this teaching is necessary for the babies.

During 1883 more than one-quarter of the deaths occurring in Philadelphia were of children under one year of age. In the census year 1880 nearly one-half of the deaths in the United States were of children under five years of age. This mortality and the suffering connected with it, to say nothing of the suffering, physical and otherwise, incidental to illness not mortal of which children are the subjects, are appalling. A certain amount of disease, but a very small amount according to our present light, is necessary; very much of it should be preventable and prevented. Dr. Arthur V. Meigs, in a study of 'Milk Analysis and Infant Feeding' (Philadelphia: Blakiston & Co.), remarks with great truth: "It is melancholy to think how many children die year after year simply because those who are most anxious for them to live do not know what to give them to eat." Dr. Meigs's little book has the advantage of intelligent theory corrected and confirmed by considerable experience.

One might as well expect to find a new treatise to point out the superiority of steam over horse power for locomotive purposes, as to have written at this late day a book to show the influence of vaccination in preventing smallpox. Yet such is the senseless clamor which very noisy and not very intelligent men are making against this most beneficent agency, that some positively require to be reminded of its value. Dr. W. A. Hardaway's 'Essentials of Vaccination' (St. Louis: J. H. Chambers & Co.) points out how and why this life-saving operation should be done. It is not a cyclopædia, it is an epitome of the correct teachings about vaccination.

American publishers of school-books would do well to look at the dainty little volumes just issued from the Clarendon Press, Oxford, containing 'Les Femmes savantes,' by Molière, and 'Cinna,' by Corneille (New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons). The material execution is excellent though simple, and the books open perfectly and remain open just where they are wanted—a rare merit in these days of wire-stitched school-books. The editor, M. Gustave Masson, has given very little of his own in the introductory notices to the plays. His notes are good, though he freely indulges in quotations in them, not hesitating to give half a page of Greek to illustrate a passage of Corneille. This he leaves untranslated as well as his numerous Latin quotations—an indolent process, which will not tend to make the notes easy reading to learners of French, or to some teachers, perhaps. The short glossary at the end of each play is very carefully made.

M. Henry Attwell speaks very modestly of his little book, 'French-English Pseudo-Synonyms' (London: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof). He says it is merely a list transferred from a schoolmaster's note-book. It is a very interesting short monograph on words which are often the source of great blunders not merely to learners of French, but to the translators of French books. It seems a very elementary remark to say that *large* in French never means 'large,' that *injurier* is not 'to injure,' *monnaie* is not 'money,' *éditeur* is not 'editor,' or to call attention to the fact that *prétendre* generally means something very different from 'to pretend'; yet, in view of some of the current translations of recent French novels, such information seems not to be general among those who translate. The use of M. Attwell's volume might prevent a number of recurring mistakes, especially if the author makes it more complete in a new edition by inserting other words which are stumbling-blocks

from their similarity in form to English words which do not translate them—such as *altération*, *emphase*, *contrée*, *grief*. Some of these and others omitted by Mr. Attwell may be found in a very good little collection of exercises called 'The Bridge,' compiled by Mr. Oliver Straightways (London and Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof).

In *Shakspeariana* for April Prof. J. D. Butler shows curiously, from an examination of Liddell and Scott, to what an extent Shakspere has been used by these editors to illustrate meanings in their Greek lexicon. No fewer than seventeen Greek authors are explained by quotations from as many of Shakspere's dramas; and "did they all betoken undesigned coincidences with any one single Greek, they would," says Prof. Butler, "demonstrate that he wrote Shakspere more conclusively than anything in 'Promus' indicates the Baconian authorship of any Shaksperian play."

In *Science* for May 7, Alice C. Fletcher discusses some composite portraits of American Indians which are shown on an accompanying plate. She made the very interesting experiment of causing three full-blooded Dakota or Sioux young women to sit for their photographs, from which, following a certain order, a composite was derived in the usual manner. Then, in the same order, the three sitters were taken directly upon one negative, at short exposures in rapid succession. Theoretically the two composites should have agreed. In fact, they were totally different, one face "ruling" in one, another in the other. The causes of this are not apparent, but it seems probable that the larger the number of subjects, the slighter would be the divergence in the types resulting from the two processes.

Mr. Joseph Thacher Clarke's article on a proto-Ionic capital found by him on the summit of Mount Chigri will hold the attention of the reader who begins it, in vol ii., No. 1, of the *American Journal of Archæology*. This "most primitive memorial of the Greek Ionic style yet brought to light," belonging to a ruin twenty-two centuries old, as is estimated, is convincingly cited as a link in the development of the form from the Assyrian construction in wood, which Mr. Clarke traces with his accustomed thoroughness. Rams' horns, snakes, and all other à-priori surmises as to the original models of the volutes, disappear before the palm. The article is unfinished. Prof. Merriam continues his text, translation, and commentary of the law code of the Cretan Gortyna, in which we observe that the condition of the children did not always follow that of the mother, who might have some free and some slave. Exceptional attention will be given to the clear report on the recent archaic sculptural finds of the Acropolis excavations at Athens, by Mr. Walter Miller, of the American School. As usual, the *Journal's* news department is full and varied, and the number is well supplied with plates and cuts.

We have before us the fourteenth annual reports of the two parallel public-spirited associations in Philadelphia—the Zoölogical Society and the Fairmount Park Art Association. The latter contains heliotype views of the Silenus and Infant Bacchus of Praxiteles, and of the Wrestlers of the Royal Gallery in Florence, both reproduced in bronze. Similar views of animals might not unprofitably have adorned the Zoölogical Society's report, from which we learn that we owe to perfidious Albion and her machinations in the Sudan the deficiency not only in our supply of gum arabic, but also in that of the wild animals which are regularly hunted for menageries in the wilds of Central Africa.

A fairly pictorial look is given to Mr. Carroll D. Wright's seventeenth annual report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor by the frontispiece, a steel portrait of the late Henry K. Oliver, the first head of the Bureau—this by way of memorial; and by a heliotype portrait of the late Henry Wilson, a photo-etching of Mr. Dana Estes, the publisher, and a process engraving of some actress, cantatrice, or "English beauty"—these in order to illustrate the chapter on "Art in Industry." A gushing and extravagant sketch of the life of General Oliver (a musician, also, and composer of the hymns "Federal Street," "Merton," etc.) almost covers up the modest excellence of the man—a kinsman, we remark, of Dr. Holmes and Wendell Phillips.

Dr. Theodore Baker, who, a few years ago, enriched musical science with an original monograph on the music of North American Indians, has made another valuable addition to musical literature by making an excellent translation of Dr. Oscar Paul's 'Manual of Harmony' into English. Dr. Paul is professor at the Leipzig Conservatory, and well known as author of a musical dictionary and a history of the pianoforte, and as translator of Boethius's 'De Musica.' Some years ago he attempted to overthrow the tradition that the first efforts at harmony by Hucbald and others, some eight centuries ago, were the ugly sequences of fourths, fifths, and octaves printed in histories of music; his contention being that these intervals were not sung simultaneously, but successively. The best evidence, however, is against Dr. Paul's emendation. The fact that he was not afraid to attack so venerable a doctrine, shows him particularly qualified to deal with musical theory, in which there is so much that needs sifting and throwing overboard. Dr. Paul is not an original investigator, like Riemann or Helmholtz, but he is a clear writer, and his 'Manual of Harmony' is superior to Richter's, not only in respect of perspicuity, but in being more abreast of the times, by embodying the researches of Hauptmann, and the recently gained knowledge of the harmonic principles of Bach, on which the best modern music is based.

It would be decidedly unjust that the short Easter season should put a limit to the vogue of the very tasteful designs in color published as Easter cards by Raphael Tuck & Sons, of London, and No. 298 Broadway, in this city. Many of these are conscientious studies of famous pictures, reduced with real skill to the proportions of a miniature. The Ecce Homos of Guido and Dolci, never excelled, are among them, better copied than on the porcelains which rich travellers bring home from Dresden; and there are flower studies, azaleas, jonquils, and "Mary's lilies," which would do credit to reputable flower-painters, and deserve to be signed.

The summer course in Entomology and General Invertebrate Zoölogy at Cornell University is announced to begin June 21, and continue for ten weeks. Application should be made before June 10 to Prof. J. H. Comstock, Ithaca, N. Y.

—Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole, the translator of Tolstoi's 'Anna Karenina,' sends us a letter taking exception to our recent review of his version. We extract the passage which controverts our allegation that "it was made directly from the French, not from the Russian, and the proofs begin in chapter two." Mr. Dole says: "Now it happens—and I can bring affidavits of the fact—that I had not seen the French paraphrase until I was far beyond the second chapter. Indeed, had I seen it, I might gladly have chosen the word *peignoir* instead of *jersey* for *koftotchka*. I claim that I made a perfectly justifiable use of the French version as an assistance in doing the work. . . . That my good faith as to what I said in the preface might have confirmation, I made no pretence upon the title-page of having done the work from the Russian." Mr. Dole cites "an unsolicited letter from a Russian living in New York," congratulating him upon his success.

—The *Century* war papers for May begin with a sketch by General McClellan of the opening of the campaign of South Mountain and Antietam in September, 1862. His death prevented the completion of the paper, but in the merely introductory part which he wrote there are two or three important statements of fact which are not to be found in the official records. One is that General Halleck had assured him, both orally and in writing, that the command of the whole army in front of Washington, including Pope's and Burnside's, as well as the Potomac army, should be confided to him. It will be remembered that General Pope has declared that Halleck had expressed the purpose himself to take the field with the united command when McClellan's army should arrive. Another important statement is, that, after the second battle of Bull Run, both President Lincoln and Halleck reiterated the conviction that Washington was lost, and that it was impossible to save the city. Still another, and in some respects the most surprising, is, that his (McClellan's) assignment to command having limited him to the defences of Washington only, excluding any moving column beyond the works, and this not having been altered, though requested by him, his marching at the head of his army against Lee at South Mountain and the Antietam was, in fact, unauthorized, and, by strongest implication, contrary to his orders. It needs no argument to show how these allegations complicate the already tangled history of that period. The story of the battle of South Mountain by the ex-Confederate General D. H. Hill will perhaps first strike those who have been familiar with his reports made during the war, as being in interesting contrast of tone with those highly colored documents. That D. H. Hill can write of the national armies and their officers as he now does, is among the startling proofs how far from the war we are. His paper is a valuable one, pleasantly written, clear and strong in description. He presents the campaign from the Confederate point of view, and strongly emphasizes the opinion that, with the "lost despatches" of Lee in the national commander's hands, a much more vigorous strategy was possible, and that the Confederate army was ruinously compromised had full advantage been taken of the situation. His details of the engagement are necessarily faulty from his lack of personal knowledge of affairs within the Union lines, but he gives much new information of the movements on the other side. Mr. Goss's "Recollections of a Private" contain a general criticism of the campaign, and the amusing experiences of a "high private" under circumstances of confessed "demoralization." In the "Memoranda," Gen. W. F. Smith presents strong documentary evidence tending to show that General Grant's unfavorable criticisms of him were not founded upon his military character or career, but probably upon personal reasons.

—Mr. David A. Wells usually wears a pair of achromatic glasses, and he has been looking at Mexico through them. From the first two of the series of articles which he is publishing in the *Popular Science Monthly*, under the title, "An Economic Study of Mexico," we are led to expect from him the most illuminating discussion of our trade relations with Mexico that has been made public. Thus far his work is mostly preliminary. He sketches broadly but in firm lines Mexico's physical geography, her race inheritance, political history, social condition, and present government. Mr. Wells ought to be warned, however, that his exceedingly matter-of-fact way of looking at things will make him

no friends among the Mexicans. We notice that the New Orleans correspondent of the *Monitor Republicano* refers to his articles with great indignation, as being most insulting to Mexico. "What a way to write the history of a great people," exclaims this correspondent, "to say that they live in adobe houses, that the dress of many of them is only cotton sheeting, that few of them wear shoes, that they use no stoves, plough with a crooked stick, and eat corn as the staple of their diet!" It is, indeed, something of a departure from the method of the traditional writer on Mexico, in whom the practical has been subordinated to the picturesque; but, remembering that the object of Mr. Wells is to arrive at the present and prospective value of Mexican commerce, he cannot be so greatly blamed.

—Some of his statements on minor points are not altogether exact. For example, he says of President Diaz that "he is free from the suspicion that has attached, and probably with justice, to so many of the Mexican Presidents, of using his power, through contracts and expenditures, to enrich himself illegitimately." But it cannot be denied that the bold charges of corruption brought against General Diaz by his political opponents, and the fact that he entered the Presidency in 1876 with no property but his sword and retired from it in 1880 in possession of estates in Oaxaca estimated to be worth a million dollars, are enough to create "suspicion." In fact, one of the grounds of comfort which Mexican business men found in his reëlection was that he had already provided for himself in his former Administration, and now might be expected to give some attention to the needs of the country. Mr. Wells speaks guardedly of the "personal popularity" of Maximilian. This is one of the fictions of the Church press and historians. Domenech, in his character as champion of the Intervention, made much of what he asserted to be the spontaneous public welcome accorded the Archduke on his arrival in Mexico. In response to similar assertions by the Church organ, *La Voz de Mexico*, the Government recently caused to be published copies of some most interesting documents in the Treasury archives, showing the truly spontaneous nature of Maximilian's welcome. They were in the shape of warrants drawn on the national Treasury, in 1865, for sums expended in Vera Cruz, Córdoba, Orizaba, Puebla, and Mexico for fireworks, illuminations, triumphal arches, etc., amounting in all to $115,000. Perhaps Napoleon III., an expert in securing popular demonstrations in his own favor, had instructed the unfortunate Prince in this short and easy way of proving himself the people's choice. We can but repeat that we look forward to the remaining parts of Mr. Wells's work with high anticipations. If anything could justify Congress in delaying to carry out the terms of our reciprocity treaty with Mexico, it would be the desire to wait until the opinions of this trained and careful publicist are before them.

—A special interest attaches to the report of the State Geologist of New Jersey for the past year. Prof. Cook discusses the changes in the eastern coast line with the aid of tradition, history, and the earliest maps, and draws the general conclusion that the Atlantic beach now, as a rule, represents a sand deposit of wind and wave on former marsh land, and that the loss of margin is absolute, while the gain is only relative. Sandy Hook is delineated from various surveys made during the last two centuries, and is shown to have increased its area in length and breadth some four times. The lighthouse built in 1764 near the point is now about a mile south. Five-mile Beach, on the east shore of Cape May, is likewise shown to have doubled its size since 1772, with great changes of outline. In this instance a whole sea-side town has been laid out over the ocean of 1772. The report has also a chapter on forestry, from which we learn that a little less than one-half the total area of the State is wooded, and that from the nature of the soil a large part of this must ever remain so. Cultivation, however, will probably claim half the existing pine area, or about a third of the woodland. The wasteful and unscientific treatment of these forests still yields $5,000,000 a year, and this product might be doubled. On the other hand, forest fires, largely caused by locomotive sparks, destroy annually a million, and only the generosity of nature in this State prevents the account from running steadily behind. One railroad has devised a plan of keeping 100 feet on each side of the track free from combustible vegetation—an end which, by the way, in the case of a Southern railroad some forty years ago, was sought to be attained by scythes attached to the axles: until the expedient naturally resulted in the loss of human life. New Jersey now ranks first of the States in railroad mileage, having one mile to every 3.95 square miles. The thirty-fifth State in size, she is the nineteenth in population, and has during the past thirty years increased at a more rapid rate than adjacent States similarly circumstanced, and at about the national rate. She does not lose by emigration. We notice finally in this valuable report a detailed account of the various maps of New Jersey.

—Volume xx of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' ninth edition (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons; Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1886), embraces titles extending from "Prudentius" to "Rostoff." It will apparently prove to be a twenty-fourth, or, including a supplement, a twenty-fifth part of the whole work. In Webster's Dictionary the titles from "Prudent" to "Roster" form one-sixteenth of the volume. In Appleton's 'American Cyclopædia' four hundred pages—that is, less than one-thirty-second part of the whole—are devoted to "Prudentius—Rostock." It will thus be seen that the 'Britannica' has managed to keep up a tolerably even tenor in its articles, undisturbed by the pressure which generally overtakes editors of cyclopædias when approaching the end. Compared with the earliest volumes, condensation and brevity are, of course, almost everywhere perceptible. The largest contribution to the volume, "Rome" (ancient history by H. F. Pelham, mediæval and recent by Prof. Villari, topography and archæology by J. H. Middleton), though embracing 107 pages, is rather small compared with "France" (181 pp.); and such important subjects as "Pyramid," "Quakers," "Rationalism," "Red Sea," "Roman Catholic Church," "Roman Literature," "Pyrenees," "Rhodes," and the Richards would have received a more extensive treatment if the initials of the titles were not P, Q, or R. But comparatively enough room, it appears to us, is given to "Psychology" (49 pp., by J. Ward), "Railway" (32 pp., by four authors), "Reformation," "Religions" (by Prof. Tiele), "Renaissance" (Symonds), "Reproduction" (Geddes and Vines), "Reptiles" (40 pp., by Drs. Günther and Mivart), "Rimini," "Roads and Streets," "Romance" (28 pp.), "Romance Languages" (Prof. Storm), and the book of "Revelation" (Prof. Harnack). Prof. Robertson Smith's "Psalms" we should like to see longer, on account of the excellence of the work. "Romans" is from an equally good pen, that of Prof. Schürer. Much less satisfactory, because pedantically dry and historically uninstructive, are the rabbinical articles "Rab," "Ramban" (without an explanation of the title), "Rashba," "Rashbam," "Rashi," and "Riph," all by one pen, obviously selected to represent a denomination. Biography is well cared for in the notices of Prynne, Pym, Pythagoras, Rabelais, Racine, Raleigh, Raphael, Rembrandt, Ricardo, Robert Bruce, Robespierre, Robusti, Rossetti, Ptolemy the geographer, etc., but we can hardly excuse the omission of all the Egyptian Ptolemies, for "Egypt" may contain all that is needed concerning their reigns, but not the details of their individual lives; the extensive article "France," *e. g.*, does not render notices of the Lewises superfluous. As specimens of slips we may mention "Hesse-Nassau" (p. 2) as referring to the duchy annexed by Prussia in 1866, and not to the Prussian province, embracing Electoral Hesse and the Duchy of Nassau, formed after the annexation; and the spelling of Polish names with *v*, which does not exist in the language, on pages 218 and 298.

JOEL BARLOW.

Life and Letters of Joel Barlow. By Charles Burr Todd. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1886.

We have in biographical dictionaries and in magazine articles all of Joel Barlow's story that is furnished in this volume—all and more—for Mr. Todd has omitted some interesting particulars which he possibly thought might damage his hero's reputation. The letters to Mrs. Barlow and to Robert Fulton give us here and there a glimpse of exciting times, but there is nothing in them to throw any new light on Barlow's character or career. This is a disappointment. No part of our short history so abounds in amusing social and political details as the period between 1783 and Madison's administration—exactly Barlow's time. McMaster has worked this vein profitably, but there was still a grand opportunity for the right man.

Mr. Todd expresses surprise that an ungrateful country has hitherto taken so little notice of the "poet, philosopher, patriot, and friend of humanity" he celebrates. The reason is not far to seek. Barlow's poetry is of the kind that neither gods nor men can tolerate long. The "Hartford Wits" were the first to manufacture native American verse, and were honored accordingly, especially in their neighborhood. There was not a spark of genius in the group. The poetry they turned out was an imitation of the English poets in fashion at the time: Butler, Pope, Gray, Goldsmith, etc. It looked like the original, but lacked the flavor. It was "wooden nutmeg poetry"—in that respect, "a genuine product of the Connecticut soil." Trumbull was the cleverest of the party. His "McFingal," an adaptation of Hudibras to the politics of America, was quoted by everybody. Barlow's epic, the "Columbiad," an enlargement or a dilution of the "Vision of Columbus," a youthful work, occupied his life. We may safely say that it was unreadable even to his contemporaries. The only genuine verses Barlow published are to be found in "Hasty Pudding." Homesick in Savoy, and cheered by the sight of a dish of *polenta* that reminded him of Connecticut, he wrote them from his heart. When serving as chaplain in the army, Barlow wrote occasional war-songs to encourage the soldiers. "He was one of the *Minnesängers* of the Revolution," Mr. Todd tells us. After the war Barlow was employed by the General Association of Connecticut to correct and enlarge the psalms of Dr. Watts. The new version provoked the following just criticism from a brother rhymester, Oliver Arnold:

> "You're nothing but a sinful cre'tur;
> You've murdered Watts and spoiled the metre."

It was soon laid aside for another by Dr. Dwight.

Mr. Todd makes no allusion to a stirring lyric composed by Barlow, and sung by him at a festive gathering in the worst days of the French

Revolution—a parody of "God Save the King." One verse ran thus:

"Fame, let thy trumpet sound;
Tell all the world around
How Capet fell.
And when great George's poll
Shall in the basket roll,
Let mercy then control
The Guillotine."

Poor Capet! how changed from "his most gracious Majesty, Louis XVI., King of France and of Navarre," to whom Barlow dedicated the "Vision of Columbus" in 1787: "The great father of the House of Bourbon will be held in the highest veneration till his favorite political system shall be realized among the nations of Europe and extended to all mankind." Thomas Paine, on the other hand, had the courage to risk his own head in the Convention when he tried to save King Louis from death.

If Barlow had passed his life in Hartford, he would have gone to meeting with his old friends, and thought "the name of Democrat synonymous with infamy," as they did. Being in Paris, in 1789, he became, of course, a philosopher, patriot, and friend of humanity, heading deputations, delivering addresses, and writing pamphlets against majesties, earthly and divine—political diatribes that had little of the sound sense and vigorous style of his contemporaries, Paine and Cobbett. As *citoyen français* and member of the Constitution Society, his feelings were warm against the English or Federal party in the United States. When a lull in the French whirlwind gave him leisure, he wrote to his brother-in-law, Senator Baldwin, a violent attack on Washington and Adams. Passages from this letter were used in the prosecution of Matthew Lyon for libel and sedition. Barlow followed this up by two letters addressed "to his fellow-citizens of the United States," full of anti-Federal sentiments. In one of them he advised the confiscation of all debts owing to English merchants by way of retaliating on the English Government—"a cool, temperate, convincing argument," Mr. Todd says of this letter. This particular suggestion in it certainly convinced no honest man of either party.

Colonel Humphries, one of the Hartford wits, when Minister to Portugal, having full faith in Barlow's supposed influence with the French Government, persuaded him to go to Algiers to get some relief from the attacks of the Barbary pirates on our merchantmen. In spite of tribute money and of promises, Barlow accomplished little. This matter was settled later by Eaton, Preble, and Decatur, in the only possible way. At home it was charged against Barlow that in the treaty he made with Tripoli were to be found the words "that the Government of the United States is not in any sense founded on the Christian religion." New England people compared Barlow to the Dutch Agent in Japan, trampling on the cross.

In 1805, after seventeen years of absence, Barlow came home a rich man, built a house in Washington, and was a distinguished ornament of Jefferson's court, and a shining mark for the attacks of the Opposition. Six years later Mr. Madison, who also believed in his influence with France, sent him to Paris to remonstrate with the Emperor against the Berlin and Milan decrees. Barlow urged this matter upon the French Government for a year without success. The Duc de Bassano, Minister for Foreign Affairs, advised him to seek a personal interview with Napoleon at Wilna. Barlow was indiscreet enough to start upon this foolish journey. It was the winter of the retreat from Moscow. Napoleon passed through Wilna without stopping, and Barlow died of cold and exposure near Cracow, on his way back to Paris.

Barlow's principal claim upon our attention is, that he was a successful adventurer in two worlds. His life is full of incident. A chaplain, after six weeks' study of theology, complaining "the Sabbath days came rather too thick" for him, turned himself into a lawyer, unsuccessful because "he was averse to practising the arts of the *shyster* and the pettifogger," and "without making use of these it was almost impossible at that time for a young lawyer to rise in his profession." This seems a cruel reproach from Mr. Todd to the memory of Ellsworth, Lyman Law, David Daggett, and other leading Connecticut lawyers. Then he kept a book-shop, edited a weekly, the *American Mercury*, and became "the progenitor of the modern editorial." Even this distinction did not bring grist to the mill, for in 1788 he was glad to accept the agency in France of the Scioto Land Company, "one of those speculative barks—'rigged with curses dark'—which have from time to time sunk beneath the waves of the political sea, engulfing whole *platoons* of statesmen." This particular speculative bark was, in plain English, a swindling land company. The shares were £50 each. "About twelve hundred barbers, fiddlers, and bakers"—we quote from a contemporary narrative—"were shipped to Alexandria, Virginia, and left there to hunt up their lands. They found woods inhabited by hostile Indians." "Nearly all who did not die of fever and exposure made their way to New Orleans. Those who remained had to buy their lands over again from the Ohio Company." McMaster says that Barlow's part in this business was "infamous." Mr. Todd quotes the passage as unworthy of notice. Nevertheless, the charge seems a grave one. If these lands to which the Scioto Company had no title were not sold on the highly colored misrepresentations of Barlow or of his agent, William Playfair, a Scotchman, why does not Mr. Todd tell us who the guilty parties were, and what became of the money taken from the poor barbers and fiddlers? He might also have explained to us how Barlow, who had not a shilling when he went to France, managed to live there and to prosper—so well, indeed, that he was able to buy the Hôtel de Clermont-Tonnerre as a residence, and to return to America in 1805 with about $150,000—great wealth at that time. Mr. Todd does allude vaguely to business transactions and to speculations in the French funds. Until the Directory there was no great rise in the funds. How did Barlow support himself and his wife in the meantime? He had joined the Girondins when they led the Convention; how did he escape arrest when they were destroyed? Why was he sent with the Abbé Grégoire to revolutionize Savoy? What was the extent of his boasted influence with the Directory? And, finally, why did he, after seventeen years abroad, give up his friends and his hôtel in Paris to build Kalorama in Washington? On these points information would have been interesting.

It is certain that Paine and Barlow were intimate in Paris. When Paine was arrested during the Terror, he stopped at Barlow's house on his way to the Conciergerie and left the second part of the 'Age of Reason' with him for safe keeping. Paine's name is not mentioned in the book before us, and no allusion is made to that notorious adventurer, General Miranda of Caraccas, who was much interested in the Scioto scheme, and was also sent to the Conciergerie and detained there, as Paine was, in daily danger of the guillotine, until the fall of Robespierre.

Mr. Todd thinks that McMaster's remark upon Barlow's connection with the fraudulent land company is only an evidence that the political passions of 1800 have survived to 1885. His own bias in the other direction misleads him; otherwise he could not have written "that the monarchical tendencies of the Federalists made it probable that another revolution would be necessary before the people could secure their rights." This is, indeed, a survival of the campaign rubbish of 1800. Few believed it then; no sane man believes it now.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Bostonians: A Novel. By Henry James. Macmillan & Co.

Indian Summer. By W. D. Howells. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

The Late Mrs. Null. By Frank R. Stockton. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Aliens. By Henry F. Keenan. D. Appleton & Co.

Donovan—We Two. By Edna Lyall. D. Appleton & Co.

For Mamie's Sake. By Grant Allen. D. Appleton & Co.

The Vicar's People. By G. M. Fenn. Cassell & Co.

Inquirendo Island. By Hudor Genone. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Mrs. Peixada. By Sidney Luska. Cassell & Co.

The Mill Mystery. By Anna Katharine Green. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Christie's Choice. By Ellery Sinclair. Thomas R. Knox & Co.

The Wreckers: A Social Study. By Geo. Thos. Dowling. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

The Prelate: A Novel. By Isaac Henderson. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Our Sensation Novel. Edited by Justin H. McCarthy, M.P. Cassell & Co. Also, Harper's Handy Series.

'THE BOSTONIANS' is a novel which invites elaborate criticism by its own elaboration. It is apparently designed to bring out a number of contrasts—the contrast between the ladies who are filled with the enthusiasm of the woman's-rights movement, and the ladies who are not filled with anything of the kind; between the somewhat antique "chivalrous" young Southern man and the brusque, progressive Northern young woman, with a redundancy of ideas; between Boston and, as logicians would say, all that is not-Boston in the world. These contrasts are pushed far, and bring out remorselessly much that is peculiar to the civilization of the day. Every American reader will find in the book some reflection of his or her mind; and as for the Bostonians, they have already given plain notice to the world that, in their opinion, the volume is libellous—not as being an absolutely false, but as a distorted picture. Everybody has heard the story of the New York wag who approved his tedious friend's determination to lecture in Boston, on the ground that he "always had hated the Bostonians." Something of this feeling is prevalent in many places outside of New England, and while we are not willing to say that Mr. James panders to it, it must be admitted that the reader gets the impression that, were the novelist to permit himself such emotions, he would confess to a dislike of many of the things which, in New York, are thought to be particularly Bostonian. But Mr. James very wisely eschews likes and dislikes. An observer and critic by nature and training, he would spoil his best effects did he permit himself to become identified with the puppets whom he so cleverly exhibits. In 'The Bostonians' he is by no means at his best. The story drags in places, and the conversations betray that want of naturalness into which the author's passion for a sort of dramatic repartee leads him. Nevertheless, the criticism and analysis and observation are so good that we cannot refrain

from admiration even when we do not always enjoy it. We cannot help feeling that we are in the hands of one of the first of American novelists. When our descendants hereafter attempt to reconstruct the society of which we form a part, and imagine what sort of a world ours was, it must be in great measure to James and Howells that they will resort for enlightenment. Each in his different way portrays American society in sketches which must ever remain a constituent portion of American literature.

The reason why people who begin 'Indian Summer' will read it through is that which prompted the citizens of Des Vaches, Indiana, to buy the *Democrat-Republican*—they want "to see what Colville said." Like the Merry Monarch, he never said a foolish thing and never did a wise one. At all events, he had exhausted his capacity for doing wisely before he reached his Indian Summer, before he bade Des Vaches good-bye and betook himself to Florence, the scene of his youthful dalliance with love and architecture. Here he delights and frequently mystifies his friends with the good things which he had been accustomed to furnish to the public through the columns of the *Democrat-Republican*. His friends are quite unworthy of his steel. His alert mind and ready tongue are deplorably wasted on the sentimental Imogene Graham. The trim widow Bowen lets his slowest balls slip through her fingers. Even when he persists in speaking of his old love, Mrs. Milbury, as Mrs. Pillsbury, she is not quick enough to remind him that Mr. Spreadbrow, the hero of Gilbert's "Sweethearts," had indulged in just that fine bit of affectation before him. Mr. Waters, the New England clergyman in exile, is his only entertaining associate. He is an excellent specimen of that intellectual abstraction in the shape of a man which is born and bred in Puritan New England only. But any one familiar with the personality of the female "dyspeptics and consumptives" who were part of his congregation at Haddam East Village, must wonder how and where he made his deep soundings in the nature of the feminine world at large. Though, when he talks about a woman being "old enough to be truly young," he is a trifle obscure, his remarks are generally too astute for his legitimate opportunities. They suggest that the *veglione* at the Pergola theatre was not the first mundane recreation indulged in by the ancient sage with a purpose more carnal than that of forming a rational theory of Savonarola's life and work. One cannot help regretting that his "comfort in having got out of Haddam East Village was perennial." That hardness is, however, less like Mr. Waters than Mr. Howells, who never can permit his readers the luxury of a thoroughly warm feeling for any one. Mr. Howells always chooses to avoid drama and deep feeling; he has a right to select, but the novelist who persistently ignores both or mocks at both, is as false to life in a broad way as the novelist who is always in hysterics. In 'Indian Summer' he has expended his skill on trifles exclusively, yet no one but Mr. Howells of the "Editor's Study" will be hard on him for having written about four hundred pages without any earnest meaning or purpose. Less severe mortals are apt to be grateful for so much admirable fooling.

No novel of this or any season has been more loudly heralded than 'The Late Mrs. Null'; none, after its appearance, has ever had more extravagant and indiscriminate praise. The author is doubtless puzzled to discover wherein he "resembles Rabelais," and why on earth, had he been a contemporary of Swift, the bitter, witty, scurrilous Dean should have "feared" him. Hardly less surprising is the repeated assertion that he is the inventor of an inscrutable kind of humor which flashes and permeates, and altogether discredits Solomon's cynicism about nothing new under the sun. Mr. Stockton's originality consists in arranging a literary puzzle, elaborating it through a series of whimsical situations, finally solving it or not at his pleasure. In short sketches the trick has been preëminently successful, but, applied to a novel, it falls very far short of success. The human mind is so constituted that it wearies of a long sequence of similar ideas and situations; it is most rapidly surfeited with the whimsical and grotesque. Every telling situation in 'The Late Mrs. Null' is either whimsical or grotesque; so is almost every character. The secret of the beginning is soon an open one; then absurdities, very like in kind, follow each other to a farcical conclusion. The improbability, too, of the complication, without which the novel could not have been written, is glaring. Miss Roberta March is represented as a young woman of considerable worldly experience and fashion, though the turn of her sentences does not lend illusion to the representation. Her engagement to Mr. Junius Keswick has been broken off simply because of the unreasonable opposition of one of his relations. This relation, at times a most amusing old person, lives about fifteen miles from the Virginia homestead which, during a portion of each year, shelters Miss March. This relation roams the countryside in a purple sun-shade, brandishing a purple umbrella. She is necessarily an object of interest and talk, and yet Miss March has neither the sense, judgment, nor curiosity which would impel her to get a sight of Mrs. Keswick and thus to decide at first, as she does at last, that the lady is half mad and not worth any sort of consideration. Decidedly the author is weak in constructive power, and no stronger in that of maintaining suspense. His style has not the grace and lightness which make continued trifling or absurdity excusable. Indeed, in description and what may be called "polite conversation" it is conspicuously heavy. The negro characterizations alone save the book from literary failure. They are all good. The description of Aunt Patsy's preparation for a visit of admonition to the "ole Miss," and of her drive in the ox-cart with Uncle Isham, is perfect, and no one would miss a line concerning the wooden Peggy with her gaze fixed on futurity. If the author had only given us the interview in the Post-office, told us what Patsy said to the "ole Miss," and what the "old Miss" said to Patsy, he would have spared most readers a keen disappointment.

The scene of the 'Aliens' is laid in Warchester, on the Erie Canal, early in the present century. The romance is apparently inspired by the author's conviction that the Irish in America labor under a social disability, and suffer what he calls the "curse of social servitude," not because of personal incapacity or viciousness, but on account of their nationality and their condition as aliens. This conviction is probably very firmly planted in the breasts of disorderly and obnoxious Irish-American citizens. The facts of every-day life disprove it, and the facts of Mr. Keenan's narrative do not sustain it. The mother of the Boyne family was not driven to madness and death by hostile Warchester feeling, but by the abuse and desertion of her husband. It is lame to plead that if the Mayor of Warchester had been more persistent in efforts to reward Hugh Boyne for a service, he would not have turned out a drunken brute. The Boyne children were extremely well cared for by Americans, who, instead of obstructing the path of the orphan aliens, gave them every chance to rise above the humble condition in which they had been born. What of failure as what of success they made was due, even as in mortals not Irish or alien, largely to their personal equipment for the struggle of life. Race prejudice had nothing to do with the pretty Norah's disgrace; it was simply the common end of the old tale of the lass who loves unwisely.

In literary form the 'Aliens' is an improvement on 'Trajan.' The plot is much simpler and more coherent, there is less irrelevant lecturing, less exaggeration. But the author's diffuseness and pomposity are still appalling. He has not got rid of the notion that much sound is an equivalent for sense, otherwise he could not have written, "When a day's ride southward from the city of Penn brought the heir of all the ages into a land of legalized helotry, sordid and soulless as the feudalism of Rome." Moreover, he would have known that not all the fine writing that ever was can stamp with reality such people as his Warchesters, with their date of existence and geographical location fully understood. Certainly he must have realized that no polysyllabic *tour de force* could make the arrival of a tow-boat at a wooden pier quite so impressive from a romantic point of view as, let us say, the beaching of the *Argo* on Colchis' strand.

The author of 'Donovan' and what may be called its sequel, 'We Two,' is a pretty fair preacher, but a better novelist. She carries a good story and a religious controversy side by side through two thick volumes with indisputable success. She keeps both well in hand, guiding her people skilfully through strange vicissitudes, and in argument always putting the right thing in the right mouth. The arguments are far from original, so far that they seem to us profitless iteration, but they are also so fair that it is at times possible to forget that the author is the soul of orthodoxy. She means to call in wanderers from the Christian fold, but she neither asserts dogmatically, nor threatens, nor scolds. She provides people of implicit faith, people of little faith, people of no faith, and treats all with impartiality. She displays serious thought, some humor, a good deal of knowledge of life's by-ways, a joy in the good with or without creed, and a wide charity for sinners. The prominence of her serious motive presupposes some prolixity and dulness, but it is easy to get the whole of the story and the gist of the arguments without weariness.

In Mr. Allen's extraordinary production, 'For Mamie's Sake,' the effect of an "Atheist" father's example upon a young girl is a startling contrast to that wrought upon Erica, in 'We Too,' by the moral but wholly irreligious teaching of her father, Luke Raeburn. The drawing of Erica is sincere, pure, intellectual; the drawing of Mamie is the lowest form of mental expression. If the author means anything, he means to ridicule the conception of original innocence, or even decency, in woman; he means to declare that a woman without orthodox religious belief or conventional training is a mere beast that perishes, having in addition human propensity to evil and human power to do ill. But the evidence of the novel is that he only wished to raise a laugh. He has succeeded admirably in exciting disgust and contempt.

'The Vicar's People' come together in a Cornish village, and are well worth reading about. The burden of the tale is borne by a young mining engineer, Trethick, who is delving for his fortune in the worked-out tin mines. The way is made particularly hard for him by Tregenna, a very dark and astute lawyer, who, in advancing his own business and pleasure, manages to do incredible harm to everybody else. Tregenna is too thoroughly a villain for life or art, and Trethick's virtues did not need so violent a contrast for their illumination. Mr. Fenn makes a specialty of parsons, and the academic, not to say priggish, vicar is one of his best. By his strong, unostentatious support of Trethick in the hour of need, he shows that genuine Christianity needed

to redeem men of his office from the irreverent contempt which a narrow and over-refined personality always excites among a vigorous, healthy, and coarse people. Throughout the book there are fresh and vivacious descriptions of scenery, of the fisher folk and miners—altogether enough good things to compensate for the hackneyed complications of the plot.

'Inquirendo Island' is a satire on the forms and ceremonials of the Christian religion, and on its votaries who, eager to force acceptance of individual interpretation of the letter, distort and defy the spirit. The author has appended two letters, called a "Postface," in which he kindly defines his meaning and moral. This is clearly a case where he who fears falling had best not climb at all. It is better never to write a satire than, having written it, to present it with a semi-apologetic explanation. Besides not being complimentary to the author's own literary skill, or to the reader's intelligence, the Postface is obviously superfluous. Excepting to the bigoted or scrupulously reverential, there can be no doubt about the scope of the satire in the tale of the castaway who came unto a land where the arithmetic was the Bible, and where mathematical symbols and terms were substituted for the ceremonies and stereotyped expression of the various Christian creeds. The idea is original, and, by its extremely ingenious working out, forces a realization of the triviality and absurdity of doctrinal disputes and creed slavery. It suffers from over-elaboration. Brevity is as much the soul of telling satire as of wit. When one-half of 'Inquirendo Island' was written, the author should have had some one at his elbow to cry, "Hold, enough!"

Mr. Harland—or Sidney Luska, as he would seem to prefer being called in connection with his novels—still finds his materials among the Jews of New York. It undoubtedly looks as if he had struck a pocket of some depth and richness, too; yet his work is of a character that is not altogether dependent upon the quality of his materials. Like his first novel, 'Mrs. Peixada' is before all a story—one with a distinct beginning, an interest, and an end of its own, and which makes of naturalism merely a vehicle for its progress. It is a very good story, as stories go; thoroughly thought out, well put together, and not painfully melodramatic even in its most striking situations. One cannot overlook the fact that a story made up of telling incidents, strange coincidences, crimes, and casualties, is of but little value; yet much may be forgiven a writer who can throw such an atmosphere of reality over the uncommon happenings he tells about, and whose characters are so distinct and interesting in their personality. Arthur Ripley and his chum, Julian Hetzel, are very pleasant acquaintances. Mrs. Berle, their landlady—whose husband is a commercial traveller and seldom at home—with her host of relatives at their informal gatherings, makes a unique setting for Mrs. Lehmyl. The inevitable cakes and wine that are passed in Mrs. Berle's parlor, the breezy mingling of English and German in the conversation, the music and talk and cigars, are all touches that count. The peerless Mrs. Lehmyl, however, is the one for whom all the rest is spread out as a background. The view of the river from Beekman Place is for her approval; all the music and discussion of Wagner is apropos of her magnificent voice, and leads up to her singing *Lehn' deine Wang*. The chief objection to characters like Mrs. Lehmyl—in whom, long before she becomes Mrs. Arthur Ripley, the habitual novel-reader easily recognizes Mrs. Peixada—is that, as a set-off to some evil-appearing fact of their lives, they must be endowed with so many and such high excellences. They are apt to seem extravagantly painted. It is an inevitable drawback, however, to any novel which has its tragedy at the wrong end, that there must always be a shadow over the lives of some of the actors. We hope that Sidney Luska will use his undoubted faculty for story-telling in a way that will bring his readers closer to humanity, and lead both him and them entirely away from melodrama and sensationalism.

'The Mill Mystery' is a sensational novel with none of the excellences that save Sidney Luska's novel from being worthless. It is as vicious in plot and style as 'The Leavenworth Case,' and less ingenious. It is nonsensically unreal, and, to the class of readers who will like it, mentally demoralizing. One despairs of a public that keeps up so steady a demand for such books.

'Christie's Choice' is hardly up to the average. The characterization is dim and uncertain, and the attempt to awaken a strong interest by recounting the misfortunes which the war brought to the Roystons—an old Virginian family—is very lame. The liberal spirit toward the North is pleasant to notice, but it seems more the spirit of the writer to-day than of the people and time about which he writes.

Mr. Dowling names his novel 'The Wreckers,' and calls it a social study, while in a modest foreword he acknowledges, in Carlyle's words, "It may be poor enough stuff, but it was the best there was in me." He ought, nevertheless, to remember another saying that Carlyle was fond of—one which he got from the great Frederick.

In 'The Prelate' we are once more treated to a glimpse of the life of Americans in Rome, but one is far from being satisfied with the motive of the story or with the execution. The list of American heroines who have innocently violated the strict etiquette of the effete monarchies—to the consternation of their friends, and to the amusement of the American reader safe in the freedom and confidence of his own shores—was already quite long. It is made altogether too long by the addition of Helen Rathborne, whose *faux pas* was taken with open eyes, and who made a very serious matter of the consequences. Her love affair with Altieri—to warn whom of some unexplained peril from the Vatican she challenged the tongue of slander—seems strained and unnatural. The catastrophe is one of those gratuitous tragedies the very unexpectedness of which proves their lack of artistic truth. The book is further weighted down too heavily with the discussion of theology and the Old Catholic movement.

Of course 'Our Sensation Novel' cannot be taken seriously, even though Mr. Justin H. McCarthy regrets that he is not the writer of it. At least he is godfather to the book, and may some day tell how he came by the manuscript. After all, it is only tolerably clever and half-way amusing. The chapters which parody Thackeray remind one of a base-ball player's first game at tennis, while Victor Hugo is as clumsily handled.

HODGKIN'S INVADERS OF ITALY.

Italy and her Invaders. By Thomas Hodgkin, Fellow of University College, London, Hon. D.C.L. of Durham University. Vol. III. The Ostrogothic Invasion. Vol. IV. The Imperial Restoration. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

EVERY student of that most important and difficult period which intervenes between ancient and modern history will be rejoiced to have a fresh instalment of Mr. Hodgkin's work. The most important fact of this transition period—next, at least, to the Christianization of the world, which was accomplished at this very time—is the slow incorporation of the German nationality into the classical world; and there is perhaps no event in all history which is harder to make real and intelligible to the modern age than just this. This difficulty finds expression, indeed, in the uncertainty and variety of the terms used to describe it. Whether we call them "barbarians" or "German tribes"; whether we call the act of their settlement in the countries of the Empire a "migration," an "invasion," or a "conquest;" our choice of terms depends principally upon the point of view from which we look at the events, and the conception we form of the changes wrought by them. A book, therefore, which, like the one before us, aims—without much theorizing or defining—to tell just what took place and how it took place, is most welcome and helpful. Mr. Hodgkin does not lack the capacity or the taste for general views; but he knows very well that these need to be built upon a thorough knowledge of concrete facts, and that no period of history has suffered more from hasty and one-sided generalizations than the one which he is treating. As an Englishman, he is free from the national bias which is so apt to warp the judgment of French and German historians; and his general remarks, when he presents any, are always weighty, well considered, and forcible.

These new volumes have in themselves much greater unity than the two earlier ones, and are decidedly superior as historical compositions. The first two volumes contained, besides introductory matter, four independent series of events: the history of the Visigoths, the Vandals, and the Huns, and the revolution of Odoacer. Independent, that is, so far as contemporary historical events can be independent of one another, and each of them (except the last) relating quite as much to other countries as to Italy. This feature, indeed, while destroying the unity and continuity of the work, increased its value to the student, for it is, to all intents and purposes, a complete history of the barbarian migrations during the period which it covers. The two new volumes, on the other hand—half as large again as their predecessors—are devoted to the history of a single well-defined series of events, the establishment and overthrow of the Ostrogothic empire. The downfall of the Vandal dominion is related incidentally, and we learn a good deal of the contemporary history of the Franks, Burgundians, Alemannians, and even the Visigoths, so far as these events are directly connected with the history of Italy; but these nations are neglected except where their history bears directly upon the subject of the book.

The greater unity of the subject has made possible greater freedom and effectiveness of treatment. No doubt the subject is itself more noble and picturesque, being the history of three such heroic characters as Theodoric, Belisarius, and Totila. The greater fulness of materials, too, than in the earlier period, is a great help to the historian, and we must not leave out of consideration the increased facility of pen that comes with practice. From all these causes we have a work of great literary merit, placing Mr. Hodgkin high in our list of contemporary historians. We will mention as especially good the account of the defence of Rome by Belisarius, and the whole story of the career of Totila.

The question how to define the movements of the German tribes and their relation to the imperial Government must receive a different answer in different cases. In some cases it was a conquering invasion, in some a simple migration; and the difficulties and controversies of the subject are partly caused, at least, by the different points of view of different writers. Nor, in any one case, is it expedient to be over-logical: the relations of the same tribe varied, and even when relations were unchanged, legal rights and obligations were not always observed. The Ostrogoths, for example, as Mr. Hodgkin is careful to point out, were *fœderati*—that is, allies of the Roman Empire; and it was distinctly in this ca-

pacity, as allies of the Emperor and at his instigation, that they invaded Italy and overthrew Odoacer. And there had been no formal change in the relation, or in the duties growing out of it, when the successor of this Emperor sent his armies against the successor of the Ostrogothic invader, and put an end to the rule of the Ostrogoths, as these had put an end to that of Odoacer (see the discussion, vol. iii, p. 435). Thus, the Ostrogoths conquered Italy, to be sure, but conquered it not from the Empire, but from an alleged usurper. And they themselves, from being subjects, and, so to speak, agents of the Empire, coming to assert for themselves a virtual independence, were in their turn regarded as exercising a usurped power, like their predecessors, and treated as enemies. All the phases in these shifting relations are clearly brought out in the book before us.

We see, too, by concrete examples, exactly what was the relation of *fœderati* sustained by so many of these Germanic nations—a puzzling, anomalous relation at first sight, because they were not independent nations, allied to Rome, as the name would indicate, but were on the soil of the Empire itself, residing in territories assigned to them, or wandering at large over the provinces. The anomaly is partly explained by the fact that the treaty relations were in many cases formed while the tribes were still outside the boundaries of the Empire, and were continued after they had crossed into its territories. But the true explanation is to be found in the tribal organization in which these nations still were; and we in the United States can form to ourselves a clearer notion of the relation from the fact that it is essentially that which has existed between our Government and the Indian tribes. In matters of detail there is a great difference. It is now generally agreed that the elaborate parallelism drawn by M. Guizot between the North American Indians and the Germans of the migration is superficial and deceptive. The Germans were certainly at a higher degree of political development than even the Iroquois, the furthest advanced of the Indians; and, without undervaluing the natural capacity and teachableness of the Indians, it is hard to conceive of Red Jacket and his Senecas as occupying the place of Theodoric and his Ostrogoths. Again, the *fœderati* were intruders, not natives of the soil. But this fact only makes the analogy more striking; it shows that the treaty relation had its origin, in both cases, not in the fact that they were a foreign people, but in the fact that their tribal organization kept them a foreign people, even on the soil of the Empire.

Another interesting point of analogy is in the relation to the land. The *fœdus* which assigned Macedonia to the Ostrogoths (vol. iii, p. 29), established a condition of things not unlike that which fixes the Sioux or Nez-Percés upon a reservation. The title to the land is not the same. The very name *reservation* shows that they, the original owners, kept this part of their land while giving up the rest; while the lands of the Ostrogoths were a *grant*. But the Ostrogoths upon their grant were very much like the Nez-Percés on their reservation. There is, of course, one fundamental point of contrast: the *fœderati* were soldiers of the Empire—that was the very object of the treaty relations; while a very natural policy forbids the employment in our army of those auxiliaries who disgraced the army of Burgoyne. But we can at least conceive of Indian contingents in our army—we believe they have been used to a moderate extent; and we have heard that it was seriously proposed to give a commission to Chief Joseph. Chief Joseph as major-general in our army and Governor of Idaho, would have afforded a pretty exact parallel to Theodoric as *consul ordinarius* and *magister militum*.

We have already referred to one or two points of special excellence in these volumes, and many others might be mentioned. The sketch of the aqueducts is very complete and interesting, and the passage which describes the historical results of their destruction by Witigis is very suggestive. From this time, the author says, the Roman people will be found much changed—"in some respects better people than their ancestors, more devout, less arrogant, perhaps less licentious, but they will not be so well washed a people." A very graphic passage is the description (vol. iv, p. 568) of the desolation of Rome after its capture and abandonment by Totila: "Rome itself, though not ruined, was left without a single inhabitant." The reflections that follow are excellent; and when (p. 614) we are told that Diogenes, the defender of Rome in its third siege, "had some great breadths of land within the walls sown with corn," converting the city into "a little, well-ordered, and prosperous farm," we seem to get near to an explanation of that most puzzling phenomenon, the covering even of the hilltops of Rome many feet deep with earth and rubbish.

We must not pass over without mention the chapters and paragraphs which treat of ecclesiastical history, which are admirably fair and lucid; but, indeed, every page of the work shows the fruits of conscientious industry and literary skill.

Signs and Seasons. By John Burroughs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1886.

A BOOK by John Burroughs is itself a sign of the season, a kind of warning that it is time to leave our books and see the flowers and the birds come; but it is well to spend a morning over his pages first, and educate our eyes a little. For some reason this new volume has been somewhat disappointing to us. There is the same exactness of observation, the same sense of a greater intimacy with wild life than is open through any other introduction, the same comradery of our guide with nature. We note his giving up faith in the birds' and "beasties'" foreknowledge of hard or open winters, and in general an impression that the life of wild creatures is less securely guarded by instinct than we have come to believe—is tentative, dangerous, and attended by much bad fortune. We follow him to the Maine woods and the seashore, or stay by his home on the Hudson, with equal pleasure, and glance into those parts of his note-book and correspondence which he opens for our profit; and yet, at the end, it does not seem that we had been much out-of-doors. Can it be that the naturalist himself has become somewhat sophisticated? A suspicion of this sort would glide into our minds, and disturbed our enjoyment.

The book has a literariness which is very pronounced, and which interferes sadly with the simplicity of the common sounds and sights of nature which it reports. Mr. Burroughs was not a born writer, and the vice inherent in any adopted style (especially after such a model as Emerson) has grown upon him. He not infrequently aims at a literary effect, usually in the region of landscape sentiment, as one may call it, and, as he is not a poet, the results are displeasing. This is the case in a greater degree because his style—Emerson's style—is selective, and requires unerring justness of taste. The wrong word, the wrong antithesis, become the more awkward, and it is harder to pass over them. What could be more distinctively "literary" than this characterization of Whitman?

"Whitman is essentially of the shore: his bearded, aboriginal quality, something in his words that smite and chafe, a tonic like salt-air, not sweet, but dilating; his irregular flowing, repeating, elliptical lines; his sense of space and constant reference to the earth and the orbs as standards and symbols. His poems are rarely architectural or sculpturesque, either to the eye or mind: no carving and shaping merely for art's sake; but floating, drifting, surging masses of concrete events and images more or less nebular, protoplastic, and preliminary, but always potent and alive, and full of the salt of the earth, holding in solution as no other poet does his times and country."

"Words, words, words," surely, if anything ever was! And on this follows an exclamatory paragraph upon the sea, full of antithesis and rhetorical ambition—"the great canceller, leveller, distributer, neutralizer, and sponge of oblivion," etc. And yet in this passage, which is not conspicuously bad except in its affectation, the ocean is called "the cesspool of the continents," and the waves are spoken of as "creeping up the sands as with the rustle of an infant's drapery"! To all such language we would our author, who charms us with the simplicity of nature, might bid a long farewell; it is not for him to wear the finery of speech.

The Kilima-Njaro Expedition: A record of scientific exploration in Eastern Equatorial Africa, and a general description of the natural history, languages, and commerce of the Kilima-njaro district. By H. H. Johnston. With six maps and over eighty illustrations by the author. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1886. Pp. xv, 572, 8vo.

THE terrestrial paradise in Eastern Africa, described in such glowing colors in Thomson's 'Through Masai Land,' loses none of its charms in the present volume. In some respects the later of the two accounts is the more attractive, while it is a record of a much longer stay among the scenes pictured. The object of Mr. Johnston's expedition, sent out under the joint auspices of the Royal Society and the British Association, was simply to investigate the fauna and flora of the mountain district of Kilima-Njaro, in the hope that it might prove to be "a refuge and last abiding-place for low types or peculiar forms," possibly even of man. With this end in view, he made a settlement on the side of the mountain at an elevation of about 5,000 feet, where he lived for nearly six months. During this time, notwithstanding he had no assistant trained to prepare specimens, and was often thwarted by the natives for weeks together, he succeeded in making large collections of plants and animals, many of which were new to science. In addition to this, he collected vocabularies of four different languages spoken by the inhabitants of the district, and made grammatical studies of two. These latter investigations will doubtless throw much light upon the question as to the original language of the negroes inhabiting Africa south of the equator.

More interesting, however, to the general reader than these linguistic discussions, which, with the chapters on the scientific results of the expedition, are put at the end of the volume, will be the lively and entertaining descriptions of the country, the people, and the author's adventures among them. He appears to have shown great tact and patience, as well as resolution, in his dealings with the natives, whose chief characteristic seems to be an insatiable greed. Notwithstanding that the inhabitable country is portioned out among numerous independent tribes who are always at war with one another, and that he was several times attacked, he was able to avoid the use of firearms in self-defence except in a single instance. Once he warded off an assault by the threatening appearance of a theodolite mounted on its tripod stand. At another time an opportune display of fireworks, in which the

"flaming shower and shrieking rush" of a rocket played an important part, put to flight an overwhelming force of hostile natives. The fame of this exploit rapidly spread, and he was naturally regarded as a powerful magician by the whole people of the country. Several attempts to reach the summit of the mountain failed, partly on account of the unfavorable weather, but chiefly through the superstitious fears of the natives, who could not be prevailed upon to accompany him. He was able, however, to reach the snow at an elevation of 16,315 ft., or within nearly 2,000 ft. of the summit.

In the closing chapter Mr. Johnston discusses the "commercial prospects" of this region. There can be no doubt that it offers unusual advantages to the trader or the settler. It is only a fortnight's journey from the coast, and, though but three degrees south of the equator, has in the higher portions a temperate climate. The middle mountain region on the southern slope is easily irrigated and astonishingly fertile. Besides tropical productions, all kinds of European vegetables were grown in the garden of Mr. Johnston's settlement. It is free from the pests which make a residence in other parts of Africa almost unendurable; mosquitoes, for instance, being "entirely absent from most parts of the country." The plains at the foot of the mountain are roamed over by vast herds of game, which will no doubt in time give place to equally vast herds of cattle. The natives are friendly, and ready to welcome traders who deal honestly with them. They are beginning to feel the first desires after the benefits which civilization can confer. It is indeed almost with a shock of incredulity that we read that the now well-known chief Mandara, still to all appearance a mere naked savage, wanted Mr. Johnston "to open a banking account for him at Zanzibar, and he had a distinct though crude idea of drawing cheques." This chief appears to be the only one, according to late German accounts, who has as yet successfully resisted the agents of the East-African Society, which has—on paper at least—recently annexed this whole region. There were rumors of this at the time of Mr. Johnston's visit in 1884, and Mandara was especially uneasy. "His suspicions and fears" of the French and Germans, says the former, "were positively ridiculous, considering that they both ignored his existence, and had never at any time evinced the slightest wish to annex Kilima-Njaro." The savage was better informed than the Englishman, for, not eight months after Johnston left, the annexation was announced, in which an obscure reference to Mandara leads one to conclude that a treaty had not yet been obtained from him. It only remains to say of this very entertaining book that the author's style is simple and well adapted to his subject, his account of a day's occupation, for instance, being a charming piece of descriptive writing. It may be well to mention that Professor Bonney is President of the Geological Society, not of the Geographical Society, as by a mere slip of the pen at page 328 he is termed. Some excellent illustrations and maps add much to the value of this work.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, J. Life of Nelson. George Routledge & Sons. 10 cents.
Armstrong, G. D. The Two Books of Nature and Revelation Collated. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Bacon, L. W. The Simplicity that is in Christ: Sermons. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Bartlett, E. T., and Peters, J. P. Scriptures, Hebrew and Christian; Arranged and Edited for Young Readers, as an Introduction to the Study of the Bible. Vol. I. From Creation to the Exile. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Bax, E. B. A Handbook of the History of Philosophy for the Use of Students. Bohn's Philosophical Library. Scribner & Welford.
Chancellor, E. B. The Life of Charles I., 1600—1625. Scribner & Welford.
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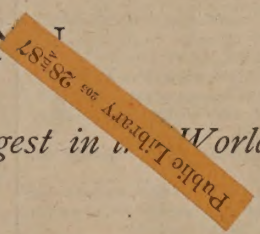

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The Nation.

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The Week.

THE appointment of a Collector of Internal Revenue is in itself a comparatively trivial act, but circumstances may render the President's action in filling such an office a matter of general interest. Such is the case with regard to Mr. Cleveland's selection for the Boston Collectorship. A year ago, through too implicit reliance upon party advisers whom he did not know so well then as he does now, he was persuaded to appoint Pillsbury to this place. The Senate rejected the nomination, and Mr. Cleveland's course in choosing Pillsbury's successor became a test of his fidelity to reform. After taking ample time for reflection, he has picked out Mr. John E. Fitzgerald, a Democrat of high character and of proved executive ability, a sincere believer in civil-service reform, and an outspoken advocate of better methods in politics—in short, a man thoroughly satisfactory to all Independent voters. All the circumstances of Mr. Fitzgerald's selection emphasize its significance. He was so far from being a seeker after the office that the President had to urge him to accept it as a duty. In an interview with him, as reported by a trustworthy Washington correspondent, "Mr. Cleveland expressed an earnest desire to make such appointments in Massachusetts as would give satisfaction to the Democratic party and to the young Independent element, whose work in the campaign of 1884 proved so powerful an aid to the Democratic party, and whose influence, the President believes, can be made a powerful factor in securing good government and in building up the party. He remarked incidentally to Mr. Fitzgerald that he did not know very much about affairs in Massachusetts, and what he desired as much as anything was accurate and trustworthy information about men. He wanted to appoint men of real standing to office, and not mere hangers-on and place-hunters. He did not seem to have a very high opinion of town committees as a source of information about candidates for office." The Blaine organs have been rejoicing over the story that the President had finally resolved to "abandon the Mugwumps," and prophesying that he would administer a pointed snub to the Independents every chance he got. The more abandonment and snubs of the Fitzgerald sort the Mugwumps suffer, the better will they like it.

The thriving little city of Springfield, Mass., is preparing to celebrate the 250th anniversary of its foundation next week, and has been felicitating itself upon possessing the fresh distinction of being a port of entry. Early in the session the business men made a push for the enactment by Congress of a law constituting Springfield a port of entry, and a few days ago the bill was sent to the President, who was expected to sign it as a matter of course. But on Monday Mr. Cleveland returned it with a statement of his objections, which are that, instead of increasing the number of ports, and thus the intricacies of the present system for collecting customs duties, the system itself should be reformed; that an experienced force of employees at the ports where goods for Springfield are admitted would be much better qualified to adjust the duties upon the same than the Surveyor of Customs at Springfield, whom it is proposed to add to the vast army of Federal officials; that there are many cities in the different States having larger populations than Springfield, and fully as much entitled (upon every ground presented) to the advantages sought by this bill; and that the following of precedents which the proposed legislation would establish could not fail to produce confusion and uncertainty in the adjustment of customs duties, leading to irritating discriminations and probable loss to the Government. Of course, the expense of these little inland custom-houses would not stop with the appointment of a Surveyor of Customs at each place. The Surveyor, in due time, would want clerks and office room and a bonded warehouse, together with furniture, stationery, lighting, heating, and repairs. Very few persons knew that any such bill was pending until the President returned it with his objections. The reasons why it was passed are still unknown to the country, and will probably forever remain a secret.

One of General Grant's notable services to the country as President was his firmness in blocking a threatening raid of the pension demagogues upon the Treasury by his refusal to approve the equalization of bounties scheme nearly a dozen years ago. This was a project for giving the soldier who received a small bounty early in the war the difference between that sum and the larger amount paid later in the struggle. The fatal defect of the proposition consisted in the fact that no real equalization was possible, since it was as unfair that a man who enlisted near the end of the war and never saw active service received $300, like the man who enlisted in 1862 and went through a score of battles, as that a man who enlisted in 1861 for three years received only $100, while another who enlisted in 1862 got $300. No one could tell how much the equalization scheme would cost, but $100,000,000 appeared to be a reasonable estimate. General Grant saw the unfairness of imposing upon the taxpayers so heavy a load for so unjustifiable a purpose, and when the bill came to him in the expiring hours of the Forty-third Congress on the 4th of March, 1875, he vetoed it and defeated the scheme.

It was hoped that this defeat of the project by the most distinguished soldier of the war meant its death, but it has maintained a lingering existence ever since, until Senator Logan has taken advantage of the present pension craze in Congress to report another bill for this purpose. In advocating its passage he says that "the reasons assigned by the President for his failure to give it his approval when it passed both houses in the Forty-third Congress—that the depleted condition of the Treasury would not warrant the payment of so large a sum—cannot be assigned at this time." Cannot, indeed? Senator Logan has apparently never taken the trouble to investigate the present and prospective condition of the Treasury. If he had done so, he would have learned that the estimated expenditures for the next fiscal year (beginning with July 1, 1886) exceed the estimated revenues by nearly $25,000,000, according to Secretary Manning's figures last December, while the act increasing widows' pensions since passed will swell the deficit to about $30,000,000. Moreover, Senator Logan is disingenuous when he gives the impression that General Grant based his veto solely upon the ground that the Treasury could not stand the strain. He gave another reason, which is now, as it was then, conclusive against the scheme, whether the Treasury were full or empty, in these words:

> "Second—I do not believe that any considerable proportion of the ex-soldiers who, it is supposed, will be the beneficiaries of this appropriation, are applicants for it, but rather it would result more in a measure for the relief of claim agents and middlemen, who intervene, or would intervene, to collect or discount the bounty granted by it."

Happily, if the Congressional demagogues should in 1886 again pass this $100,000,000 Equalization Bill, the taxpayers may depend upon a Democratic President to protect the Treasury, as a Republican President did when a similar raid was made in 1875.

A cable telegram from London supplies the long-concealed reason of the Canadian authorities for seizing the fishing schooner *David J. Adams*. It was drawn out by an inquiry in Parliament, which led to the statement on the part of the Under-Secretary for the Colonies that "the schooner had not complied with maritime law, had concealed her name, her port, and her register; that the case would be investigated in the Halifax Admiralty Court, and that no question of territorial waters was involved." This was the substance of a reply made by the Marquis of Lansdowne, Governor-General of Canada, to an inquiry from Lord Granville. Other information corroborates this, but there can scarcely be a doubt that the seizure was made for a different reason (viz., bait buying), and that the fact of the *Adams* being without regular papers, and having thus committed an infraction of maritime law, came in as a lucky accident, and supplied an afterthought to justify what would otherwise have been a serious breach of international comity.

The amendment to the Dingley Shipping Bill, passed by unanimous vote of the Senate on Monday, authorizing the President to accord to the vessels of foreign countries the same trading privileges that they accord to our vessels, is of course intended to put a little common sense into the heads of our Canadian neighbors, who are now seizing American fishing vessels for the offence of buying bait in their ports, in violation, as they say, of the Treaty of 1818. That treaty admitted our fishermen to Canadian ports for shelter, repairs, wood, and water, and for no

other purposes. Since that time, however, both Great Britain and the United States have extended the privileges of foreign vessels in their ports to all the subjects of lawful trade except the coastwise carrying trade, the laws of Great Britain including that also. At all events the contention on our side is, that the Treaty of 1818, as regards trade, but not as regards fishing limits, has been specifically superseded by subsequent legislation. Of this there can be very little doubt. Still less can we doubt that the technicalities which surround the fishing business — and they are certainly numerous—must yield to the prime consideration that what the Canadians are willing to sell, whether it be firewood or ice, tarred rope or bait, we have the right to buy. The right to fish within the three-mile limit is a different matter altogether, and when any such question is raised it must be considered by itself; but the right to buy herring for bait is in nowise different from the right to buy herring for food. There can be no two opinions upon this question among us. Those who regard this whole fishery dispute as an unworthy trick and device to tax the people of the United States a cent a pound on their fish food for the benefit of a class whose industry, according to their own account, has been increasing, and therefore flourishing, without any duty these ten years past, are bound, equally with all others, to uphold the common rights of maritime intercourse for fishermen, as well as for everybody who finds his livelihood upon the sea.

Mr. Blair got his little pension bill before the Senate on Thursday, and urged its passage on the ground that it would take "only $25,000,000" a year out of the Treasury—which is, of course, a mere bagatelle to the New Hampshire statesman. An excellent speech against the scheme was made by Mr. Berry, of Arkansas, an ex-Confederate soldier, whose chief points are thus summarized:

"Mr. Berry said the Senate was asked to vote on this bill with eyes closed. The Committee gave no estimate of the amount of money it involved. Even the personal opinion of Mr. Blair upon it was admittedly indefinite, and the Senate could not say whether the amount called for by the bill would be $25,000,000 or $50,000,000. Nobody denied that the men who defended the flag were entitled to reward—least of all would that be denied by the men who had opposed them; but it did not follow that every other obligation should be ignored, or that we should be unmindful of the rights of the vast number of people in this country who were not soldiers. Mr. Berry thought it time to call a halt. He did not believe the Union soldiers wanted this bill. As a rule they were men able to take care of themselves. He judged of the Union soldiers by their opponents in saying that he did not believe they wanted this bill. The soldiers of the South, he said, returned from the war to find only lone chimneys standing to mark the places where happy homes had stood. Yet those soldiers had worked their way out of their difficulties. He had never known an Arkansas soldier to beg for bread or become dependent on the public for support. He (Mr. Berry) was opposed to the bill—not that he is not as loyal a citizen and as proud of his American citizenship and of his country as the men that had followed General Grant, but because the condition of the soldiers did not demand it, and the condition of the people and their finances did not warrant it."

It would scarcely be possible to state more strongly the argument against the proposed law of Congress to tax bogus butter out of existence than it is stated in an article in the *Ohio Farmer*, by Mr. J. T. Brooks. The fact is brought out with great clearness that the rights of those who make butter out of tallow are as sacred as the rights of those who make it out of cream, and that legislation discriminating against one of them may be invoked against the other and against all other trades and occupations in turn. In other words, it will eventually devolve upon Congress to decide what trades and industries, harmless in themselves, people shall be allowed to make their living by. Mr. Brooks holds that when laws shall have been passed to prevent the deception of the buyer, so that he may know exactly what he is buying, all the ends of safe and proper legislation will have been reached. Anything beyond that is a dangerous infringement of liberty.

Governor Hill's appointment, for it really is his, of John O'Brien as Receiver of the Broadway Railway is thoroughly bad. Mr. O'Brien is Chairman of the Democratic State Committee and the largest contractor upon the new aqueduct. He is generally believed to be hand-in-glove with Squire, and to have organized with him and John J. O'Brien the "deal" by which the new Aqueduct Bill was passed. He is a politician pure and simple, who believes in using every office and position of public trust for the benefit of his party. His appointment means the introduction of "politics" into the settlement of the Broadway Railway controversy, and greatly complicates a case which was sufficiently complicated before. The Governor's hand in the selection is perfectly plain. The appointment was approved by Judge Parker, who was himself Chairman of the Democratic Executive Committee of this State in the campaign in which Governor Hill was elected, and whose services in that campaign the Governor rewarded by making him a Supreme Court judge in place of the late Judge Westbrook. The Governor is using every appointment in his gift as a means for building up in the State a Hill Machine which will boom him as a Presidential candidate. He was elected as a genuine Jeffersonian Democrat, who represented the spoils wing of his party, and he is simply carrying out the doctrines which he has always professed.

There is a curious experiment being made by the politicians of both parties in this State, and we shall watch with great interest to see how it results. Governor Hill is doing his best upon the one hand to make himself a Presidential nominee by the use of patronage. He makes an occasional pretence of zeal for the public good, but it is usually very feeble, and is so thinly disguised that it deceives nobody. He has the solid Democratic organization behind him, and he may be said to represent an organized and systematic movement of the Democratic party in New York State to demonstrate that civil-service reform doctrines are played out, and that the spoils doctrine is the one for the party to win on in 1888. In the Republican ranks, the politicians are making a precisely similar movement in the interest of Mr. Blaine. Indeed, they have openly joined hands with the Hill Democrats in a plunder combination, dividing the patronage, and scoffing at reformers and reforms. Thus a Hill boom and a Blaine boom are being "worked" side by side in New York State, each based upon public plunder, each based upon open defiance of the public interest, and each vying with the other in derision of reform principles. The pushers of each are trusting that the same spoils machine which they expect will give their candidate the Presidential nomination, will be powerful enough to give him the electoral vote of the State afterward—in other words, that they can secure enough plunder from the taxpayers to buy a Presidential election.

Massachusetts has lost her old leadership. It was not until a year after New York had set the example that a civil-service law was enacted in Massachusetts, and now that the politicians in this State have unwillingly concluded that the merit system cannot be overthrown, the legislators in Massachusetts are diligently engaged in breaking it down, with every prospect of success. A bill has passed the lower House by an overwhelming majority, against the earnest protests of many veterans, allowing old soldiers to be appointed to office without passing any examination. The politicians make no concealment of their expectation that this will prove the first step toward doing away with civil-service reform entirely, and the fact that such a measure should pass the Massachusetts House by a vote of nearly three to one shows a sad state of demoralization among the law-makers.

The naïveté of the Central Labor Union all through these labor troubles has been something very diverting. There is probably no other body of men earning an honest livelihood in this country who would publicly denounce the police as their great enemy. In all free countries, whatever objections some may have to the army, every man, even the thief, at least affects to feel no dread of the constable. But the Central Labor Union actually passed the following resolution on Sunday:

"Resolved, That we, the members of the Central Labor Union, view the passage of the bill to create 500 extra police as a direct menace to the organized workingmen of this city, and we ask Governor Hill to withhold his signature."

This suggests the question whether the Union does not consider the proposed increase of the force really an aggravation of an existing evil—that is, whether the whole force is not a menace to the Union, and the addition of 500 men a deepening of the wrong. Not long ago a Labor Union in Troy passed a resolution calling on the delegates to the Legislature from the district to introduce a bill forbidding the introduction into the county of strange detectives from other counties, by way of preparation for a grand strike this summer. Shall we not soon have a meeting of "laborers" in the upper wards asking for the withdrawal of the police from the district above Fifty-ninth Street between ten and five every night? Is not the presence of the police in that region a constant and insulting threat to a large class of toilers?

A "Union" in Brooklyn a few weeks ago peremptorily ordered the sugar refiners to strike

at an hour when a cessation of work would cause immense loss to the employers, and not to resume work unless their employers would accede to their demands. The employers saw that compliance meant the surrender of all control over their business to this irresponsible body, and refused to yield. The strikers loudly declared that they would only return in a body, and they set out to prevent by violence other men who were anxious to work from taking their places. The employers gradually filled the refineries with men who had courage enough to take the chances of getting their heads broken, until the strikers saw that all hope of success was gone and made a rush for the vacant places. Now that all of them have lost a month's wages, and many of them all chance of earning wages in their old places, the interesting fact comes out that the strike was ordered by an "Executive Committee" of three, only one of whom ever worked in a sugar house, while of the other two, one keeps a liquor-saloon which has been the headquarters of the "Union," and the third is about to open a rum-shop!

The first trial of a boycotter for law-breaking has just occurred at New Haven, where a "walking delegate," who had been trying to break up another man's business, has been fined $50 and costs. The case goes to a higher court upon appeal, but no doubt appears to be entertained that the decision will be sustained. The idea that one man may deliberately go to work to ruin another man's business, is not likely to hold water in the courts of any State.

Boycotting appears to be as unpopular in Western as in Eastern courts. A Milwaukee baker chose to employ men who did not belong to a "Union," and the "Union" resolved to ruin his business by boycotting him. But one of the boycotters was arrested while distributing circulars in front of the bakery, and promptly sentenced by the Court to pay a fine of $25, the Judge declaring that "such interference was unlawful, as it was clearly a scheme to destroy the business of a man who refused to be intimidated." He compared boycotting with mob rule, and added that he was surprised that the people had stood so much of it without bringing the offenders to justice.

The recently issued report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction in Kentucky is the most encouraging piece of news that has come from that State for many a year. The curse of Kentucky has been the ignorance of the masses of her people, and the despair of her enlightened citizens has been the contentment of the masses with their ignorance. The State is rich and prosperous; it is much better able to provide efficient public schools and give all its children a good education than such New England commonwealths as New Hampshire and Vermont. The trouble has been that the taxpayers could not be made to see their duty. The encouraging thing about this report is that it shows that the people have at last awakened to a sense of the situation. In 1880 the State school fund was only $627,143; in 1886 it is $1,029,481. In 1880 local taxation for school purposes yielded only $384,910; now it yields $589,082. The total increase since 1880 exceeds $600,000, while a new assessment law is expected further to increase the school revenues by fully $400,000 a year. The absurdity of the Blair bill, which a Kentucky representative, Mr. Willis, has dishonored his State by advocating, could not be more conclusively demonstrated than by these figures. In 1880, the advocates of Federal aid begged for it on the plea that Kentucky could not raise any more money for schools than she was then raising; in 1886 she is raising above $600,000 more than in 1880, and in 1887 the increase will probably exceed $1,000,000.

The departure of Mr. Augustin Daly and his company for England and the European Continent on Saturday is an event of something more than merely theatrical interest. Mr. Daly is one of the very few managers in this country who are qualified by education, experience, and natural aptitude for the positions which they occupy, and who understand and try to illustrate the artistic possibilities and real significance of their profession. Admirers and students of the stage would despair of its future were it not for the intelligent efforts of men like him and two or three of his most prominent rivals, and the hearty support which has borne witness to the public appreciation of those efforts. Mr. Daly's company is unrivalled on this side of the Atlantic in representations of light modern comedy, and certainly need not fear comparison with any organization of a similar character in Europe. It is honestly entitled to exhibit itself as an example of American dramatic achievement in a most attractive and varied field, and will dissipate, it is to be hoped, some of the false impressions which must have been created during the last two or three years by certain pretenders who have disported themselves in London, and have been accepted as actors of high standing in America. Mr. Jefferson, Mr. Booth, Mr. Barrett, and Mr. McCullough have proved by their individual excellences that the dramatic art is not neglected here, but their triumphs were personal, whereas Mr. Daly trusts to no one member of his company for success, whether it be artistic or pecuniary. It is because his company is essentially American in its composition, its training, its intelligence, and its methods, that his enterprise deserves to be watched with sympathetic interest. The critical praise bestowed upon his players upon their first excursion across the sea makes it certain that their welcome this time will be hearty. They will challenge fortune not only in London, but in Liverpool, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Dublin, Hamburg, Berlin, and Paris, where they will find many old friends. In this tour Mr. Daly, if he be wise, will find a double opportunity. Money is good, and his countrymen will wish him an abundance of it, but instruction is better still, and it is to be hoped, for his own sake and New York's, that he will give his actors a chance of studying the best acting in Europe, as well as of displaying their own abilities.

All signs point to a dissolution of Parliament n England. This appears to be the only way of getting rid of the opposition to home rule which has been developed within the Liberal party under the leadership of Chamberlain and Hartington. That it will get rid of it pretty effectually there now appears to be little doubt. In other words, Gladstone seems likely to sweep the country almost as overwhelmingly as in 1880. The leading Liberal organizations are one by one rallying to his support—the last being that of London, perhaps the most radical of all. All that have spoken repudiate Chamberlain, whose blunder appears to be one of the most inexplicable ever committed by a public man. His overestimate of his own weight with the country as compared to Gladstone's has evidently been immense. What has most damaged him, however, is not so much the fact that he has differed with Gladstone and separated himself from him, as the manner in which he has done it. The first sign of departure from the paths of rectitude was his suggestion that because Gladstone made a mistake about the secessionist movement at the South, he therefore had probably made another about the home-rule movement in Ireland. This was clearly not only a spiteful but a disingenuous suggestion. It does not follow from Gladstone's having erred twenty years ago about a foreign question on which his information was necessarily imperfect, that his opinion is worthless on a home question to-day with which he has been familiar for half a century. The mention of it, in fact, was a mere jibe, which, coming from a political youngster to a veteran under whom he had made his début, was, to say the least, unbecoming.

Mr. Chamberlain's new position, about the right of Ulster not to be governed by the rest of Ireland, is so disingenuous and misleading that it cannot but still further shake the confidence of the mass of English Liberals in his honesty as well as his sagacity. Of all the pretences put forward by the opponents of home rule, the pretence that Ulster is an exclusively Protestant and English or Scotch province is the shallowest, and yet it has played, and is playing, a leading part in the discussion. The total population of the nine counties of Ulster is 1,464,587; of these 633,566, or nearly one-half, are Catholics. But this is not the whole story. In only four of the nine counties—Antrim, Armagh, Down, and Derry—are the Protestants in a majority. In all the others the Catholics outnumber them overwhelmingly. So that what the opponents of home rule really mean when they are talking of "Ulster" is a small part of Ulster, and when they are demanding autonomy or separation for it, they are really claiming the right of the 671,687 Protestants in these four counties, out of a population of over 5,000,000, to set up an *imperium in imperio*, and live apart from the rest of the community, which is ridiculous. There is no doubt that these 671,687 are on the whole more wealthy and prosperous than other Irishmen, which is a reason why they should have the fullest protection against any sort of hostile or discriminating legislation; but Mr. Gladstone's bill affords all such protection that law, backed by the British army and navy, can give.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 12, to TUESDAY, May 18, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND on Monday vetoed the bill making Springfield, Mass., a port of entry. He says: "I am of the opinion that the reforms of present methods, which have been lately earnestly pressed upon Congress, should be inaugurated instead of increasing the number of ports where present evils may be further extended. The bill now under consideration provides that a Surveyor of Customs shall be appointed to reside at said port, who shall receive a salary not to exceed $1,000 per annum. It is quite obvious that an experienced force of employees at the ports where goods for Springfield are admitted, would be much better qualified to adjust the duties upon the same than the person thus proposed to be added to the vast army of Federal officials."

Up to this date the President has in all sent about 2,100 nominations for civil offices to the Senate. Of these 1,700 have been confirmed and only 13 rejected. The remaining 400 will be disposed of in a comparatively short time, and it is not expected that the proportion of rejections will be increased.

The Senate on Wednesday passed the Inter-State Commerce Bill by a vote of 43 to 4. It contains the important amendment prohibiting the charging of more for a short than a long haul over the same line, in the same direction, from the same starting-point or to the same destination.

The Senate Committee on Commerce on Thursday ordered a favorable report on Senator Frye's bill to limit the commercial privileges of vessels of foreign countries in the ports of the United States to such purposes as are accorded to American vessels in the ports of such foreign countries. The bill will be reported as an amendment to the Shipping Bill.

In the Senate on Monday Mr. Frye (Rep., Me.) called up the House Shipping Bill. This is the bill passed by the House of Representatives on February 4 last abolishing the fees for measuring tonnage, for issuing licenses, registry certificates, and a great variety of other fees. Mr. Frye moved to add to it as a new section the provisions of the bill recently reported by him from the Committee on Commerce, authorizing the President to issue a proclamation, whenever he may deem proper, denying to vessels of foreign countries such privileges as are denied in such foreign countries to vessels of the United States. This means retaliation for the recent action of the Dominion of Canada in excluding United States vessels from certain privileges in Canadian ports, though the provision is not confined to Canada, but is made general, so as to apply to all foreign countries. The amendment was agreed to without debate, and the bill was passed and a committee of conference was ordered.

The Senate on Monday defeated a proposition of Mr. Logan that all pensions which have been allowed to soldiers at a less rate than $8 a month shall be increased to that amount, and that no smaller pension than $8 shall be hereafter granted.

The Copyright Bill which the Senate Committee on Patents has agreed to report favorably, is, in its main features, the bill which was introduced by Senator Chace, of Rhode Island. Stated in the briefest possible terms, the bill proposes to give to foreign authors copyright in the United States upon the condition that their books shall be printed in this country, and to prohibit the importation of foreign copyrighted books. The bill seems to be one for the protection of American publishers, with incidental protection for the foreign author. It contains no provisions as to the reciprocal use of stereotype plates in the two countries; it was decided that this subject was too technical to be considered. It is assumed by the friends of the bill that notwithstanding the severe provisions as to the printing of foreign books in this country, Great Britain will, by an order in council, give to American authors the benefit of copyright in that country. The bill will be vigorously opposed by those who advocate the unrestricted importation of British books and by the publishers of reprints, and it will also be opposed by many American authors.

The House on Wednesday passed the Army Appropriation Bill without amendment.

The House on Thursday passed the Diplomatic and Consular Appropriation Bill without a division. The Senate passed a bill authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to fit out an expedition to observe the total eclipse of the sun on August 29, on the west coast of Africa, and appropriating $10,000 for the purpose.

The House on Monday voted, 196 to 18, to suspend the rules, and set apart June 3 for the consideration of bills presented by the Labor Committee. An effort to include the Educational Bill failed. The list includes bills to prevent the employment of aliens on public works; to forbid the use of products of convict labor on public buildings; to allow Government employees leaves of absence who are not now entitled to them; to restore the old and higher rates of wages in the Government Printing Office; to extend the operation of the Eight-Hour Law; to protect employees in their wages; to amend the law relating to the importation of laborers under contract, and to grant national charters to trades-unions.

It is understood that the bill to levy a tax upon oleomargarine, which is in charge of the House Committee on Agriculture, will be put to a vote in the House as soon as the opportunity offers. There seems to be little, if any, doubt of its passage, and when it comes to the Senate the Committee on Agriculture will promptly report it for action. The bill, which also puts the manufacture of oleomargarine under the supervision of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, will, it is said, surround the manufacture with wholesome restrictions.

In the Court of Claims, on Monday, Judge Davis delivered the opinion of the Court in relation to the liability of the Government for the French spoliation claims, in which the Chief Justice and all the judges concur. After deciding that the statute giving the Court jurisdiction required an examination of the validity of the claims as against France, and the assumption of the responsibility for them by the United States in the treaty of 1800, the opinion sets forth the obligations assumed by the two Governments in the treaties of 1778, by which France pledged herself to secure our independence, and we undertook to guarantee her American possessions, and to give her other special privileges. Following the history of the two nations after our peace with Great Britain, it shows the illegal attacks upon American commerce by the French Revolutionary Government, and our failure to abide by our promises to France made in 1778, and then concludes that by the treaty of 1800, as shown by that instrument itself and the negotiations which led to it, the spoliation claims were surrendered in consideration that the United States be released from any obligations under the treaties of 1778; and the Court, after discussing the law, is of the opinion that the claims are a valid obligation against this country, which sacrificed the rights of its individual citizens to secure a great national advantage. The court also holds that the treaties of 1803 and 1831 with France, and the treaty of 1819 with Spain, do not apply to the spoliation claims, and therefore the claimants should recover. Many reports have been made in Congress in favor of this view, and but three against it, and those three were made prior to the publication of the diplomatic correspondence on the subject. Two acts were passed providing for payment, but one was vetoed by President Polk, the other by President Pierce. Finally, Congress, by an act approved by President Arthur, sent the matter to the Court of Claims for examination.

Assistant Secretary Jenks of the Interior Department has resigned to become the permanent counsel of a millionaire.

The Interior Department has at last suspended Mr. McGillicuddy, the agent at the Pine Ridge Agency in Dakota. The charge is insubordination.

Captain Hatfield, with a troop of cavalry, struck Geronimo a heavy blow on Saturday morning at a point ten miles southeast of Santa Cruz, N. M. He stampeded the hostiles, capturing their horses and entire camp outfit. A few hours later, while passing through a cañon, a galling fire was suddenly poured on the little band. The men dismounted and made a gallant fight for an hour. Two of them were killed and three wounded. Many Indians fell. Captain Hatfield and his men finally reached Santa Cruz. The Mexican General Martinez routed the Yaquis from their stronghold in Sierra Bacatche on May 13, killing 100 and capturing 200 of the band. The Mexicans lost twenty killed and fifty wounded. This virtually ends the Yaquis war. A raid by Geronimo's band is apprehended in Arizona. The people are without adequate protection, and a massacre is feared.

The Chicago police on Friday night arrested a man named Louis Linng, who, they say, is beyond a doubt the man who threw the destructive bomb on May 4.

The Chicago lumbermen renewed their strike on Monday.

Five Socialists, while engaged on Sunday in San Francisco in haranguing a crowd, were arrested and charged with a misdemeanor.

The Ohio Senate on Wednesday reënacted the Scott Liquor Tax Law, which provides for a tax of $100 and $200. It has the lien clause and Sunday-closing feature in its provisions. It passed the House on Thursday.

Governor Hill on Wednesday signed two of the gas bills—the Reilly bill, compelling all companies to charge no more than $1 25 per 1,000 feet for gas, and the Thomas bill, regulating the method of organizing gas companies in future in New York. The third bill, providing for the establishment of a gas commission to protect the consumers, was vetoed by the Governor.

On Thursday the Governor nominated for Aqueduct Commissioners Hamilton Fish, jr., E. L. Ridgeway, and O. W. Barnes. The Senate immediately confirmed them without going into secret session. The Senate rejected the nomination of George H. Sterling, of Brooklyn, for Port Warden by a party vote.

Upon the application of Attorney-General O'Brien, Judge Parker, of Albany, has appointed John O'Brien (the principal contractor on the New York Aqueduct, Chairman of the Democratic State Committee, and political partner of Maurice B. Flynn) receiver of the Broadway Railroad.

In the New York Assembly on Wednesday the Bruns bill to practically put the different departments of this city in control of Commissioner Squire, was killed by an overwhelming vote. Both houses of the Legislature agreed on that day to adjourn *sine die* on May 20.

The New York Assembly on Thursday passed the Excise Commissioners Appointment Bill by 79 to 31. This gives the power of appointment to the President of the Board of Aldermen, instead of to the Mayor. Its passage is a victory for the "Johnny" O'Brien lobby

The Senate at Albany on Monday night sent the Excise Commission Bill to the Cities Committee, thus probably putting an end to it.

The Executive Committee of thirty-one citizens appointed to arrange for a mass meeting for the formation of an independent local political movement in this city, met on Friday

night for consultation. A committee of three was appointed to arrange for a mass meeting of citizens to be held at the Academy of Music on either the 28th or 29th inst. It was also decided to invite about 300 citizens outside of the committee to join the movement.

In the trial of Alderman Henry W. Jaehne, of this city, for bribery, in the Court of Oyer and Terminer, the case was given to the jury at 10:53 o'clock Saturday night. At 1:10 A. M. on Sunday the jury returned a verdict of guilty. A motion for a new trial will be made.

A dreadful tornado struck Odell, Ill., a town of 900 inhabitants, on Wednesday afternoon, destroying houses, barns, and sheds, and causing damage to the amount of $50,000. Scarcely a store in the town escaped injury. Two people were fatally hurt. Terrible wind and hail storms were also reported from Rockford, Ill., Peru, Ind., and Winchester, Va. A terrible waterspout at Xenia, Ohio, on Wednesday afternoon, swept away 100 houses. Twenty-four people were killed. Telegraph wires throughout Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio were prostrated. A tornado wrecked the town of Dunkirk, Ohio, on Friday night, killing four people. Severe storms were also felt in Michigan and Kansas.

FOREIGN.

A political meeting was held at the London residence of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain on Wednesday. Sixty members of the House of Commons were present. Mr. Chamberlain explained the renewal of his activity against Mr. Gladstone's Home-Rule Bill by saying, that he had been clearly informed on Saturday last that the Premier was prepared to expunge from the measure the clause excluding Irish representatives from sitting at Westminster, and thus maintain the unity of the empire as desired by the Radicals. Mr. Chamberlain declared that now nothing short of the withdrawal of the Home-Rule Bill would restore unity among the Liberals. The meeting unanimously adopted resolutions declaring that those present would do the utmost in their power to oppose the Government's Irish bills, as there was no hope that the measures would be amended in a way to make them acceptable to the followers of Mr. Chamberlain. Mr. Caine stated that 102 Liberal members had promised to vote against the Home-Rule Bill and that there were thirty-four Liberal members who were undecided as to what course to pursue toward it.

A meeting of the followers of Lord Hartington was held on Friday for the purpose of cementing the Whig and Radical opposition to the Home-Rule Bill. Sixty-four gentlemen attended, including Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. Trevelyan, and Mr. Caine. Lord Hartington made a twenty-minutes speech, in which he explained the reasons why Liberals should oppose Mr. Gladstone's measure. He declared that the pledges from Liberals to oppose Mr. Gladstone's Home-Rule Bill were sufficient in number to make the rejection of the bill on its second reading a certainty. The defeat of the bill, he said, would cast a heavy responsibility on him, which, however, he was quite prepared to accept. The meeting was harmonious throughout, and unanimously adopted a resolution that those present would oppose the second reading of the Home-Rule Bill.

Lord Hartington's "whips" report that 110 Liberals have pledged themselves to vote against the Home-Rule Bill, and 30 are doubtful.

The Orangemen of Australia have sent a cable despatch to the Loyalists of Ireland, promising to aid them in their endeavors to prevent the adoption of Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule scheme.

The debate on the Home-Rule Bill was continued in the House of Commons on Thursday night. Mr. H. Campbell-Bannerman, Secretary of State for War, declared that the Government were quite ready to consider all suggestions for the retention of Irish representatives at Westminster. Mr. E. A. Leatham, member for Huddersfield, a Reformer, asked whether Mr. Parnell would accept the bill as a settlement of the Irish question. Mr. Parnell rose in his place and emphatically replied, "Yes." Mr. Leatham retorted that he had been unable to gather that idea from Mr. Parnell's previous speeches. An uproar ensued.

After an informal Cabinet council, it is reported that Mr. Gladstone, yielding to the urgent advice of Mr. Morley and Lord Spencer, has decided if defeated to demand from the Queen an immediate dissolution of Parliament. Mr. Chamberlain is deluged with Radical protests against his action.

During the debate on the Home-Rule Bill in the House of Commons on Monday night, Mr. James Bryce, Under Foreign Secretary, said that the Government was perfectly willing to appeal to the country. The retention of Irish representatives at Westminster was a detail that it would be impossible to discuss at this stage.

Mr. Gladstone, in the House of Commons on Tuesday afternoon, moved that the House devote four nights out of the five given to Parliamentary business every week to the debate on the Home-Rule Bill. The proposal produced a sensation, as it was generally believed that the Government had about given up hope of carrying their measure, and would bring on the crisis as early as possible. An excited discussion at once followed Mr. Gladstone's motion. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, Conservative, said his party wanted a pledge that the debate would be finished on Friday next. To this Mr. Gladstone answered that his reckoning extended the debate far beyond the date fixed by the Opposition. After a long discussion Mr. Gladstone's motion was carried. Nine converts to Mr. Gladstone's scheme have been made in the House since Saturday, and others are wavering. The chances for passing the bill are therefore considered brighter.

The London Liberal Radical Council on Monday followed the lead of the National Liberal Federation in supporting Mr. Gladstone strongly against Mr. Chamberlain. Although a very radical body, it was with great difficulty that Mr. Chamberlain's friends induced the meeting to drop from the resolution the clauses specifically censuring Mr. Chamberlain.

A mob of Nationalists attacked a number of Protestant peasants while the latter were returning from market at Cookstown, County Tyrone, Ireland, on Saturday. The Protestants resisted the attack, and several of them were roughly handled, two being badly hurt.

Sir Thomas Erskine May, who a few weeks ago became Baron Farnborough, died on Monday at the age of seventy-one. He was appointed Clerk of the House of Commons in 1871, and held that position until the opening of the present session of Parliament, when he resigned on account of ill-health. Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Parnell, and Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, as representatives of their parties, then delivered warm eulogies on his career. He wrote a treatise on the 'Law, Privileges, Proceedings, and Usage of Parliament' in 1844, which, being acknowledged as the Parliamentary text-book, passed through several editions.

Queen Christina, of Spain, on Monday gave birth to a son and heir to the Spanish throne. The usual pomp and ceremony were observed. In the Cortes Señor Sagasta expressed the satisfaction of the nation at the birth of the King, and he called upon Spaniards to defend their young monarch. Señor Torino made a similar appeal on behalf of the Conservatives. The babe will be christened during the present week and will probably be named Fernando Ildefonso. There is great rejoicing in Madrid over the event.

A terrible hurricane swept across the middle of Spain on Thursday. In Madrid thirty-two persons are known to have been instantly killed, and 620 others have been seriously injured. The wind struck the city with the suddenness of lightning. Tramcars and cabs were overturned and broken into splinters, roofs were dislodged, and telegraph wires everywhere torn from their poles. The parks in and about the city were devastated and in some cases entirely denuded. One church tower was blown down. A number of houses in the suburbs were entirely wrecked. The damage exceeds $1,200,000.

M. Valvis, as Premier and Minister of Justice, has succeeded in forming a new Greek Ministry. The Ministry is colorless, and the only duty imposed on it is to convoke the Chamber of Deputies. The Greek Government has rescinded the order for the advance of troops to the front.

M. Pillot, an agent for the Banque d'escompte of Paris, who recently fled after uttering a large amount of forged paper, on Friday suddenly appeared in the private office of Baron Soubeyran, the director of the bank, and, at the point of a loaded revolver, compelled him to sign three checks for $30,000, with which Pillot then escaped.

Professor Leopold von Ranke, the aged German historian, is seriously ill.

In the Canadian House of Commons on Monday the Minister of Marine introduced a bill confining the rights of foreign fishing vessels in Canadian waters to those expressly mentioned in the Treaty of 1818, and proposing that if a foreign vessel has been found fishing or preparing to fish within three miles of the coast, or has entered Canadian waters for any purpose not permitted by the law of nations, or by treaty or convention, or by any law of the United Kingdom or of Canada, or, having entered such waters, has failed to comply with any such law of the United Kingdom or of Canada, such vessel and the rigging and cargo thereof shall be forfeited.

The American fishing schooner *Ella M. Doughty*, of Portland, Me., was seized on Monday by the authorities of Englishtown, N. S.

Mr. Stevens, the American, who is making a tour on a bicycle around the world, has been arrested while crossing the frontier of Afghanistan.

Vice-Admiral Don Patricio Lynch, of the Chilian Navy, while on his way to Peru from Spain, where he was Minister, has died at sea; his body was landed at Teneriffe. Admiral Lynch was the son of a wealthy Irish merchant who married a Chilian lady. He was born in Santiago in 1825. His early training was received in the Chilian and English navies. His career was notable for daring achievements. Throughout the recent war with Peru he was the most conspicuous Chilian commander. At the head of a naval and military expedition he undertook the invasion of the northern provinces of Peru, which up to that time had been unvisited by war, and which furnished the enemy with abundant supplies. This expedition, which required on the part of the Admiral courage and science of no ordinary character, was conducted with consummate ability and terminated in brilliant success. He ravaged the enemy's territory, spread desolation far and wide, captured cities containing 10,000 inhabitants, took part in a campaign which reduced Lima, and terminated in a decisive manner the war between Chili and Peru. He was Military Governor of Peru throughout the period of occupation, and his rule was eminently humane and effective. He suppressed the Calderon Government, and planned the campaign by which Caceres, marching against Iglesias, was defeated at Huamachuco in 1883. He managed the instalment of Iglesias in Lima in the following October, and then withdrew his Chilian garrison to Chorillos. There he remained till the Iglesias peace was fully ratified by the Peruvian National Assemoly. Admiral Lynch became the head of the Chilian navy in 1883.

THE WAY THE SOUTHWESTERN STRIKE WAS ORDERED.

THE exhaustive treatment which every important event in our times receives from the daily newspapers, seldom leaves anything of consequence to be developed by the more leisurely inquiries of the authorities. For this reason nobody expected that the Congressional Committee appointed last month to investigate the great strike in the Southwest would bring to light much that was new or important, and the press associations sent East shorter and shorter abstracts of the testimony given at St. Louis as the investigation neared its close last week. But, contrary to all the precedents, we have found, by a careful reading of the full reports in the St. Louis papers, that the evidence given by a number of the witnesses before this Committee is of the most vital importance to a correct understanding, not only of the strike itself, but also of the secret, oath-bound organization by which the strike was ordered. The "true inwardness" of the despotism which has been established by the Knights of Labor has here for the first time been thoroughly exposed.

Everybody knows that the whole gigantic disturbance of industry in half-a-dozen States grew out of the discharge by the Texas-Pacific Railway Company of a man named Hall, who was a foreman in the company's shops at Marshall, Tex. The Texas-Pacific is in the hands of a receiver appointed by the United States Court of the Fifth Judicial Circuit, and some weeks ago Captain C. E. Henry, of Cleveland, Ohio, was directed by the court to make a thorough investigation into the causes of the trouble on that railroad. Captain Henry visited Marshall, Jefferson, Texarkana, Dallas, Fort Worth, and Big Springs, where he diligently prosecuted his investigations, obtaining data sufficient to enable him to make an exhaustive report on the subject. A reporter of the *Globe-Democrat* interviewed him as he passed through St. Louis on his return last week, and thus summarized Captain Henry's statements:

"From what information he had obtained he considered that the property of the road had been in great danger for three or four weeks, and that it was only through the greatest vigilance that more of it had not been destroyed. The most active and zealous among the Knights of Labor considered it their duty to assault every man who asked the privilege of working without being molested. He commenced taking testimony at Marshall on April 9, and the evidence generally obtained was that most of the men engaged in the strike did not know what it was for. *He inquired specially into Hall's case, and the testimony showed that he was a worthless workman by reason of his indifference to his duties, his attention being absorbed in studying the rules of the Knights of Labor, and devoting time to committee work for his order that should have been given to the railroad company.* Everything in his (Hall's) estimation appeared to be secondary to the Knights of Labor, and he assumed in his imagination the responsibilities of the general manager, legal adviser, and general executive officer of the road, and wanted everything subordinated to the organization to which he belonged. Captain Henry said he had examined the company's books, which showed that under Hall's foremanship the work in the shops had cost the company 50 per cent. more than it did under his predecessor. He thought the company would have saved a great deal of money if it had paid Hall a good salary to keep away from the shops."

So much for the man about whom the strike was ordered. Now for the man who ordered the strike, and who forced the Knights of Labor to stop work not only on the Texas-Pacific, but on the whole Gould system of railroads. Martin Irons appeared before the Committee on Friday. The *Republican*, which has always been disposed to show the strikers as much favor as possible, thus describes the man:

"A weak, irresolute, half-cunning, half-frightened face he turned toward the Committee. He wore a dirty white shirt and a dirty white collar, held in its place by a brassy stud. An imitation diamond relieved the discolored area of shirt front, and a heavy brass watch-chain dangled from his unbuttoned vest. His first act, after taking his seat, was to draw a spittoon towards him, and take a huge quid of tobacco, which he chewed heavily while he listened to Chairman Curtin's opening address to him. This expressed the object of the Committee, and its hope that it would get from Mr. Irons, the author of the strike, all the information they wanted as to its cause and extent."

The *Globe-Democrat* gives this report of his attitude during the examination:

"Throughout the entire examination Irons adopted an aggravatingly listless attitude, chewed tobacco incessantly, and expectorated to a degree only to be described as filthy. He spoke in as low a tone as possible, and kept a roll of paper between his teeth so as to make his utterances less intelligible. He was repeatedly requested by Governor Curtin to put it down or let 'some one else hold it' for him, but without avail, and from first to last his answers, such as they were, could only be heard by painful straining."

Irons testified that he is fifty-four years old, was born in Scotland, and could not tell when he came to this country, though he "believed" it was when he was about fourteen. He said that he had been naturalized, but "had no idea of the date," nor did he know whether it was before or after the war; neither did he know who was the first President for whom he voted. He is a machinist by trade, and a rover by disposition, having lived for longer or shorter periods in a dozen cities, from New York to New Orleans and from New Orleans to Sedalia, Mo., where his home now is. He joined the Knights of Labor about a year ago, became Master of his Local Assembly within three months, and a few weeks later was made Chairman of the Executive Board of District Assembly No. 101. In this capacity he is practical dictator over all the thirty subordinate local assemblies, reaching from Missouri down into Texas, with a membership of about 5,000 men, who are bound by oath to obey the orders of the Chairman of the Executive Board.

As to the reason why the strike on the Gould system was ordered, Irons had prepared a written statement, the points of which are thus summarized:

"At the time of Hall's discharge, delegates of the Knights of Labor were at Marshall, Tex., and had just finished a session; and the discharge was regarded as a distinct attack on the order. Witness personally made efforts to get Hall reinstated, but without success. Passes for three were given to Hall, in witness's presence, to take them to Dallas, where grievances and Hall's discharge were to be discussed. But as the board numbered five, and only three passes were given, and as they were handed to Hall and not to him, he regarded the act as another slight on the order, and declined to use them or go to Dallas. He telegraphed to Dallas to that effect, and received no reply. The next day he telegraphed again, and received a message purporting to come from the operator to the effect that Colonel Noble was from home. Witness wired back, unless he had a reply by 2 o'clock the next day, he should call out the men. He received no reply and did call the men out. Seeing it was useless to hope for an adjustment of grievances, he afterward called out the Missouri-Pacific men."

The Committee, however, were not satisfied with so indefinite a statement, and pressed Irons for particulars as to what steps he had taken to secure a settlement before ordering the strike. The examination upon this point was so interesting and important that we quote at some length:

"Mr. Burnes—What were these grievances you speak of?

"Witness—There were the bridgemen's and many other grievances.

"Q. Did any cases of grievance come under your personal knowledge? A. Yes.

"Q. State some. A. I don't remember.

"Q. Give the names of any men who complained to you. A. I don't remember any.

"Q. What were the grievances considered by your executive board when you discussed about calling out the men? A. I don't know.

"Q. Now, Mr. Irons, you knew these men were for eight or nine months suffering from grievances and pointing them out to you. Now, what did you do toward getting these grievances before the officers of the railroad? A. *I didn't present any.* It is not the place of an employee to present his grievances directly before Mr. Hoxie or a high officer. If I were a master mechanic or a yard-master, I should take it as an insult if any man under me took a grievance direct to a general officer.

"Q. Do you mean to tell me that you, as practical head of the organization in this district, allowed a question of etiquette to intervene between you and a head officer? A. If I had reported to Mr. Hoxie, he would have referred me to Mr. Kerrigan, and he would have referred me to some one else.

"Q. Have you complained of any case to Mr. Kerrigan direct? A. Yes, I had one conference with Mr. Kerrigan.

"Q. What about? A. About a man named W. T. New, of Kansas City.

"Q. Well, what of him? A. He was giving away situations to those who gave him the biggest presents and the biggest bribes. Mr. Sibley told me he had investigated the matter, and that there was nothing wrong. So I went to Mr. Kerrigan.

"Q. What did Mr. Kerrigan do? A. The man was discharged.

"*Q. So in the only case you have been to Mr. Kerrigan you got your point? A. Yes.*

"*Q. And you have never brought specific grievances before Mr. Hoxie? A. No.*

"Mr. Parker—What were the words of the order to strike? A. I don't know.

"Q. Now, if this examination is to continue, I must have the best of your recollection of the words of that order. A. Haven't I said I can't remember?

"Q. Please remember this was an order to call out thousands of men. Tell me the wording of it? A. I tell you I can't.

"Q. Did you ever see it in writing? A. I wrote it.

"Q. And yet you can't give any idea as to its length or how it began? A. No.

"Q. Was it sent by telegram or mail? A. I don't know. Some of the assemblies were telegraphed to.

"Q. Where is the order filed? A. I don't know."

As showing what sort of man this dictator is, take these further extracts from the examination:

"Q. How many men went out on the strike? A. About 5,000.

"Q. How many others did it affect? A. I have no idea at all; it is no concern of mine.

"Q. No concern of yours, when you ordered the strike? Now, tell me, to the best of your knowledge. A. I can't

"Q. Have you any knowledge of the fact that 9,000 men in the lumber business had to stop work on account of your strike? A. No; I don't concern myself with a census of the United States.

"Q. Did the engineers strike? A. No; they were not manly enough to. They gave us reason to believe they would help us, but they turned out too cowardly to do it.

"Q. Did you send out 'missionaries' to persuade men to go out? A. No.

"Q. Did you authorize it? A. I suppose so.

"Q. Now, do you remember when the boycott was ordered on the Wabash? A. No; I suppose I do, though.

"Q. Under what circumstances was it ordered? A. I don't know anything about it.

"Q. Come, come, Mr. Irons, did not your brother officers tell you why the boycott was

ordered? A. Well, yes. We consider an injury to one in the order an injury to all, and we ordered the boycott because the Wabash men were badly treated and had grievances.

"Q. Did you sanction the boycotting of the Texas and Pacific? Witness replied in the negative, but when pressed said he supposed he did.

"Q. Did you not know with all these thousands of men under you that the freight business really found most of their wages, and that by boycotting the Texas and Pacific freight you were reducing the wage-paying power of the Missouri Pacific? A. (doggedly). The boycott was only requested.

"Q. Did you protest against it? A. Did I protest? No. Why should I?

"Q. But as an intelligent member of your order, what possible good could you hope to effect by the boycott? A. To make them redress grievances.

"Q. Did you not know that the laws of this State compel railroad companies to interchange traffic without discrimination? A. Oh, yes; and also that the charter of the companies compels them to run trains, but does not fix the employees' wages.

"Q. Never mind that now. You admit you were aware that in demanding this boycott you were asking for an unlawful act to be committed? A. I don't know.

"Q. Let me ask you again with reference to this boycotting cars. Do you not realize that the wage-paying powers of the companies depended largely on their freight business? A. *Oh, if I was to stop and study questions like this before ordering a strike, grievances would go unredressed forever.*

"Q. But you recognize the fact that the freighters find most of the money to pay wages. That being so, what right had you to call the men out without giving them notice? A. By the same right which gives the railroad company power to compel you to pay your fare before you enter a car.

"Q. What do you think about labor producing wealth? A. Labor produces everything and capital produces nothing at all.

"Q. So you argue that as God created the world and has a right to manage it, so as labor creates all wealth, it has a right to manage it? A. Yes, with due respect to the rights of others."

This is the way in which the Knights of Labor order a strike. We may hereafter take up the means which they use to make it succeed.

THE CHURCH AND THE LABORER.

Bishop Potter has written a pastoral letter to his clergy on the labor crisis, in which, without going far into the economical side of the case, he comments with much severity on the moral condition of the wealthy class among us as one of the causes of the strange growth of class hatreds on American soil. He says in one place:

"A nation whose wealth and social leadership are in the hands of people who fancy that day after day, like those of old, they can 'sit down to eat and drink and rise up to play,' careless of those who earn the dividends that they spend and pay the rents of the tenement-houses that they own, but too often never visit or inspect, has but one doom before it, and that the worst. We may cover the pages of our statute books with laws regulating strikes, and inflicting severest penalties on those who organize resistance to the individual liberty, whether of employer or workman; we may drill regiments and perfect our police; the safety and welfare of a State is not in these things, it is in the contentment and loyalty of its people. And these come by a different road. When capitalists and employers of labor have forever dismissed the fallacy, which may be true enough in the domain of political economy, but is essentially false in the domain of religion, that labor and the laborer are alike a commodity, to be bought and sold, employed or dismissed, paid or underpaid, as the market shall decree; when the interest of workmen and master shall have been owned by both as one, and the share of the laboring man shall be something more than a mere wage; when the principle of a joint interest, in what is produced, of all the brains and hands that go to produce it is wisely and generously recognized; when the well-being of our fellow-men, their homes and food, their pleasures and their higher moral and spiritual necessities, shall be seen to be matters concerning which we may not dare to say, 'Am I my brother's keeper?' then, but not till then, may we hope to heal those grave social divisions concerning which there need to be among us all, as with Israel of old, 'great searchings of heart.'"

This is all doubtless true, but does it make the way of the employer and laborer any straighter? Many, we were going to say most moralists, who write or speak on the labor problem, seem to assume that the capitalist is always a man in possession of abundant means, with an assured future, complete master of every situation in which he finds himself, and completely free from the anxieties which torment the laborer from the rising to the setting of the sun. But the melancholy fact is, that in modern life the lot of the employer is almost as precarious as that of the laborer. Do clergymen who censure the capitalists for not doing more to lift the laborer up to their own level, realize that 95 per cent. of the men who "go into business," in this country—that is, become employers of labor—become insolvent, and have to begin over again, and continue to fail and try again, until they sink themselves into the rank of the employed, and become dependent on their children or on friends? Do they realize that nine out of every ten strikes for higher wages or shorter hours are made against men who are so absorbed in the terrible problem of meeting their own notes, and thus saving themselves from bankruptcy and their families from want, that it would be impossible for them to bestow a thought on the labor problem were they never so full of sympathy and pity? It is really only among a few large employers, such as the great railroads and great manufacturers, that there exists the security, the abundance of means, and the superfluity of energy and leisure necessary for a strong and persistent effort to lift the laborer, often as he has to be lifted, in spite of himself, out of his present condition of helplessness or dependence.

Industrial life in the modern world is a tremendous battle. It has always been so, but, as in physical warfare, the hosts now engaged are larger and the results more rapid. Too many of our philanthropists talk as if it was a battle in which only the rank and file perished. The truth is that the casualties are even more numerous in proportion among the captains than among the men. The peculiar combination of mental and moral qualities necessary to make successful capitalists—that is, to make a man who can save money, keep it, and add to it—is one of the rarest of human gifts. The proof of this is to be found, not simply in the number of capitalists who fail, but in the small number of cases in which coöperative societies for production have succeeded. They are not more numerous simply because the capitalist qualities are scarce among the laborers as well as among the employers.

We say these things, not in support of a policy of despair, but to remind all those who take up the labor problem, whether in the pulpit or the press, that it will not do to rely too much on the extraction of more talent and virtue from the capitalist class. Taken as a whole that class is, all over the world, at its wits' ends. The rise of the manual laborer, like the rise of every other kind of man, must come in the main from the increase of his own knowledge, and self-control, and sagacity, and self-respect—or, in other words, from the improvement in his own character. This does not mean that nothing can be done either by legislation or philanthropy to improve his condition. But it does mean that all attempts to improve it through increasing his sense of dependence instead of increasing his sense of independence, must end in increasing the evil which they seek to remove. Let us preach profit-sharing; let us preach co-operation; let us call for the curbing of stock-gamblers, and railroad wreckers and bribers, but do not let us treat the laborer as a child, who has to make his way in the world through other people's humanity, and self-sacrifice, and common sense. The United States is a republic of men, each of whom is supposed to stand on his own feet and provide for his own household. Do not let us convert it into a republic of kindly patricians charged with the board, lodging, washing, and amusement of a vast and discontented proletariat.

But Bishop Potter's observations on the prevailing tone of the rich about their riches, of the steady and increasing worship of wealth in this city particularly, no matter how or by whom acquired or how used, and on the moral, economical, and political mischief which it works, will be read with the keenest pleasure by every one who cares for the success of the great American experiment. It is here that our greatest danger lies. The popular hero to-day, whom our young men in cities most admire and would soonest imitate, is neither the saint, the sage, the scholar, the soldier, nor the statesman, but the successful stock-gambler. Stocks and bonds are the commonest of our dinner-table topics. The man we show with most pride to foreigners is the man who has made most millions. Our wisest men are those who can draw the biggest checks; and—what is worst of all—there is a growing tendency to believe that everybody is entitled to whatever he can buy, from the Presidency down to a street-railroad franchise.

THE UNION PACIFIC RAILWAY AND THE GOVERNMENT.

The annual report of the President of the Union Pacific Railway leaves upon the mind of the casual reader the unpleasant impression that the Company is being "worked" in Congress by outside speculators for what they can make out of the fluctuations in its stock, to the disadvantage of both the Government and the Company, and that the reason why no decision can be had upon the debt-funding bill is that that measure would take the Union Pacific out of the reach of strikers and lobbyists. Mr. Adams is careful to say that in his opinion the persons responsible for non-action are not generally aware that they are used as the tools of speculation, but that, being naturally anxious to distinguish themselves, and being under some hostile bias toward corporations in general, and toward subsidized railroads in particular, they are easily led to take the view that whatever is opposed to the interests

of the Union Pacific must be favorable to the interests of the Government. The truth is precisely the opposite of this theory. The Government, being the holder of a second mortgage on the property, is vitally interested in its prosperity. It stands in the same relation to the Union Pacific that the holders of the junior securities of any other railroad hold to the property in which their money is invested. Any movement intended or calculated to depress the stock of the Union Pacific is calculated also to lessen the value of all the securities, including the Government's lien. Any measure which looks to the improvement of the Company's earning power is quite as much for the interest of the Government as for that of the shareholders.

The Thurman Funding Act has proved unsuccessful inasmuch as it leaves a door open for interminable disputes and unceasing litigation. It was supposed that all questions regarding "net earnings" were settled by a crop of decisions rendered by the Court of Claims in January, 1885. The Company promptly acquiesced in these decisions, foregoing the right of appeal, and paid over the sum of $916,704 to the Government. But scarcely was this done when a claim was set up by the bookkeeper of the Commissioner of Railroads that the accounts of the "aided" part of the Kansas Pacific Railroad had been wrongly kept for a series of years, and also that the subsidy paid by the transcontinental pool to the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, although a part of the disbursements of the Union Pacific Company, was really a part of the "net earnings," of which the Government was entitled to 25 per cent. under the Thurman Act. Of course these claims opened up a vista of fresh litigation without any defined horizon. Shortly before Congress assembled, the bookkeeper of the Commissioner appeared in Boston, armed with instructions from his superior officer, which he was careful to say that he had drawn up himself, to make a very searching investigation of a lot of things that had been investigated many times before. He finished his investigation on the 26th of January. Then he gave out that an order would shortly be issued prohibiting any more payments to the Pacific Mail Company. Then Pacific Mail and Union Pacific stocks fell about ten points each in the market. The evidence that this action on the part of a trusted Government clerk was part of a corrupt speculation was so strong that Secretary Lamar immediately dismissed him from office. Of course the credit of the Union Pacific Company was seriously impaired by the disclosure that it was still open to attacks of this nature, notwithstanding all the pains taken and all the time consumed in settling disputed points in the Court of Claims.

Obviously the only way to put an end to such corrupting influences, alike injurious to the Government and to the Company, is to prescribe a series of fixed payments, in lieu of a percentage of net earnings, to the Government, and then leave the Company free to fight for its existence in competition with other roads which are entering its territory. This plan was first devised by Railroad Commissioner Armstrong. It has been approved by the present Railroad Commissioner, General Joseph E. Johnston, and also by Mr. Lamar when he was Senator. It has been recommended by the Government directors of the Union Pacific Company, and reported favorably by the Senate Judiciary Committee. It must be acquiesced in by every thoughtful and disinterested person who will take the trouble to consider it. The Thurman Act was wise in its time, for it caused the Company to take steps toward securing the eventual payment of the debt due to the Government. Up to that time there had been an uneasy feeling in the public mind that the Company hoped and intended to slip away from this obligation somehow. The Thurman Act set up dams and dykes which have prevented such slipping. It has also made it the Company's interest to provide for Government debt. So far, so good. Now it is no longer a question whether the Company shall pay in good faith what is due, but whether it shall be allowed to earn the money with which to pay. Other companies not hampered by artificial restrictions, not exposed to the attacks of speculators in Washington, are closing around it. The only source of earnings from which the Government can get its debt paid is the business of the country west of the Missouri River. If the Union Pacific loses any considerable part of what it now holds, the Government will lose in the same proportion.

SUGAR BOUNTIES IN EUROPE.

THE bounties on the export of sugar, given by Germany and other countries of the continent of Europe, are among the most curious events in recent financial history. These bounties cost Germany alone several million dollars a year; they are unsettling the sugar trade of the whole world; they are seriously affecting the agriculture of the Continent; they put most perplexing problems before English, French, and German statesmen; and yet they are the result of nothing more than an accident.

The bounties came about as an unexpected result of the German method of taxing beet-sugar. The excise on sugar in Germany is levied by taxing the raw beets. Every metric hundredweight of beets, as it comes to the sugar factory, is charged 1 3-5 marks. That method of levying the tax is adopted both in Germany and Austria, and has a good many advantages. One disadvantage, however, is that the fixing of the drawback on the export of sugar is not easy. The sugar is extracted from the beets, and, if exported, a drawback is given equivalent to the amount of tax paid on the beets from which the sugar is made. Now, in 1869, when the present rate of tax on beets was imposed, about twelve pounds of beets were required to make one pound of sugar. On that basis the drawback was calculated. For every hundredweight of sugar exported there was granted a drawback of twelve times (very nearly, not quite) the tax paid on each hundredweight of beets. The drawback was 18 4-5 marks.

For a number of years after 1869 this arrangement worked well enough, the drawback being practically equivalent, and no more than equivalent, to the tax. But about 1878 a change began to take place. The quantity of beets which was required for making a pound of sugar began to grow less and less. The natural operation of improvements in production was in this direction; and obviously the manner of levying the excise tax strengthened the tendency. In 1878 only 10.75 pounds of beets were needed, on the average of all the German factories, to make one pound of sugar. In recent years the quantity has been:

1882.	10.08	pounds of beets	for one pound	of sugar.
1883.	10.30	do	do	do	do
1884.	9.28	do	do	do	do
1885.	8.96	do	do	do	do

The effect of this change of course was to make the drawback on export no longer equivalent to the tax, but much more than equivalent. The exporter got his drawback as if he had paid an excise tax on twelve pounds of beets; in fact, he paid in 1885 a tax on less than nine pounds of beets. The result was a virtual bounty on export, varying according to the saccharine qualities of the beets. In the last year or two the net bounty has been about one-half cent a pound. And, as it happened, this bounty arose just at the time when the protectionist feeling got the upper hand in Germany, in the years of depression 1877, 1878, and 1879. Consequently, nothing was done to stop it; on the contrary, it was viewed with some complacency.

But as time went on, and the bounty became larger and larger with the increasing yield of sugar from beets, the sugar industry showed the effect of the artificial stimulus. As lately as 1876 the total product of sugar in Germany was not so much as 4,000,000 hundredweight. In 1883 it had risen to more than 8,000,000 hundredweight; in 1885 it was nearly 12,000,000 hundredweight! Of this extraordinary increase the greater part, of course, was exported in order to get the benefit of the bounty. In 1876 the export amounted to no more than 500,000 hundredweight. But in 1885 more than 6,000,000 hundredweight were exported—*i. e.*, more than half the total product of beet sugar in Germany. In 1884 the German taxpayers paid out about $5,000,000 for bounties on this sugar. In 1885 the amount probably was $6,000,000, which represents so much money thrown away by them. Or, rather, the money was given away—given away to the foreign consumers of the exported sugar, who got it for less than the cost of making. These consumers were very largely the English; but the bounty sugar has been sent to all parts of the world. Last year no inconsiderable quantity made its way to the United States. More sugar was, at length, poured out than the world could absorb, even at the reduced price which the bounty made possible. The dividends of sugar factories, which had averaged more than 8 per cent. in the years 1881–83, fell to 3 1-3 per cent. in 1884; while the balance last year was probably a negative one. At present the sugar industry is suffering under the severest depression. Germany has on her hands a large investment of capital and a large aggregation of labor in an industry dependent, for continuance on its present scale, on the bounty. To stop the bounty would mean great loss to the sugar-makers and great suffering to their employees. Yet its continuance means an insufferable waste of money by the German people—a waste more obvious than is generally the case with protective taxes, because it comes in the shape

of direct money payments out of the Treasury. One or two feeble attempts have been made to devise a remedy, but nothing has been done, and matters remain in the same perplexing state.

But the most remarkable result of the German bounty has been its imitation by France. It is not very strange that Austria should have the same fiscal system as Germany, and should have got the same sort of results from it. But France had taxed her sugar in a different way, taxing the sugar and not the beets, and had been free from these bounty complications. Indeed, she had given up in 1881 a bounty which had resulted from an excessive drawback under the tax system then in force. But the development of the German sugar industry, and more particularly the importation into France of German sugar, was more than the patriotic spirit of the Frenchmen could bear. In their jealousy of their neighbors, they were determined not to be outdone in the sugar fight. So in 1884 they not only put a duty on the import of sugar, which was aimed at keeping out the German product; they also adopted the German system of taxing the raw beets, clapped on an excessive drawback, and entered the field as competitors in selling sugar to the world at large at less than cost. Their net bounty has been calculated to be 11½ francs for the metric hundredweight for this year, when it first becomes effective—that is, it is nearly three times as large as the German bounty. It will be curious to see how long this sorry struggle lasts, and what results will follow from so wasteful a misdirection of industry.

ROYAT IN AUVERGNE.

THE thermal springs of Royat lie at the entrance of a deep valley; they are at an elevation of 1,476 feet above sea level. The hotels overlook the magnificent plain of the Limagne; it would be hard to find a finer view of its sort in France or even in Switzerland; and the valley itself, the Tempe of France, is enchanting.

Nil sub sole novi. This place fascinated the Romans as now it fascinates the modern visitor. Two thousand years ago the Roman world flocked hither for health or pleasure; and the remains of their massive constructions have been successively uncovered during the past sixty or seventy years. The first digging was made in 1822. In the cellar of an old mill near the mouth of the valley of Royat a square well was found, a cold spring playing feebly through the immemorial rubbish of it; red pottery, vases in a gray paste, and some medals of the early Empire were disclosed. The spring was named the Source César, and then was forgotten again for twenty years.

In the winter of 1843 the curé, the Abbé Védrines, and the mayor of Royat were walking in this snow-clad valley, and they remarked that at a certain spot the new-fallen snow instantly melted. What was the cause? Was a little volcano, last of the volcanoes of Auvergne, still plying its works beneath the surface? The mayor, the curé, and the abbé recommended their townsmen to dig. They dug, an undreamed-of innovation; and two metres below the surface they came upon a little warm spring, patient, unchilled, that had kept its little heart of heat alive and beating all these centuries in hope that some kindly hand would come to its resuscitation. They found, too, a Roman *piscina* thirteen feet square, supplied with water at 35° Cent. (95° Fahr.) and a second *piscina* near by, communicating by a tunnel with a vaulted chamber. This was choked with earth and with travertine marbles, while masses of *béton*, formerly pipes for the mineral waters, with capitals, sculptures, and fragments of walls, attested the existence under the Roman Empire of a flourishing bathing establishment upon the site.

The good people of Royat meditated upon these facts for eight years. The question of rehabilitation had been quiescent for eighteen hundred years or so; why should we be in a hurry? But in 1852, after due and proper deliberation, and with that prudent forethought, careful estimate of profits and losses, and solid pecuniary backing which are the usual features of economic enterprises in "frivolous" France, the work of constructing a modern establishment was begun—an establishment that should restore the classical glories of Royat, and replace new *thermæ* upon the ruins of a thousand years.

Never were French common sense and French enthusiasm more happily combined; never have these national traits been better justified in the result of an enterprise. I will not now stop to describe it; it is enough to say that the establishment completed in 1854, a building of two hundred and sixty feet front, is, with its park, casino, and recent additions, one of the finest that I have seen in Auvergne or in France. The construction of the new building led to more than one important discovery. In 1852 there was a find of Gallo-Roman vases and of Samian pottery; during the following year the great "Eugénie" spring, with its yield of 1,000 litres of thermal waters per minute, was rediscovered and released from its subterraneous prisons. In 1876, the Saint-Mart spring was reclaimed; it had flowed away into the Tiretaine River heretofore. The diggers found a well made of framed pine logs, about four feet long; and below this was a leaden supply-tube six inches in diameter, at a depth of twenty feet. This was unhappily cut off short instead of being unearthed, the Mayor and his two friends being absent, it must be supposed, at this point in the proceedings. This construction, though wooden, must have been at least as old as the early fourth century, for medals of the time of Constantine were found in the well. Antiquarians, indeed, have argued that this well and its leaden pipe were of the Celtic period; but I will not enter upon the tormented ground of this discussion, in which even French good nature ran at times the risk of perturbation.

Discoveries thickened as time went on. Two years later, in 1878, the railroad, after creeping all around the mountain quadrilateral of Auvergne, began to extend its *réseaux* toward their fastnesses, as I have described in these columns in writing of La Bourboule. The railway from Bordeaux to Clermont made its pathway across the valley of Royat; and a splendid viaduct was constructed just below the establishment. Each one of the massive piers of this viaduct required very considerable excavations for the foundation; and under the third and fourth piers they found heavy masonry work, with colored marbles and tiles interspersed. The next year a Roman aqueduct was discovered during the construction of a new avenue that was made necessary by the growing prosperity of the place; it was one metre deep by eighty centimetres in breadth, and had conducted the waters of the Eugénie spring to the Gallo-Roman baths. But the crowning discovery was not made until three years later.

In February, 1882, in the present park of the establishment, the gardeners struck a massive wall only three or four feet beneath the flowers. At first they began to demolish it; then, finding it cyclopean in its proportions, authority was given to uncover the ruins. They proved to be the substructions of two immense Gallo-Roman buildings. The marbles of Greece, Italy, Africa, and the Pyrenees had been employed in their construction and ornament—rose, red, red-veined, green-veined, gray-blue, and cipolline marbles, besides white marble in abundance—the same decoration, in short, that was used upon the cyclopean structures that crown the summit of the Puy-de-Dôme—the temples of Mercury and of the Divinity of Augustus—where, also, Greece, Italy, Egypt, and Asia were represented in magnificence of marble and porphyry, especially employed in fine mosaics. Even now the ruins of the thermæ of Royat preserve something of their ancient grandeur. Now wholly uncovered, they occupy the greater part of an area of forty by seventy metres, and the walls are several feet in height. It would be tedious to describe, at least without the aid of plans and pictures, the details which prove the importance and the splendor of this ancient bathing establishment—the *hypocausta*, the *piscinæ*, the pillars, the inscriptions, the cubes of mosaic glass which (when discovered) glowed with the iris-colors of many centuries. One cannot look upon these ruins without feeling anew that the destruction of the Roman civilization was, and still remains, a backward step in human development—a catastrophe by no means made good, as yet, by what we have in its place.

Nothing, indeed, is new under the sun. Two thousand years ago, says the accomplished Dr. Petit, of Royat, "senators, magistrates, orators, consuls were already coming here to cure their ailments, to drink new forces with the pure air of the mountains of Auvergne." The Royat of to-day is not the ancient village; the springs, the pretty park, the splendid hotels, the villas and boarding-houses have almost stolen away the very identity of the little place, further up the valley of the Tiretaine, which bears the ancient name of Royat. The Royat of to-day is a lively and pretty town, standing upon the broken ground at the mouth of the valley of the Tiretaine, musically named and musically flowing, as La Bourboule stands upon the Dordogne; the valley behind it is of all valleys the most musical with running waters of any that I know outside of certain far Pacific island valleys. The sweet springs of Fontanat—the upland village beyond Royat, towards the Puy-de-Dôme—pour down into the Tiretaine, sliding over green slopes of meadow-grass, or breaking up alive from the pathway, as if formed only yesterday, by a hundred runnels, and pouring forth a delicious gelidness. When I saw them, last August, the pedestrian had to change his path constantly to avoid the ablution of these pure waters. Never was there such a land of springs. I would call it the valley of the Dryades were it not so wet. Where the runnels gather themselves into a torrent, you see pre-Adamite water-wheels slowly turning, with the heavy motion of turning planets, in the green ravine, and grinding or not as chance, apparently, directs. Lower down the course of the torrent stand still more ancient overshot wheels, decayed and motionless, tethered with immemorial mosses, and apparently centuries dead; they seem a part of nature, one with the green glade and the singing Tiretaine.

Royat thus stands upon the edge of the wildest and sweetest nature on the one hand, and of a beautiful civilization on the other. Clermont-Ferrand, two miles away, has a grand cathedral, a library, and learned societies. The Puy-de-Dôme, in the opposite direction, with the ruins of twenty centuries, looks down upon one of the most grandiose views in Europe—mountain, river, plain, cities huddling toward the horizon, until, far in the east, the clear air of a winter morning

will reveal the tops of the higher mountains of Switzerland in their bright array, shining softly in the sunrise like films of gold. Mont Blanc, a little brighter and higher than the rest, appears clearly, one hundred and ninety-three miles away as the eagle flies. The Puy-de-Dôme is the furthest point, so far as I can learn, from which Mont Blanc is visible. I have seen Mont Blanc from the fortifications of Montfaucon in Besançon, a distance of one hundred and three miles, and from the top of the Ballon d'Alsace in the Vosges, one hundred and thirty-eight miles in an air-line; and this latter is, perhaps, the finest *ensemble* of western Switzerland that can be seen anywhere, for all the great summits, from Mt. Blanc to the Matterhorn and Monte Rosa, are there together, vivid in their snows. There is no such view in Switzerland itself, because there is no point in Switzerland that is at once sufficiently elevated and at a comparatively equal distance from the great summits.

TITUS MUNSON COAN.

PUBLIC FEELING IN IRELAND REGARDING MR. GLADSTONE'S BILL.

DUBLIN, May 4, 1886.

THE objections from an Irish point of view to Mr. Gladstone's bill, as it stands, may be brought under three heads: (1) the limited powers vested in the Irish Legislature, (2) the exclusion from the Imperial Parliament, and (3) the financial arrangements.

(1) Among other matters concerning which the Irish Legislature "shall not make laws" is "Trade." In so far as this may mean restrictive legislation on trade intercourse between the islands, or anything like protection for Irish goods, no insuperable objection is probable. But the clause must be fully and clearly defined, or it might complicate almost every legal measure and quite cripple the powers of the Irish Legislature. The same objection holds good as to the fifth of the seven subjects on which "the Irish Legislature shall not make any law"—"Impairing, without either the leave of her Majesty in Council first obtained, or an address presented by the Legislative Body of Ireland, or the consent of the corporation interested, the rights, property, or privileges of any existing corporation incorporated by royal charter or local and general act of Parliament." If this clause mean, or could be interpreted to mean, "the rights, property, or privileges" of all existing railways, carrying companies, and private limited-liability companies, it certainly requires alteration or definition. There is hardly any local act which might not in some way interfere with these "rights, property, or privileges." In the construction of new roads and railways, in the improvement of towns, or the widening and deepening of rivers and harbors, it would be almost impossible to avoid infringing some such "rights, property, and privileges."

(2) There are strong objections on the part of a large body of Irishmen to exclusion from the Imperial Parliament. We have no analogy in modern European history for such a large nationality as Ireland being unrepresented in the family of nations—excluded from consideration in the making of countless laws which she would be bound to obey; deprived wholly of many right which she now in a degree possesses, and in which, according to legal fashion, she has as large a proportionate share as England and Scotland.

(3) The fiscal arrangements of the bill are complicated, and their scope and effect are not easily grasped. They are the clauses in the consideration of which the Irish party will probably find itself weakest. As yet no member has shown himself fully qualified to deal with such problems; but the party has so unexpectedly developed aptitudes and powers in so many other directions that on this also it may prove equal to the occasion. The main objection to this portion of the measure has been strikingly brought out by the *Statist*, in an article entitled "Whiskey the Arbiter of Home Rule." The stability of Irish credit would depend mainly upon the permanence of the revenue at present derived from the excise duties on spirits, paid in Ireland. Spirits can be moved freely in bond from Ireland to England, and the duty paid in either country. The *Statist* sums up its argument as follows:

"We arrive, therefore, at this remarkable result—that of the maximum amount of £6,180,000 which may possibly be received in respect of customs and excise, no less than £5,380,000 odd will be deducted for imperial first charges before a penny can be paid into the Irish Exchequer to help to carry on the business of the country. The net proceeds to Ireland from customs and excise would appear, therefore, to be at most £800,000; and remembering what we have pointed out as to the probable transference of duty payments from Ireland to England, it seems unsafe to reckon upon anything solid from these sources in aid of Irish taxation. Indeed, it might conceivably happen that in the event of all the £1,100,000 of whiskey duty belonging to England and Scotland, but paid in Ireland, being transferred to the consuming instead of the producing country—as in strict equity should be the case—Ireland, so far from deriving any pecuniary advantage from the imperial control of the customs or excise, would find that it had to pay as permanent fixed charges £300,000 more than those imposts produced."

This article has been widely copied into Irish papers, and has attracted considerable attention. The dangers it indicates are not the greatest that might arise from this dependence of the stability of Irish credit on the excise: it might most seriously interfere with the progress of temperance and the moral and material advancement of Ireland. If whiskey became one of the "institutions" of the country, as slavery was in America, its opponents would be denounced as anti-Irish and anti-national. Proclivities to drink, in human nature, are sufficient everywhere—we are by no means exempt from them in Ireland. It would indeed be unfortunate for the consumption of whiskey to be considered patriotic.

Our anti-National, and till lately ascendancy party—mainly Protestant—never felt more bitterly than at present. To their previous contempt for and distrust of the mass of their countrymen, is added their indignation at being, as they consider, betrayed. The defection of Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Childers, and some others might be borne—there was, to most Conservatives at least, nothing surprising in that. That Earl Spencer, "the firm and gentle"—their ideal next to Cromwell—should advocate home rule, is a blow the sting of which is intolerable. Considerable spirit is shown by the Conservative class in adhering to their opinions and prejudices, despite the changes which they must recognize as imminent here in one form or another. It might at least appear prudent for them to keep their opinions to themselves, to temporize, or try to make terms. But no; they seem determined to hold out till the very moment the doors of the Parliament House in College Green are opened. This sustained hostile attitude is a real evil. It will obstruct and delay the fusion which is inevitable.

Protestantism in the north is showing itself peculiarly sectional and selfish in demanding that, if their coreligionists in the rest of Ireland be sacrificed, at least Ulster must be saved—or at least the three counties in Ulster where Protestantism is undoubtedly in the majority, and where, nevertheless, the Catholics form one-third of the population. Eyes flash and voices vibrate at the possible indignity of having to submit to laws made by Papists in that centre of national iniquity, Dublin. There is little use in opposing such sentiments with reason. Protestants form the fourth of the population of Ireland. They are likely to have their full share in the representation; and let the success of the Irish party at Westminster be an earnest of what a Protestant party in College Green could achieve if real wrongs gave it cohesion. Did Irish Protestantism but realize the situation, many of those considered the extremest Nationalists would not be averse to some arrangement through which, by proportional representation or otherwise, the Protestant minority scattered over Ireland would be fully represented in proportion to its numbers. In any case, Irish Protestantism in an Irish Legislature will be much more powerful for right than ever it has been since the Union. Appeals based on justice and on argument cannot permanently be silenced or set aside; one grain of reason and truth will ultimately outweigh whole windbags of false economics and inflated rhetoric.

The most virulent opposition to the bill, then, comes from the Irish Conservative party, who in one breath demand a reversion to Cromwellian statesmanship, with the total disfranchisement of Ireland, and decry the proposed measure as dishonoring and degrading to Ireland and to Irishmen. Many who profess to believe that they will be driven out of the country through the action of this legislation, openly declare that they would prefer and will indeed strive for separation. "I used to be called a rebel," remarked to me the other day a Protestant clergyman, an old and tried Nationalist; "but now when I talk to these fellows I find that I am the loyal man and that they are the rebels." The Radical anti-Nationalists are angry because Nationalists will not join them in denunciation of the bill on account of its "double order" and other clauses which appear contrary to their democratic ideas. Irish Nationalists, as a rule, are not radicals in the British acceptation of the term, and as long as their nationality is conserved, they are likely to prove more really conservative than their opponents.

Nationalists are not inclined to be led into any general or severe criticism of the bill at its present stage. They believe that their leaders and representatives will secure as much as possible for them—that they will finally agree to nothing dishonorable or dishonoring to Ireland. They have confidence in Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues, who now recognize the justice of their claims and suggest remedial measures. In so far as the bill would give circumscribed powers, Irishmen generally believe that they will so work those circumscribed powers as to gain the confidence of all sections of their countrymen and of the British people, and to secure additional prerogatives. The power which representation in the Imperial Parliament would give the Irish minority to impede and nullify the process of amalgamation in Ireland, might be attended with many and grave dangers. There is now in Ireland no real extended love for the Empire at large or interest in its affairs. We may hope that responsibility in an Irish Parliament will lead to a reversal of this feeling and a genuine desire for participation in the affairs of the Empire at large—a desire which could then be gratified in one form or another. The tactics of the opponents of Irish self-government are directed to wreck the bill, to destroy the hope of a speedy settlement, to adjourn the contest as much as possible, and to discount the chances of Mr. Gladstone's health failing. Nationalists are not inclined to fall in with these plans, or to indulge in any very severe and open criticism of the clauses of the bill until its principle has been affirmed by the second reading.

—Since writing the foregoing, Mr. Gladstone's lofty and touching manifesto has appeared, and Earl Spencer has made another noble speech in

favor of home rule. It is difficult to avoid a feeling of bewilderment at seeing all that the mass of Irish Nationalists ever contended for advocated by such men. Truly the ultimate success of no cause need be despaired of that is based on common sense and justice. D. B.

MYKENÆ AND TIRYNS REVISITED.

ATHENS, April 20.

SOME of the readers of the *Nation* may remember that I wrote some years ago from here, impeaching the antiquity of the inhumations discovered by Schliemann at Mykenæ, on the ground that the construction of the tumulus (for such it must be considered) was patently of later date than the classical Mykenæ destroyed B. C. 468. Returning to Athens after a long interval and after new discoveries by Schliemann of the same character as those at Mykenæ, I profited by the recent visit of Mr. Penrose, the celebrated architectural archæologist (whose discovery of the system of curvatures in the Greek temples has connected his name imperishably with the noblest works of Greek architecture, and whose elaborate studies into the remains of all known Greek structures have given him an authority probably higher than that of any other living man in this branch of archæology), to revisit Mykenæ and Tiryns in his company. We were accompanied also by Dr. Sterrett and Mr. Lewis of the American school.

We went carefully over Mykenæ, and on the most thorough review of all the indications which had led to my previous conclusions, and the evidence afforded by structural character alone, Penrose decidedly rejected any pretension of the tomb to be of greater antiquity than the Macedonian epoch; and I believe that an intelligent examination of the structure, which remains substantially as found—only trivial and immaterial restorations having been made by the Greek Archæological Society—will confirm in any scientific mind this conclusion, and will certainly show that there can by no possibility be any relation to the heroic epoch in it, much less to that prehistoric epoch to which the original Mykenæ belongs.

We subsequently visited Tiryns and examined Schliemann's prehistoric palace, which Mr. Penrose unhesitatingly pronounced of a late barbarism, even subsequent to the tombs at Mykenæ, and probably not earlier than the first century B. C. We did not then know the objects found in the ruins at Tiryns, and now preserved at Athens, so that there was nothing to point out more precisely the epoch to which this structure belonged; but the mixture of sawn stone, cut stone, rude burnt bricks, with rubble and stones taken from the ancient city, determined its character as semi-barbarous, and subsequent to all good Greek work. To avoid repetition, I will give further on the details of the evidence, over which I went again a week later in company with some friends from Oxford, Hellenists and students of archæology, and one of whom, Mr. Pelham, had made an especial study of prehistoric monuments. This visit not only confirmed the conclusions which Penrose and myself had agreed in, but gave more definiteness in some respects, owing to Mr. Pelham's criticisms.

In my previous study of the Mykenæ tombs, I had come to the conclusion that the partition walls between the circular substructure and the ancient wall of the city were contemporary with the circle, and had been constructed as buttresses to support the latter, which is of rough broken stone, laid without cement of any kind. These partition walls, being in part composed of débris of the archaic and of the classical Mykenæ, are indisputably marked as post-classic, being later than the destruction of Mykenæ by the Argives. Mr. Pelham pointed out certain details which are almost absolutely conclusive of the priority of these partition walls to the inhumation, and that the tomb was an intrusion into a mass of habitations rudely raised by some poor tribe who had profited by the massive walls of Mykenæ to construct a refuge there—perhaps only temporarily, because their walls were flimsy, and would not have stood long alone. No mortar was used, so far as we can now see, and the stone was mostly merely broken masses, the exceptions being material from the older walls. This explains what had always puzzled me before—viz., the rude houses which lie beyond the monument, and which, being of the same construction as the partition or supposed buttress wall, I had been troubled to connect satisfactorily with the tombs. The history of this series of works, therefore, is in brief as follows:

Mykenæ, the city, with its still remaining circuit of walls, the Lion Gate, the postern gate, and the so-called Treasury of Atreus, are of the polished stone period; traces of remains of the classical period being shown in the pilasters which had been placed in the front of the "Treasury" entrance and the second tomb—clearly a late imitation of the greater one. Then came the ruin of the city by Argos, and its abandonment for centuries, probably, and the refuge here of some poor people who were content to build a hamlet of rude stone habitations in the so-called Agora, or space which was left between the ancient Acropolis and the outer wall, there being no trace of such habitations found on the Acropolis hill. I conjecture that these houses had been already again abandoned, when there came a barbarian tribe who chose this sheltered enclosure to construct a huge tomb for the interment of several of their own number, probably a chief and other important people, perhaps in single, perhaps by successive burials; the remains of one (that which Schliemann identified with Agamemnon) being pronounced, I understand, to be those of a woman. To effect this interment the ground was excavated to the rock, demolishing in part the houses there, and the circle of stone raised round the graves so as to form a common tomb, and on this was reared a circle of flat stones, something after the manner of a druidical circle, which Pelham pronounces substantially the same in plan as the Celtic remains at Carnac. In some part of this were erected the barbarously ornamented stelas now in the Patissia Museum at Athens, and which again entirely correspond with similar stones from the Celtic tumuli in France to be seen at the Museum of St. Germain-en-Laye. All the evidence of the locality goes to confirm my original theory, that this was a Celtic interment of the period of the barbarian invasions stimulated by Pyrrhus.

The examination of Tiryns is even more convincing to any one who is acquainted with the archæology of architecture. The conclusion is inevitable that this series of buildings or building which Schliemann has called a prehistoric palace, is not the first but the last occupation of the site. This appears from the facts that while the construction which figures so imposingly on the plan of Dr. Schliemann's book is based on the débris of a former construction, there was no layer of later débris over it, and that the stones of which it is constructed are sometimes taken from the early Tiryns, sometimes masses of limestone sawed and drilled with a metallic tubular drill, such as does not occur until the later classical times. Moreover, the most massive blocks, which are sawn marble not finished from the saw marks or in any way polished, bind in with rubble and rude bricks well burned, the whole held together by superfluous abundance of a poor mortar. The bases of the prehistoric columns of Schliemann are simply rudely cut bases of a style which would induce the opinion that they were Byzantine without the remains of Byzantine chapels and graves, which could not be ignored in the plan, but are in the Doctor's conclusions and theory; without reference, too, to the fragments of Byzantine pottery of a late epoch—it may be as late even as the tenth or eleventh century A. D. Dr. Sterrett finds in the whole ruin the exact character of the early Turkish work found in numerous localities in Asia Minor, and would have classed it as Turkish if he had come across it in the Asiatic provinces. But the pottery is unmistakably glazed and painted earthenware, of a coarse quality, with the brilliancy of the glaze perfectly preserved, and with the usual Byzantine allegorical animals. There was no object of distinctly high antiquity found, and the painting on the wall, which is so carefully copied in the illustrations of the Doctor's book, is simply barbarous wall-painting done on a very gross and perishable plaster, with nothing archaic in it except its rudeness. The Greek official who is at the head of the department of excavations and archæology, had little or no doubt of the ruin being Byzantine, and if we had seen him before we went to the site, we might have saved ourselves a period of perplexity, for when once it was suggested that it was Byzantine the difficulties cleared up rapidly. A late Byzantine occupation, and the construction of a palace or series of houses on the ruins of the citadel of Tiryns, account for everything that was found, and no other hypothesis will.

Dr. Schliemann has carefully refrained from exploring the débris on which part of the palace was built, or he would have been unable to sustain his theory. As it is, how any man with the least experience in prehistoric work could have conceived that this belonged to it, I cannot understand, for the barbarism and comparative modernness of it *sautent aux yeux*. Schliemann's theory and treatment of the subject are simply stupefying, and this was the impression of every one of us—seven in number.

W. J. STILLMAN.

Correspondence.

JOHN HARVARD: FURTHER NOTES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have reason to know that considerable interest has been excited by my letter which was printed in the *Nation* of March 4 (*ante*, p. 191), and therefore you will perhaps permit me to revert to the subject with which more particularly its last paragraph is occupied, and to say a few words on another subject.

The register of Emmanuel College is a compilation of the last century, and is, therefore, of quite secondary interest in relation to John Harvard, but I find elsewhere contemporary evidence of what in his time his own college looked upon as the main point to be recorded on admission. In 1634 Richard Newell, and in 1638 William Maxey, on migrating from Emmanuel to another college, took with them testimonials in the customary form, from which I cite so much as suffices for my purpose:

(December 16, 1634.) "These are to certify . . . that Richard Newell, borne in the county of Hartford, was admitted . . ."

(May 12, 1638.) "These are to certify . . . that William Maxey, borne in the county of Suffolke, now batchelour in arts, was admitted . . ."

These documents, issued as they necessarily were after reference to the register, speak for themselves.

I desire to enlarge somewhat upon the political

position of the borough of Southwark, or, in city language, of the Ward of Bridge-Without, not as defined in legal documents, but as coming to the surface and appearing to the inhabitants in every-day affairs in John Harvard's time; and for this purpose I will avail myself of original papers of his date remaining in the archives of the Corporation of London.

In 1608 the Justices of the County of Surrey assessed, for a certain purpose, the carmen of the city residing in Southwark, together with other inhabitants of the borough—that is to say, treated them as inhabitants of the county over which they had jurisdiction. The Lord Mayor, being informed, wrote at once to the Board of Green Cloth complaining, and stating in so many words, that "the Borough of Southwark had never been taken for any part of the County of Surrey." In 1611 we have another matter which in principle was similar. The same Justices had appointed a meeting in the Borough of Southwark for the purpose of administering the Oath of Allegiance to the inhabitants, but again the Lord Mayor was equal to the occasion. He intimated to the Justices that he would see to the business, and that they were not to expect the appearance before them of persons who dwelt within the government of the city. And in 1624 we find something in connection with the home original of what was a necessary adjunct to every New England village, the training-field. The inhabitants of Bridge-Without, finding themselves summoned to Croydon to be mustered with the inhabitants of the County of Surrey, contrary to ancient custom, which had been recognized by Secretary Walsingham in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, sought the aid of the city, with the result that an Order in Council was issued directing that they should be mustered by the city, as formerly, and not with the county. Matters such as these, continually occurring, subjects of common talk, with results patent to all, brought home to the dweller in Bridge-Without, in a very intelligible manner, that he belonged to the great city of London just as much as the dweller in Cheapside.

It is to be hoped that the American, be he who he may, who in due course will collect and arrange the materials for the biography of a great worthy, may take, as he easily can, those means which will prevent his falling into the irritating blunders which, to a greater or smaller degree, mar all that has been written on your side of the Atlantic concerning the English period of John Harvard's life, since the present discussion began. I have noted a want of acquaintance with forms of expression in common use during the seventeenth century, and even an evident inability to read the handwriting of that age. Passing by this matter, I will notice two points only, out of very many calling for remark, in the latest writing which has reached me from the United States, and which comes from the Massachusetts Cambridge. The author, recalling that in a legal document John Harvard is styled "clarke," tells us that "this fortunate clause" establishes "that he was a man of learning," and adds, "it is impossible to say whether he had received orders in England." Indeed! Why, "clarke" is the very word which settles the question—the very word which for many centuries has alone been used in all formal instruments to describe a man in holy orders. This same gentleman, I see, discards the words given *ante*, page 297—"power being reserved, . . . come to seek it"—in favor of a translation of his own, the result being what I dare say he little supposes. Let me tell him that those words are the identical words which, ever since English has been the language of the courts, have been used as the equivalent of the Latin formula which he reprints. It is with some difficulty, if at all, things of this kind can be excused, because they may be avoided without any. Z.

CAMBRIDGE, ENGLAND, May 7, 1886.

FREE LABOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A moment's reflection is sufficient to convince any employer that, other things being equal, a free moral agent is worth more to him as an employee than a man who has bound himself to quit work, without knowing why and however much against his will, whenever some self-important, worthless "walking delegate" makes his appearance and snaps his fingers, or otherwise signals for him to do so. Workmen of average intelligence applying for employment cannot fail to understand that such is the case.

Were employers generally to act upon this, and, in taking new men into their employment, pay those who have retained their independence more than they pay those who have surrendered it, such a course would do much to render organizations binding their members to become like so many cattle, unpopular with the workingmen and in the community. It may be suggested that employers would be likely to be deceived. Very possibly. But when workingmen hesitate to acknowledge that they belong to such organizations, the end thereof is near at hand.

GEORGE B. UPHAM.

BOSTON, May 15, 1886.

REMEDIES FOR BOYCOTTING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The recent strikes have given thinking people a very forcible suggestion of the dangers to be apprehended from the laboring classes when under the leadership of ignorant and unprincipled men. If the law-abiding portion of the community will lay this experience to heart and *act* upon it, our troubles will not have been in vain. There are two points to which special attention should be given:

1. The arm of the law must be strengthened.

We must have legislation explicit enough to cover every possible case of interference with a man's natural and constitutional right to go about his lawful business unmolested. The penalties attached to the violation of such laws should be very severe. The man who steals my month's wages after it is earned, is not half so dangerous an enemy to society as the man who robs me of my right to earn it. In Missouri we are glad to see the annouacement made in the most influential paper in the State, that every candidate for the Legislature will be interrogated in writing, as soon as nominated, as to his willingness to support a law defining and punishing the crime of boycotting. This is a move in the right direction, and should be actively taken up in other States; but it must be earnest and aggressive, for its very suggestion will put within the reach of demagogues a larger purchasable vote than ever before. The Knights of Labor will soon be playing an important part in politics—let no one deceive himself as to that. We have already been treated to the disgusting spectacle of a Congressional Committee deferentially requesting an ignorant inciter of riots to suggest changes in the Federal Constitution. When Congressional committees show themselves ready to compound with the confessed enemies of law and order for their continuance in office, it is time to drop mere questions of party out of sight, and do a little energetic work for the preservation of liberty. The formation of Law and Order Leagues is a good movement, always providing that they do not allow the excitement of the moment to draw them *outside* the law.

2. Something must be done to infuse among the masses some knowledge of the cardinal principles of economics.

The prevalent opinion that these principles are too abstruse to be comprehended by any but educated people, is unfounded. Professor Jevons, in his 'Primer of Political Economy,' gave ample demonstration that the most important elements of the science can be stated in a manner both interesting and easy to comprehend. The child in the public schools or the laboring man of ordinary intelligence who could not understand the teachings of this little work, is the exception and not the rule. When the seed of the economic heresies held by such men as Powderly, George, and Gunton falls into soil entirely unoccupied by the truth, we can expect nothing else than a disastrous harvest. We are not unaware of the difficulties in the way of having political economy properly taught in our public schools. The baneful influence of protectionism stands ready as yet to destroy a large proportion of the good which might be done in that direction. A great deal may be done, however, by private effort in the way of circulating literature and organizing local associations for the study of such questions. Every little helps. W. J.

STATE MILITIA FOR STATE DISTURBANCES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is not to be wondered at that the War of the Rebellion left us with an exaggerated sense of nationality as against State rights, and an undue contempt for militia as against regular troops—two sentiments which find expression in Mr. Bumstead's communication of April 29. But the framers of the Constitution, who made the States an integral part of our national system, and carefully provided for a militia, did not build upon the experience or for the needs of a single generation. And however it may be in Illinois, we of Wisconsin have no reason to wish these things otherwise than as they are. The independent action (not *sovereignty*) of the States, and "the necessity of a well-regulated militia to the security of a free State," have been amply vindicated by these events. With militia—and with regulars no less—everything depends upon how they are handled. We were so fortunate as to have, in the two most important positions at this juncture, men of nerve, sound judgment, and promptness of action—Governor Rusk and Adjutant-General Chapman. Both of these hastened to the scene of disturbance, summoned the militia (which was in an excellent condition of discipline and morale), and, by one volley of musketry and a few well-directed cavalry dashes, quelled the riot so effectually that the police was able to do the rest. I am old-fashioned enough to believe that this way of dealing with a mob promises better for the future of free institutions than if there had been a detachment of Federal troops stationed at Milwaukee.

W. F. ALLEN.

MADISON, May 8, 1886.

THE FAULTY TEACHING OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to add my testimony to that of your correspondent in the *Nation* of May 6th, as to the present imperfect system of teaching English grammar. Is it not a system which slights the inculcation of the universal laws of language (the main object, one would suppose, of the study of grammar), while at the same time the accidents, the differentiations, of English speech are so magnified as to give an altogether misleading idea of their relative importance; in fact, to treat them as laws, rather than as the exceptional

variations which they really are? There is nothing which proves that the present method of teaching English grammar is bad, more surely than the general dislike and apathy of the children toward the study, while there is nothing more certain than that this dislike and apathy disappears as soon as the students are made to comprehend something of the general laws of language, which they can hardly do from the mass of irrelevancies with which most of our so-called English grammars teem. Every one who has had a common-school education, followed by a thorough classical course, will bear witness to the fact that it was this latter course which finally cleared up the whole subject of grammar, if it ever has been made clear to him, and which gave him a comprehensive view of the whole field of language-study.

Your correspondent's strictures on the usual treatment by English grammarians of the subjunctive, of the cases, of the adjectives—he might have added, of the much abused and misunderstood tenses—are justified. The writers of our present English school grammars would seem, from all indications, to have been conversant with only the English tongue, and not to have had a very scientific acquaintance even with that. A disciple of Bopp, or Corssen, say, ought to be capable of explaining on general principles to the English student the use of the subjunctive mode in his own vernacular, and would instinctively avoid the vicious subdivision complained of; and so a thorough student of the strictly logical tense system of the Greek verb should be able to make clear to the ordinary scholar the equally logical English verb. Certainly there is better reason for subdividing the imperfect tense of the English verb, with its "was having, had, did have," than for the division of the subjunctive which your correspondent so justly criticises.

The study of English grammar, as at present pursued in our public schools, is almost useless to all students, and entirely so to those who intend to take a subsequent classical course. The writer has found by sad experience in tutoring that the work of the schools has virtually to be undone before the student can be made to comprehend the broad principles of the laws of speech, and thus, and thus only, become prepared to overcome with comparative ease the difficulties of Latin and Greek. This general condemnation of the study as practised in our schools is justified also by facts derived from a considerable experience in the examination of teachers for the public-school service—these would-be teachers being themselves the product of the common-school system. In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, the applicant's "knowledge" of English grammar has consisted in the memorizing of a set of idiotic rules, and in a system of pettifogging parsing which alone would be sufficient to hide from his view the logic of language, and which rendered him entirely unable to cope with questions based on general laws. It would seem that there might be a grammar devised which should make these general laws the prominent and essential feature, leaving to a subordinate part or treatise the explanation of idiomatic variations.

Conscientious educators could do no better service to the cause than, in general committee, to revise the whole subject, and, among other evils, to correct the absurd and uncertain grammatical nomenclature, which every upstart grammarian thinks it his special province to remodel. Let us call the grammatical spade a spade, in whatever language it is encountered.

C. T. Williams.

Kent, Ohio, May 13, 1886.

DAISIES AND DAISIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A marked illustration of the misleading power of a pleasant association when it fastens on the name of a thing instead of on the thing itself, may be found in the very general use among us—and the warm defence of such use, by many people—of the name daisy for the common white flower of our fields. It is a lamentable mistake, for this reason, that knowledge of the true daisy so dear to English poets is confused by such familiarity with its name. The intelligent comprehension of all the exquisite allusions to the daisy in English literature must pass from American readers if they permit themselves to suppose that the (so-called) ox-eyed daisy, the whiteweed, is the same with the true daisy. It is quite another genus, and its character, its charm (I should be the last to deny that it has its own charm) is of an entirely other quality. Its free and somewhat flaunting growth is in direct contrast to the humbleness of the little turf-loving daisy, which, as Burns says,

> "Scarce rears above the Parent-earth
> Its tender form."

The chief delightfulness of the whiteweed springs from childish memories, from such associations as give poetry to the buttercup: it has the delightfulness of commonness.

Commonness is also one of the special glories of the daisy: it is "nature's favorite." It is so dear to the heart partly because it is so widespread a gladness in its own fields; but they are the fields of Europe, not of America, that rejoice in it. It is consecrated to Americans only by literary associations deepened by foreign travel. In Europe it grows everywhere, from Iceland to the extreme south; in the United States it is not to be found. Its special and perfect home is an English lawn—the little circlets stud the sward as with embroidery; but it is companionable also with the wild grass of hilltops and of brooksides. Pastures and meadows here are adorned—more abundantly than the farmer likes—with our whiteweed; but do we like it on our lawns?

But let us not compare the two at all. I only wish to bring forward some of the descriptions of the English daisy by English poets, which make it impossible for any reader of them to speak of the American daisy and the English by the same name—a fact of which the majority of young Americans seem to me to be singularly ignorant. Yet one would think that for women at least (with whom the love of flowers is usually instinctive), whatever their other enforced studies, the first "elective" and the last would always be the study of English poetry. And one would think that Chaucer would not be unknown to them—the most ardent lover of the daisy—and that they would read once and again his 'Legende of Goode Women'; and that even once reading it they would never forget the enchanting praise of the daisy in the lines beginning

> "Of alle the floures in the mede
> Thanne love I most thise floures white and rede
> Suche as men callen daysyes in our toune."

"White and *rede*"; it is there that lies one of the lovelinesses of the daisy, in the red tips and red underneathness of its petals. "Daisies pied"; how much of the delicate color of the picture is lost to those who do not recognize the force of the epithet in the heavenly verse—

> "When Daisies pied and Violets blue,
> And Lady-smocks all silver-white,
> And Cuckoo-buds of yellow hue
> Do paint the meadows with delight."

Wordsworth not only compares the daisy to

> "A queen in crown of rubies drest,"

but goes so far as to speak of her "crimson head" in a verse I will return to in a moment. But it is Burns who, with his characteristic felicity of touch, has painted the daisy in an immortal line,

> "Wee, modest, crimson-tippèd flower."

Those epithets, once heard and appreciated, become one's very thought of the flower as completely as Shakspere's "violets dim."

In a pleasant little paper on the daisy by the Rev. H. N. Ellacombe, of Gloucestershire, published as an appendix to his 'Plant-lore of Shakespeare,' I find he mentions as one of its chief charms the fact that "there is scarcely a day in the whole year in which you might not find a daisy in flower"; and it is this which Wordsworth dwells on for a moment in one of his many "addresses" to the daisy:

> "When soothed awhile by milder airs
> Thee Winter in the garland wears
> That thinly shades his few gray hairs;
> Spring cannot shun thee;
> While Summer fields are thine by right,
> And Autumn, melancholy wight,
> Doth in thy crimson head delight
> When rains are on thee."

Another of the attributes of the daisy—"the bright daye's eyes," as Ben Jonson called them—its closing at sunset, is prettily described in a verse quoted by Mr. Ellacombe from Clare, a peasant poet of nice powers of observation:

> "Now the blue fog creeps along,
> And the birds forget their song;
> Flowers now sleep within their hoods;
> Daisies button into buds."

For the love of English poetry, may I not entreat every reader of the *Nation* never again to call ox-eyed daisies "daisies" *unqualifiedly*? I fear it would be considered going to an extreme to urge the courageously honest use of the name whiteweed! We are the more bound to do so because it is our own American name, unknown, I believe, in England, whence the plant came to us as a weed. But who would ever think of calling the daisy a weed? * *

THE UNIVERSITY SYSTEM AT THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the present communication I wish to supplement my letter on the elective system, which you published in the *Nation* of May 13, by some account of our method of dealing with the question of marks and of voluntary attendance on college exercises, and more particularly by a description of our so-called "university system."

The first two topics can be dismissed quite briefly. As to marks for recitations and rank in class, they are practically unknown to us. Doubtless each instructor in a general way forms an estimate of the relative proficiency of his pupils, but the official record preserves nothing beyond the results of examinations. On the completion of a study the student is reported to the Faculty as passed, conditioned, or not passed. If passed, he receives a credit that counts toward graduation; if conditioned, he is allowed a year in which to make up the deficiency; but if he fails to do so within that time, he is treated as not passed, which means that his work in that study counts for nothing, and that he must do it over again in class before he can get credit. Attendance at recitations is to this extent voluntary, viz., that no specific penalty attaches to any single absence, nor is there any graduated system of penalties for repeated absence. But it must not be inferred from this that either Faculty or students regard it as immaterial whether attendance is regular or not. A student absent from recitation follows custom and the unwritten law by making prompt explanation to his instructor. If in any case a tendency to excessive absence is noticed, the matter is reported to the Faculty, and steps are at once taken to remedy the evil. It would be pretty nearly true to say that at Ann Arbor the relation of theory and practice is almost the direct opposite of that criticised by the Harvard Committee in the report alluded to in my former letter, when they say: "In theory students are not permitted to absent themselves

from recitations except in a very limited way. Practically, in the judgment of your committee, there is in this respect the largest latitude."

In giving to the public a short story of our experience with the university system, I may say at the outset that my main object is simply to show the direction our efforts have taken in the search for a solution of an important problem in education. I do not propose to discuss the comparative merits of different systems. Our credit system allows a student to earn his degree by completing a specified amount of work, measured by full courses of study or by hours of weekly attendance. Under the university system the obtaining of a degree depends only in part on the number of full courses standing to one's credit; in addition to any credits he may have, the candidate is obliged to pass a special final examination, before a committee of the Faculty, on certain specified topics to which he has devoted at least a year and a-half of study. It is evident that the new system, though carried on side by side with the old, is adapted only for the more mature students —those who are already well grounded in the studies usually called disciplinary, who have some well-defined aim in view, and who wish to pursue special lines of work further than would ordinarily be practicable in connection with the courses of study offered to large classes. It is, in a word, a scheme to promote specialization in cases where specialization seems likely to prove profitable to the student. Premature entrance on university methods of study, as contrasted with college methods, is guarded against by providing that the privileges of the system shall not be open to any student until he has completed at least two years of his college course, and has completed all or nearly all the courses included in the set of studies prescribed for the degree he seeks.

The first public announcement of the requirements for graduation on this plan appeared in the calendar for 1882-83. It was at that time provided that students working on the new system would "not be held to the completion of a fixed number of courses," but would have to "take an amount of work approved by the Faculty," and leave the question of degree to depend on the result of an examination to be held at the end of their period of study. For the work done, no credits like those earned on the old system were obtainable. Students were encouraged, even while following instruction given in the classroom, to carry on, under the supervision of the Faculty, independent and original researches in broader fields. In the calendar for 1883-84 it was more explicitly stated that students at work on the university system would have to pursue "three distinct lines of study, one major study and two minor studies." The following combinations, taken from the schedule of examinations held in the spring of 1884, indicate the character of the groups that were approved, the major study standing first in order in each group; 1, Electricity, Analytical Chemistry, Mechanics; 2, Greek, Latin, German; 3, English Literature, Political Economy, Finance; 4, History of the United States from 1789 to 1860, Political Economy, International Law; 5, Philosophy, English Literature, German. Twelve students took their first degrees on that system in 1884.

In its practical working, the system, as above described, though it clearly furnished a valuable stimulus to those who worked under it, and was an efficient agent in securing a high grade of scholarship and mental training, did not prove attractive to so large a number of students as its more earnest advocates had hoped it would, nor, indeed, to the majority of those whose attainments were such as to fit them for work of the character contemplated. At the beginning of his third year in college, a student, with two roads before him leading to the same degree, can easily bring himself to believe that, by a judicious choice of studies, he can secure on the credit system the chief advantages to be derived from the other system, and at the same time spare himself the ordeal of the final examination, and avoid the risk of staking all his hopes on the issue of a single day. The student's reasoning, it may be granted, has some force; and possibly it is too early yet to expect, or even to desire, that many members of any college class will care to devote as much as one-half of their college career to specialties. During the present year, therefore, the Faculty has so far amended its regulations as to permit the studies designated as minors to be pursued, under prescribed conditions, on the credit system, the final examination being confined to the major study alone. It remains to be seen what the effect of this modification will be.

In the foregoing description, attention has been directed to the university system chiefly as a method of undergraduate study. In its application to post-graduate work, its success from the start has been more decided. It was under this system that Miss Lucy M. Salmon, for instance, while studying here for her degree of master of arts, prepared a thesis on the History of the Appointing Power of the President, which was afterwards published, probably with some additions, as one of the papers of the American Historical Association. The paper received favorable notice in the *Nation* of April 8.

W. H. PETTEE.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, May 17, 1886.

"I AM BUT MAD NORTH-NORTH-WEST."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me a brief space to make an inquiry as to this singular speech of *Hamlet* ('Hamlet,' II. 2). The explanation of "handsaw" as a corrupt dialectic form for heron, and Mr. Heath's note that "the expression obviously refers to the sport of hawking"; that with a northerly wind the heron would fly toward the south, and the spectator would consequently have the sun in his eyes: that with a southerly wind the heron flying north could be easily distinguished from the hawk by the spectator, who would then have the sun at his back, is a good explanation as far as it goes; to the extent, namely, that *Hamlet's* wildness came on him only with a northwest wind, or, dropping the metaphor, came from one source alone and did not extend to other matters. Such, at least, is the impression which he means to convey to *Guildenstern* and *Rosencrantz*.

What was this source of his trouble? Does he mean to refer to the guilty love-making of the King and the Queen; and was there a notion afloat among Shakspere's contemporaries that a *northerly* wind was any more a love-wind, or any less, than a *southerly* wind? Two passages in Chaucer seem to suggest something of the kind. In his 'Parlament of Foules' (ll. 113-119, ed. Lounsbury), Chaucer has this invocation to Venus:

> "Cytherea, thou blysful lady swete!
> That with thy firbrond dauntist whom thou lest,
> And madist me this sweuene for to mete,
> Be thou myn help in this, for thou mayst best!
> As wisly as I saw the *north-north-west*,
> When I began my sweuene for to write
> So gif me myght to ryme and ek tendyte."

Further on in the poem (ll. 260-280), he describes the place where he found Venus, whom, he says, he "saw *north-north-west*"! It is to be observed that Priapus is the last classical personage (ll. 253-259) whom he passes before reaching Venus, and that Diana is the next one mentioned (l. 281).

Again, in 'The Knightes Tale' (ll. 1045-1055, ed. Morris), Chaucer describes the temple erected by Theseus as having an altar to Venus in the east, one to Diana in the north, and one to Mars in the west. The following fancy suggests itself in this connection:

Venus and Mars are extremes, but extremes which meet, lawfully at the altar of Diana in the north, or unlawfully elsewhere; but they meet. So that a "north-north-west" love meeting might be both an *illicit* love meeting and a *bloody* one, not under the influence of the chaste Diana, but brought about by the murderous god of war; and so *Hamlet* would be thinking of the "most seeming, virtuous queen," his mother, and the "incestuous, murderous, damned Dane," his uncle; and so the Queen's conscience-stricken guess as to the cause of *Hamlet's* "distemper"—

> "I doubt, it is no other but the main:
> His father's death and our o'erhasty marriage"—

would be the opinion which *Hamlet* expects and desires her to entertain.

Now is there in Chaucer, or in Shakspere elsewhere, or in their contemporary literature, any traditional foundation for the northwest being a source of illicit love? Could Shakspere have found any such notion in Boccaccio, or in Dante, supposing him to have known Dante's writings? Evil and evil spirits come from the north, it seems; and, according to some of the critics, Milton makes his Satan come from hell gates on the north, past the pavilion of Chaos, the "anarch old," to our universe in the south. This mediæval idea of the local source of wickedness may be contained in *Hamlet's* queer definition of the kind of madness he was suffering from.

I hope some one having access to a good library will pursue the subject, fanciful though it be.

—Respectfully, W. T. T.

HOLLINS, VA., May 7, 1886.

Notes.

TICKNOR & CO., Boston, publish immediately 'The Saunterer,' by Chas. Goodrich Whiting; 'The Familiar Letters of Peppermint Perkins'; and 'Red-Nosed Frost,' a metrical translation from the Russian of N. A. Nekrasoff.

'Plutarch's Lives,' edited by Edwin Ginn, will be added in July by Ginn & Co. to their "Classics for Children."

'Southern California' is the title of a new work by Mr. T. S. Van Dyke, author of 'The Still Hunter,' to be published shortly by Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

A new volume of poems by Mr. Charles G. Fall, of Boston, is now passing through the press.

The Caxton Book Concern, limited, will publish a volume of poems by Mr. John Grosvenor Wilson, author of the well-known play, "Nordeck."

Henry Holt & Co. are about to publish Hugh Conway's last novel, 'Living or Dead.'

A Scottish History Society has been founded, with the Earl of Rosebery for President. Its object is the discovery and printing of unpublished documents illustrative of the civil, religious, and social history of Scotland. The annual subscription is one guinea. Lord Dalhousie has offered to throw open his archives.

The literature of the Browning societies is enriched by a second and revised edition of Mrs. Sutherland Orr's 'Handbook to the Works of Robert Browning' (Scribner & Welford). The aim of the writer is merely to group the poems and to condense or describe their contents in prose, with no attempt at criticism. To the student of Mr. Browning's works as a whole the service is a considerable one, and the analysis of his philosophy and apprehension of his poetic attitude which underlie the classification are just. The dates of publication in the case of each poem are given—a great help to the systematic study of his career; and there are a number of passages which would find their proper place as notes in an

edition of the poems, inasmuch as they clear up details. No one should expect to find the volume a means of avoiding the difficulty of the thought or the obscurity of its expression in the works themselves. It does not make Browning "easy"; but, at least, it starts one in the right direction and gives him his bearings. The revision of the first edition consists of minor corrections, slight changes of arrangement, and some expansion of the prose paraphrase in the case of the darker verses.

Another contribution to the same literature is Mrs. Caroline H. Dall's pamphlet, "Sordello: a History and a Poem" (Boston: Roberts Bros.). This is a résumé from the original sources of the biography of Sordello, and an account of the career made up from these by the imagination of Browning for his hero. It is well done. The first part is faithful and clear, and reproduces the various versions of the real Sordello's life with painstaking accuracy and fulness; the second part is a reduction of the facts of Browning's story, and serves as a kind of "argument" for the poem. The æsthetic philosophy of "Sordello" is slightly touched, and seems to have lain outside the author's purpose. The obscurity of the sequence of events and the relations of the characters in "Sordello" is, however, the least of its darkness; its power of expression bears about the same relation to poetry as the sounds ejaculated by a person born deaf do to speech.

From Scribner & Welford we have half-a-dozen of the later issues in the Bohn series: a new edition of Hazlitt's 'Spirit of the Age,' edited by his son, W. Carew Hazlitt; the 'Letters of Charles Lamb,' by the same editor, in two volumes; a new volume of 'Miscellanies, Æsthetic and Literary,' from the remains of S. T. Coleridge; a handy 'History of Philosophy, for the Use of Students,' by Ernest Belfort Bax; and the second volume (an illustrated glossary) of Fairholt's 'Costume in England to the End of the Eighteenth Century.' The four volumes first mentioned have a relationship in time, and might all claim a place in any "gentleman's library." Still, the elder Hazlitt's 'Spirit of the Age' has become almost unreadable, in spite of the interest yet attaching to many of the subjects of his characterizations. Mr. Justice Talfourd's similar attempt at portraiture of his contemporaries, in writing a life of Lamb to accompany his select correspondence, is also barely tolerable, but his services in elucidating the letters outweigh the distastefulness of his lumbering style, and the want of that *esprit* which so shines in Lamb. Mr. W. C. Hazlitt has none too much of it either, but, thanks to him, we now possess in one volume the two compilations made by Talfourd—an economy of shelf-room as meritorious as the making two blades of grass grow where one grew before. He has done more than unite—he has edited, annotated, and corrected. The Coleridge volume, of which Mr. T. Ashe is the competent editor, contains sundry essays on the Fine Arts and on the "Prometheus" of Æschylus; fragments and notes, mainly from the lectures of 1818 (on the Middle Ages, Cervantes, Wit and Humor, Dante, Mythology, Style); with numerous miscellaneous pieces and notes on books and authors, ending with the essay on the Theory of Life. In this heterogeneous collection one will find all sides of Coleridge's mind.

Harper & Bros. give a fresh career to Prof. Richard T. Ely's 'French and German Socialism in Modern Times' by bringing it out in their Handy Series.

Lieut. W. H. Jaques's elaborate monograph on the 'Establishment of Steel Gun Factories in the United States,' abounding in plates, well fulfils the author's intention "to provide a book of easy reference to the details of the manufacture of modern ordnance." It appeared as No. 4 in the tenth volume of the Proceedings of the U. S. Naval Institute at Annapolis.

Scott's 'Lady of the Lake,' 'Selections from the Table-Talk of Martin Luther,' and Bacon's 'Wisdom of the Ancients and New Atlantis,' are the latest numbers of Cassell's National Library, edited by Prof. Henry Morley.

That the Adirondacks have survived in popular favor the extravagant laudation that has been poured over them as an earthly paradise, shows their substantial merit. In the long run, exuberant, undeserved encomium is as damning as faint praise. The East is much blessed in having such a sanitarium at its doors, for it is a sanitarium of the first order, as well as a hunting park for men who cannot go to more distant and wilder regions. Dr. J. W. Stickler has edited and compiled a little book, 'The Adirondacks as a Health Resort' (Putnams), which resembles a composite photograph in that many minds are seen in the picture it makes of this haven of health. Many contributors have recorded their experiences, as they understood them. Some of these are authorities of the highest kind, who speak for classes; others tell briefly of the health found for themselves. The book is a good guide for health-seekers there, and, with its encouragement and its cautions, may be studied profitably by the not-too-ill invalid. The combination on which health is to be restored is abundant fresh air, good food, and freedom from care. The Adirondacks have no monopoly of these, but they are well supplied. The last chapter is the most useful in describing a sanitarium that has been established at Saranac Lake, under the best auspices for those possessing neither poverty nor riches.

'Food Materials and Their Adulterations,' by Ellen H. Richards (Boston: Estes & Lauriat), is a sedate compilation of much practical interest for all who set a table. The author lifts the general subject of comestibles to a very high plane, and opens a wide field for domestic missionaries, by starting out with the premise that "the health and the morals of a people depend mainly upon the food they eat and the homes they live in." She has arranged various scattered facts so as to point out the way over an important but imperfectly known region. The general tenor of the book is not such as to attract the lovers of light reading nor to satisfy the hungry seeker after all the facts, but it is a good manual for schools and the intelligent housewife. Perhaps more stress might be laid before a domestic constituency upon the possibility of harm in canned food from the chloride of zinc which is displacing the older and innocent rosin flux. It is mentioned, but is not emphasized. Such expressions as "when money is plentiful and gold at par," and "when gold was two dollars or more" (pp. 20,21) show that the author's views on political are not as clear as they are on domestic economy.

'Coast Defences against Asiatic Cholera' is a report to the Illinois State Board of Health by its Secretary, Dr. J. H. Rauch, on the subject of Quarantine. It is an excellent compilation of the quarantine organizations in actual use along the seaboard, and Dr. Rauch believes that if proper vigilance and thoroughness are exercised, the foreign disease may be excluded. But constant vigilance and the promptest action are essential. It is more probable, if the European epidemic keep alive, that occasional cases will pass the cordon; but if the local authorities do all that is required of them, there is little to be feared from these. The special value of the pamphlet is its convenient grouping of the defensive agencies now in operation by the local and national authorities of the United States and Canada.

The *Revue Scientifique* gives some interesting statistics bearing on the comparative healthiness of two systems of dealing with nightsoil. In Brussels the mortality from typhoid fever had reached 105 in 100,000 in 1870–71; but when the *fosse* or cesspool was given up it fell at once to 40, and for the ten years it has not exceeded 30. In Frankfort it was 89, but when closets connecting with sewers were introduced in 1870 it fell to 29. In Berlin it declined from the same cause from 50 to 28. In London the change is of older date, having begun in 1819 and been completed in 1848. The result is a mortality from typhoid of 26 and from diphtheria of 18, while Paris reports 70 and 75 respectively. No wonder the "capital of civilization" makes so bad a show; there are still 70,000 cesspools in it, many of them in the cellars of the houses, fermenting and poisoning the air. This is chiefly in the poor and populous districts at the north and northeast. In other quarters a better practice is obtaining. Some 700 miles of sewers are already constructed (discharging into the Seine 395,000 cubic metres of sewage daily), and 300 more are promised. When all is done, no doubt we shall hear of a fall in the death rate which will effect the object aimed at by the gratuitous education of every seventh child—the repopulation of France.

Exceptionally interesting is the April number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, which opens with a sketch and a portrait of Col. Lambert Cadwalader, of Revolutionary distinction. The lively journal of Miss Sally Wister is concluded, and will be missed. From the inedited journal of Dr. John Morgan, one of the founders of systematic medical education in this country, is given a curious account of a visit to Voltaire at Ferney in 1764. Noticeable in this is Voltaire's more than tolerable English, which he dexterously used in praise of Newton, Locke, Bolingbroke, and English free institutions. Likewise heretofore unpublished is a document proving the corporate existence and government of Philadelphia prior to the charter of 1701. Finally, we may mention a genealogical sketch of the late Gen. W. S. Hancock, whose paternal line is unknown beyond his grandfather, a seaman.

Gen. W. F. Smith's second and concluding article on the battle of Shiloh is the most significant article in the May *Magazine of American History*. It is essentially a vindication of General Buell against the generalship of Grant and Sherman.

There is not much to remark in *L'Art* for April 15 (Macmillan), unless it be the suggestive discourse—a beginning—on "La Montagne et le Paysage," by Pierre Gauthiez. But in the *Courrier de l'Art* for April 16, one must notice the criticism of G. Dargenty on the late Paul Baudry as an artist, apropos of an exhibition of his works. Baudry is denied either ideality or heart; is said to have fallen, as between two stools, in being equally drawn toward the antique and toward the modern; to have been a digester of masters, but not one himself—"un grand artiste, non pas."

We cannot judge of the likeness in the large lithographic portrait of Pasteur sent us by Parke, Davis & Co., Detroit, Mich. The head is at all events a striking one.

The principle of the well-known Game of Authors has been applied to Mythology, Roman and Greek, in a pretty set of cards published by the Chautauqua Press, 117 Franklin St., Boston. There are illustrations of certain divinities, but the ground of selection is not obvious, and many of the omissions seem strange. Nor are the accents of the proper names always accurate.

The abolitionists of Brazil, undaunted by the reaction manifested at the last elections, are renewing their attacks on the decaying but still powerful system of slavery. Foremost among them is of course Sr. Joaquim Nabuco, who edits

a popular, tract-like *Propaganda Liberal*, of which four issues have reached us. The essay which forms the body of each number is succeeded by a "Registo Politico," from which one may derive much information concerning the course of events and the state of parties on the main question. The office of the *Propaganda Liberal* is Rua da Quitanda 19, Rio Janeiro. Sr. Nabuco is also announced as the editor of a new Liberal Democratic organ, to be called *O Seculo*. We commend these publications to any one who wishes to combine a study of the Portuguese with the intellectual and moral gratification which Sr. Nabuco's writings always afford.

On the 25th of August next Professor Eduard Zeller, of Berlin, attains the fiftieth anniversary of his doctorate. His friends and admirers propose to commemorate the event by presenting to him on that day a bust of himself, with the names and addresses of all who contribute anything to the gift. A committee has already been formed, including such names as Bunsen, Bruns, Erdmann, Kuno Fischer, v. Hase, Helmholtz, Mommsen, Max Müller, v. Sybel, Vischer, and other leaders of European science and scholarship. To give Zeller's American admirers an opportunity of joining in the celebration, an American committee has been formed, consisting of Mr. Carl Schurz, 175 West Fifty-eighth Street, New York; President Barnard, Columbia College, New York; Prof. Geo. H. Palmer, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.; Prof. Geo. S. Morris, Michigan University, Ann Arbor; Prof. G. Stanley Hall, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore; and Prof. J. G. Schurman, 15 West Fifty-seventh Street, New York. The Committee believe they will have the support of educated men and women all over the country, and especially of those who have found a guide to the speculation and science of the ancient world in Zeller's classic 'History of Greek Philosophy.' They ask all who are interested in the success of the celebration to bring the matter to the notice of their friends. It is very desirable that not only a fair subscription, but a large number of names should be sent from America. A list of names and addresses (but *not* of contributions) will be handed over to Zeller, and it is known that the American names will be especially gratifying to him. Contributions will be thankfully received and acknowledged by any member of the Committee, and any further information may be obtained from Professor Schurman.

—Teachers are very apt to believe that methods which they have tried with success in their own classrooms will be good for all other classrooms, whereas the success is often due to the men and not to the methods; and the good results that Profs. Smith and Blackwell have gained from their 'Parallel Syntax Chart of Latin, Greek, French, English, and German, based on the logical analysis' (Ginn & Co.), will not infallibly repeat themselves in other hands. Apart from a number of typographical errors and other infelicities—all which will doubtless be rectified in subsequent editions—the method pursued is useful only for the most elementary stage, and, if kept up, will do more harm than good unless checked by the influence of the teacher. Boys and girls trained in the logical analysis are very likely to write Latin and Greek, French and German exercises that shall have every virtue except that of being endurable; and, as it is, many a sensitive teacher gnashes his teeth at sentences which conform to every principle of syntax and shock every feeling for style. The acquisition of a foreign language is only to a certain extent a matter of science; and though science is steadily encroaching on the domain of art, and reducing what seems floating fancy to fixed formula, still, phrasing will always be a potent element, and deeper study will reveal under that phrasing a national conception that shall seriously diminish the value of parallelisms of syntax drawn from "the logical analysis." The gaps in one language as compared with another are often more significant than the correspondences. But, after making all deductions and limitations, no one can regret that the authors of the chart, who are experienced and skilful teachers, have put an instrument that they have found so effective themselves within the reach of others. Only we must add that sharp revision seems to be needed—better examples, more accurate perspective.

—Mr. Benn, in an admirable paper in *Mind*, defends the theory that the history of the world is and will be a history of progress, against Sir Henry Maine, who maintains, in 'Popular Government,' that improvement is a merely local and temporary phenomenon. He shows that the burden of proof has, in these days, been shifted to the other side; the law of improvement has become no mere empirical generalization, but a necessary consequence of simpler laws. For, even supposing that there is no inherent tendency to improvement in the various forms of life, individual and associated, it is plain, from the Darwinian point of view, that those forms which enjoy some accidental superiority multiply at the expense of the less favored, and eventually supplant them. And now that the process of universal evolution has become, so to speak, conscious of itself, it is quite possible to hope not only that the agencies which have been at work in the past will continue in operation, but also that, by being understood and artificially stimulated, their rate of operation may be indefinitely accelerated. Sir H. Maine is led to a different conclusion by attributing great power to habit and to the unpopularity of change. Progress, whatever else it means, means change, and change, according to him, runs against the grain of average human nature, even continuing to be unacceptable for some considerable time after its introduction. This is proved by the repulsion excited by bad manners, and by the conservatism of Oriental races and of women in all countries. Mr. Benn points out that change itself may become a habit, as we see in the case of those excursions to the seaside or the mountains annually undertaken by whole families at the cost of much temporary inconvenience; that dislike of bad manners has a very different origin, as is proved by the fact that good manners are not at all offensive to the ill-bred; and that the proposition that women retard the progress of civilization is purely fictitious. The evidence offered for this intensity of female conservatism, he says, is such as to make us doubt its existence; "for a cause which so powerful a logician can defend by no stronger arguments than are here adduced must be weak indeed. Apart from the commonplaces of the subject, most stress is laid on two considerations: the constancy of women, as evinced among other authorities by English fiction, and the character of that fiction itself. The first argument is entirely beside the question, for constancy is a virtue even more necessary to the friends than to the foes of progress, and just as likely to be exercised on its behalf. . . . A more astounding assertion has seldom been made" than that English fiction, which is "ever more written by women and read by increasing multitudes of women," is inseparably wedded to old-fashioned ideas. "Considered as an art, English fiction has passed since the beginning of the century through various stages of evolution, involving vast and continuous changes in the choice of subjects, in the mode of treatment, in the underlying conception of life; while in this evolution at least two women have played a decisive part. Besides this movement of its own, English fiction has reflected every other contemporary movement, practical or speculative, the ambition of the most recent writers being to reproduce with photographic fidelity every tendency of the time."

—The objection that the frequent change of fashion in women's dress is inconsistent with the theory that they are absolutely intolerant of innovation, Sir H. Maine meets by saying that new fashions are merely revivals of old ones, and that some of the Tanagra figurines are draped in a fashion resembling that of the present day. Mr. Benn points out that this is a vicious circle, and that, if it were not, most—if not all—of the radical measures now proposed have their parallels in ancient history, so that, on the Tanagra-figurine principle, they ought to be secure from feminine opposition. He reminds the reader that the sewing machine has silently and swiftly accomplished a revolution in domestic affairs, and that no woman has been known to oppose it on the ground of her aversion to change. He concludes that progress has not been shown by Sir Henry Maine to be insecure, for, however great a power may be attributed to the conservatism of women, the inference would still remain irresistible, that since civilization has advanced so far without their help, or even in spite of their opposition, and, what is more, has compelled them to follow, it will be able to pursue its onward course in the future as it has done in the past.

—From B. Westermann & Co. we have received a number of more or less interesting publications on Jewish subjects. Three are biographical. Of these the most readable is Dr. Adolph Kohut's 'Moses Mendelssohn und seine Familie' (Dresden and Leipzig, 1886), prepared for the hundredth anniversary of the death of "the Jewish Socrates," January 4, 1886. It condenses in an agreeable manner, and with a great deal of enthusiasm, many characteristic traits and much piquant matter culled from the writings of the Mendelssohns themselves, from Hensel's large work on 'Die Familie Mendelssohn,' Kayserling's biography of the philosopher, E. Devrient's 'Erinnerungen' of his grandson the composer, Raich's 'Dorothea von Schlegel' (the philosopher's daughter), Ludwig Geiger's 'Geschichte der Juden in Berlin,' and other books. Dr. Zimmels's 'Leo Hebræus, ein jüdischer Philosoph der Renaissance' (Breslau, 1886) is an extensive and drily learned treatise on the "life, works, and doctrines" of Judah Leo, eldest son of the famous Don Isaac Abarbanel (or Abravanel), who, on the expulsion of the Jews from Spain and Portugal, settled with his father in Italy, and there wrote his once so popular 'Dialoghi di Amore' (Rome, 1535), composed in a Platonic vein, and other writings. In a note we find the interesting particular—already communicated to us, some years ago, by Dr. S. Adler, of this city—that metric evidence afforded by several Hebrew poems of Don Isaac shows that at least the original form of the name of the family was the formerly general Abarbanel, and not the lately preferred Abravanel. Dr. M. H. Friedländer's 'Geschichtsbilder aus der nachtalmudischen Zeit' (Brünn, 1885) contains sketches of Jewish scholars of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, and is to be followed by another *Heft*—which will complete the brief volume—containing biographical notices of celebrities of the latter half of the eighteenth and of the nineteenth century. It is characteristic of the process of evolution in modern Judaism that the author of this popular "Familienbuch," who officiates as a rabbi, has no hesitation in including among his Jewish "Geistesheroen" that great apostate from the faith of Israel, Baruch Spinoza. According to Prof. Rohling, of the University of Prague, who

has been carrying on an envenomed crusade against Jews, Judaism, and especially the Talmud, for a decade and a half, the Socratic philosopher who was Lessing's model for his 'Nathan der Weise,' Don Isaac Abarbanel, the trusted minister of Catholic kings, and (with the exception of Spinoza) all the heroes of Friedländer's 'Geschichtsbilder,' must have been, as true "Talmud Jews," sworn deadly enemies of the human race, and particularly anxious to destroy Christian happiness and lives. For such is Prof. Rohling's view of the Talmud and its followers, a view defended by quotations from its contents and other rabbinical writings, so maliciously commented upon, distorted, and garbled, and in some instances forged, that the author (who, by the by, glorifies the Inquisition and abhors Luther, Calvin, and free-thinkers almost as much as Talmudists) has been very freely branded as a "liar" by such Protestant authorities as Franz Delitzsch. These attacks he endeavored to parry by repetitions and fresh garblings; but when Dr. Bloch, a rabbi and member of the Austrian Reichsrath, denounced him in the *Wiener Allgemeine Zeitung* as a liar, forger, libeller, and perjurer, using among others the words, "The Professor of Hebrew Antiquities at Prague carries on lying as a trade," he sued him for defamation. The result was a protracted criminal suit before the jury of Vienna in 1884, in which Christian professors of Austrian and German universities acted as experts in Hebrew and Talmudical lore. The plaintiff was doomed to ignominious defeat, but forestalled it by dropping the prosecution. The counsel for defence, Dr. Joseph Kopp, a Christian member of the Reichsrath, subsequently summed up the conclusions to be drawn from the investigation of mixed anti-Talmudic and anti-Semitic charges in a volume entitled 'Zur Judenfrage nach den Akten des Prozesses Rohling–Bloch' (2d ed., Vienna, 1886). The book evinces serious study and reflection and a philosophical grasp of the question, but it is very painful reading.

A MISLEADING BOOK ON RAILWAYS.

The Railways and the Republic. By James F. Hudson. Harper & Brothers. 1886.

THIS book is likely to do harm. Not that it is by any means devoid of merit; but its merits are of a kind to render it all the more dangerous. Of certain phases of the railroad question the author writes with knowledge and ability. Of other phases, equally important, he has no knowledge at all, and seems hardly to suspect their existence. The result is, a brilliant treatise on railroads as viewed from a newspaper office by a man who has some familiarity with legislative investigations and judicial decisions, but none whatever with practical railroad business or the principles which underlie it. His presentation of abuses and dangers is clear and forcible; but the explanations which he gives are often unsatisfactory, while his remedy is one which has proved impracticable in the past, and would be sufficient to upset the business of the country if seriously applied at present.

The great evil in American railroad management at the present day is the existence of irresponsible power in the hands of a few men, which enables them to make arbitrary differences in charge. These differences, or "discriminations," are often given in favor of those who least need or least deserve them. The all-important problem for the community is, to find some means of checking this abuse; and if it can find the means, it will apply it and ought to apply it. The demand of some of the railroad men that they should be left to manage their own private business in their own way cannot be tolerated for a moment. It is not their own private business, it is a public duty as common carriers which they are performing. In consideration of this public character they have been allowed to take land under the right of eminent domain. Having used the right, they must accept the obligation. The last vestige of doubt on the subject was removed by the Granger decisions of the United States Supreme Court, which asserted the right to regulate railroads on other grounds besides the one just given.

All this Mr. Hudson presents forcibly. He shows the abuses of discrimination, as illustrated in the Hepburn Committee testimony and in the history of the Standard Oil Company. He also shows the fallacy in the attempt to excuse the railroads from their public obligations. But in his attempt to show how these abuses have arisen he is less successful. He lays too much stress on the arbitrary action of individuals, and fails to see that this action is the result of natural laws which have affected the railroad system in nearly the same way all over the world. The American railroad system is not the creature of Vanderbilt or Scott, Jay Gould or Albert Fink; it is far truer to say that Vanderbilt, Scott, Gould, and Fink are creatures of the railroad system, each in his own way. Business has developed in such a manner as to bring men of certain types to the front; the men have done something to modify its course, but would have been powerless to alter its general direction.

Here is where Mr. Hudson makes his first great mistake. He attributes many things to the arbitrary purposes of individuals, when they are really due to the necessities of railroad business, and are carried out in much the same way by the state roads of Germany or Belgium as by the private roads of Vanderbilt or Gould. Take the matter of pooling as an instance. Mr. Hudson opposes it strongly. He believes it to be an agency for doing away with that healthful action of free competition which would result in basing rates on cost of service. When met by the fact that railroad competition, wherever it exists actively, brings rates *below* cost of service, he attributes this to the arbitrary action of railroad managers, who wish to force rival roads into a combination. In so doing, he falls into errors of fact.

"It may be shown," he says, "that every railway war which has carried rates below cost clearly arose, not from competition, but from the effort to compel combinations or agreements which would end it. The first railway war that reduced freights from Chicago below cost of service was waged to force the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad to abandon its differential rate from that city to Baltimore; the last one was a struggle to crush or prevent competition in the local traffic of the New York Central and Pennsylvania Railroad."

He is obviously unaware of the fact that in August, 1869, five years before the Baltimore and Ohio completed its Chicago route, freight rates from Chicago to New York were nearly as low as they ever have been since, and, in proportion to cost of service, decidedly lower. Nor does he see what would have been the result if the New York Central had refused to wage its competitive fight with the West Shore. The West Shore was making rates below cost of service. The New York Central was forced either to follow suit or to lose its business. Undoubtedly its managers felt that the harder it fought the sooner the fight would be over; but a policy such as Mr. Hudson would have had it adopt, refusing to carry at ruinous rates, would have been out of the question. So large a part of the expenses of a railroad are independent of the volume of traffic, that business at any price is often better than no business at all.

The effect of active railroad competition generally is to place the more conservative roads at the mercy of the more reckless ones. The disgraceful contracts of the railroads with the Standard Oil Company were not due to the system of pooling, as Mr. Hudson alleges, but to the irregular warfare between the railroads of which the Standard Oil Company was able to take advantage at every turn. Had a pooling system existed in 1873 it is not probable that the Standard Oil Company could have risen to its present dominant position. The organization of the Eastbound pool had the direct and immediate effect of breaking up the "Evener" system which had been doing for the cattle business what the Standard did for oil; but the oil monopoly was too firmly established to be broken up in this way.

Our courts at first assumed that free competition would be the best means of regulating railroad charges. Not merely in the United States, but everywhere else, this proved to be a mistake. It was gradually recognized, in various parts of the world, that this theory could not be completely carried out; and it is hardly too much to say that the growth of really effective control has coincided with the gradual abandonment of this theory. The United States has held to the principle longest—with what results, we all know. Within the last few years there have been signs that the courts are beginning to take more practical ground, insisting upon results rather than theories. But this movement has only just begun, and there is serious danger that Mr. Hudson's book may do something to retard it. The author not merely insists upon free competition, but he goes one step further back, and would have us treat the railroad as a public highway. Not mere competition between railroads, but competition of many carriers on the same line of railroad, is the result which he proposes.

The idea is as old as the railroad system itself. It was embodied in the early charters of England and Prussia, and, with some modifications, in parts of the United States. It is hard to find a place where it was completely carried out for any length of time; but there have been many attempts to recognize the principle to some extent, the most notable being those in England in 1854 and in some parts of Germany in 1872. In connection with this last attempt there was very active discussion; and a work by Richter ('Das Transport-Unwesen auf den Eisenbahnen Deutschlands.' Frankfort, 1872) took almost exactly the ground occupied by Mr. Hudson, though the latter obviously is quite unaware of its existence. In spite of the fact that the system has never succeeded in practice, Mr. Hudson says so much in its favor that it is worth while to notice some of the difficulties which he overlooks. There are some others which he mentions; but his lack of knowledge of the detail of railroad business leads him to overlook the most serious ones. We may grant, for the sake of argument, what he says about the possibility of overcoming the technical difficulties of train-despatching for a number of clamorous train-owners; we may admit, to the utmost, his view of the legal rights in the case, yet we shall be far from having surmounted the chief obstacle to the plan, which Mr. Hudson calmly waves out of sight. "The question of tolls," he says, "presents little practical difficulty." As a matter of fact, the difficulties are enormous. A great deal of the low-grade or long-distance traffic of the railroads could not by any means pay its share of the fixed charges. This was realized even under the old canal system, where the tolls were frequently graded according to the quality and value of the goods. The author calculates as a fair toll for the Chicago and Northwestern Railroad, 0.774 cents per ton per mile. For Nebraska or Dakota wheat this would mean 15 or 20 cents a bushel to Chicago, *besides carrier's charge*—a prohibitory rate. But if you cut off that part of the tonnage, you would have to increase the toll, because the smaller volume of business would no

longer pay fixed charges at the old toll. This again would cut off more business, forcing a further increase of tolls; and so on indefinitely. It may be that Mr. Hudson would have the railroads themselves carry the low-grade traffic, and leave outsiders the privilege of carrying the manufactured goods, etc., which pay the higher rates. If this plan were tried, it would mean a simple repetition of the experience of Wisconsin in the Granger movement. The reduction of rates on profitable traffic to the level of the long-distance or low-class rate left nothing to pay interest or even maintenance.

We cannot follow out this matter as it deserves; but let it be noticed, as a further illustration, that if it were applied to the passenger business, commutation would be impossible. This is obvious; and in the freight business a somewhat similar result, though not equally obvious, would be equally unavoidable. If the tolls were fixed, there would be no object in making extremely low rates to increase the volume of traffic. It is to the railroad company as a track owner, not as a carrier, that the increase in volume of business brings profit. If some one else owns the track, the carrier loses his chief incentive to offer low rates; nor will any competition which you are likely to secure make up for the loss of this stimulus.

AN ENGLISHMAN'S HISTORY OF MUSIC.

A General History of Music, from the Infancy of the Greek Drama to the Present Period. By W. S. Rockstro. Scribner & Welford. 1886. Pp. 535.

REFERENCE has been repeatedly made in these columns to an odd peculiarity of the average English writer on music, as revealed especially in Grove's otherwise excellent 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians,' which contains articles by almost all the leading English musicians and critics. The majority of them seem to be brimful of knowledge regarding everything that ever happened in the musical world up to twenty or thirty years ago; but beyond that their minds appear to be complete *tabulæ rasæ*. Thus Mr. Rockstro, in the volume now before us, gives a very learned enumeration of various histories and dictionaries of music, beginning with 1647 and taking in Burney and Hawkins, Fétis, Kiesewetter, Ambros, and Mendel, but forgetting to mention the more recent and more readable histories by Brendel, Dommer, Nohl, and others. Then we are told deliberately that "there is indeed no volume of moderate size, embodying the entire history of music, available at the present moment to the English reader," although Dr. Ritter has edited such a work, which, though less extensive than Rockstro's, much better observes the principle of giving honor to whom honor is due.

The merits of Mr. Rockstro's History are that it is written in a very clear, concise style, and that the author's erudition insures almost absolute accuracy in the statement of facts and dates. With the technical intricacies of notation and composition he is so thoroughly familiar that even those who have made no special study of harmony, counterpoint, and fugue may see at a glance wherein lay the differences and changes of style in the music of various epochs. What could be clearer and more incisive, for instance, than his brief description of Monteverde's epoch-making invention—the employment of unprepared discords: "Every one knows that the only discords permitted in strict counterpoint are those of transition and suspension. The introduction of those of a fundamental nature, employed by direct percussion, destroyed the school of Palestrina at a blow. . . . And unprepared discords are ineffably beautiful. Without these, passionate utterance in music would be impossible; instrumental accompaniments would be too weak for effective employment; and the musical drama would degenerate into a vulgar caricature." Very readable also is the chapter on Gluck and the absurdly artificial rules which degraded opera to the level of art for the artist's sake in those days. And in the chapter on the origin of the stave and clefs he succeeds in making clear, even without the use of colored inks, the various curious steps in the evolution of musical notation.

These and other merits make it a matter of regret that Mr. Rockstro's book should be marred by so many shortcomings. Of the ancients, the Greeks alone are briefly considered; while, at the other end, the most important factor in modern music, the orchestra, is so far disregarded as to its evolution that we are told concerning Berlioz that he has not left a "lasting impression either upon dramatic or instrumental music." The device of printing musical terms in capital letters is carried to excess, and far too much space is devoted to the enumeration of lists of compositions and to biographies of third to tenth-rate composers. This takes up the space that ought to have been devoted to the development of the *Lied* or accompanied song, of pianoforte style, of orchestral arrangement, and various other topics on which the author is silent.

A woful want of proportion and perspective is indeed the besetting sin of this book. The fact that a disproportionate amount of space is assigned to English composers is admitted in the preface, and may be pardoned under the circumstances, although even an English student must be puzzled to find that Handel gets seventeen pages and Beethoven only five, while Bach gets only half as much space as Handel, although he has had ten times more influence on the great modern composers, however much Handel may have surpassed him in popularity. Such disproportion is objectionable, because it gives the reader a wrong idea regarding the relative importance of composers; and it ought to be self-evident that this relative importance is decided by a composer's originality and his influence on contemporaries and successors, and not by the frequency of performance of his works, else Offenbach and Milloecker would rank higher than Weber and Beethoven. In the case of Mendelssohn and Schumann, this disproportion becomes positively ludicrous. Schumann, who has contributed a hundred times as many original ideas of permanent value to music as Mendelssohn, is disposed of in four pages, while Mendelssohn gets almost twenty, in specially fine print, thus making him the most important personage in the whole history of music. Of these twenty pages, one and a half are devoted to a description of Mendelssohn's visit to the Queen, on which important occasion the Prince Consort changed the stops, the Queen picked up some music that had fallen on the floor, and the parrot had to be carried out because it made so much noise.

In a history of music which devotes twenty pages to Mendelssohn, eight to Purcell, and four to Dr. Arne (whose name, outside of England, not one concert-goer in a thousand has heard), how many ought there to be for Chopin, one of the most original and quietly revolutionary minds the world has ever seen—Chopin, who effected as great a change in the style of pianoforte composition as Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven together did in orchestral style? Mr. Rockstro settles the question very simply. He pats Chopin on the back by calling him "ineffably original," adds ten more *lines*, without indicating a single feature of his style or mentioning one of his works, and then passes on to Liszt, who is dismissed with the same condescending brevity. Indeed, it is nothing less than a burlesque on musical history to find the author setting up as the seven greatest composers the world has seen Palestrina, Handel, Bach, Gluck, Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven; then, as the "seven lesser lights" next following, Schubert, Weber, Spohr, Mendelssohn, Schumann, Cimarosa (!), Cherubini; and Chopin by inference placed as a third-rate composer—Chopin, who never had but one equal as a melodist (Schubert) and no superior as an original harmonist, not even Bach or Wagner. There is also something supremely absurd in the idea that Schumann, Schubert, and Weber do not rank as high as Handel, Mozart, and Haydn. They were not only greater from an absolute point of view because standing on the latter's shoulders, but also from a relative point of view, because more original in their own period.

Under these circumstances it is hardly to be wondered at that Mr. Rockstro entirely ignores Rubinstein in the text, mentioning him only in two lines in a footnote. He protests, indeed, that a history does not deal with contemporaries; but why then does he devote two pages to Gounod, and more or less space to several other living musicians who are vastly the inferiors of Rubinstein? In the last chapter he bewails the absence of a leader to carry on the development of music. We do not hesitate to prophesy that Mr. Rockstro, if he lives ten years longer, will see Rubinstein placed on a par with Beethoven. He will find many of the most gifted amateurs of the present day preferring Rubinstein's dramatic symphony to any of Beethoven's; he will find them turning from Beethoven's chamber music to Rubinstein's as more sympathetic; and he will find that, *e. g.*, Rubinstein's 'cello sonatas are superior to Beethoven's not only as regards their musical contents, but as showing Rubinstein's better understanding of the 'cello as well as the piano. As between "Fidelio" and Rubinstein's operas, we frankly acknowledge our preference for the latter; and that Rubinstein's songs are infinitely more beautiful than Beethoven's, no sane person will deny. This may seem a bold comparison, but we speak advisedly.

However, there is hope that Mr. Rockstro and other English musicians will come to see, ere long, what a wonderful creative genius the Russian pianist is. This hope is based on the fact that Mr. Rockstro has quite recently entirely changed his mind regarding Wagner. A few years ago he told the readers of his articles in Grove's 'Dictionary' that "at present 'Non più andrai' and 'Madamina' still hold their ground, and may possibly win"; that the brilliant accessories of the Nibelung festival argued "a sign of great weakness" in the work itself; that "unless the experience of all history lies, Wagner will be lovingly remembered by *Senta's* Ballad [ballad is "English, you know"], 'Traft ihr das Schiff,' ages after his operas have ceased to be performed in their entirety," etc. In the volume now before us he frankly cries *peccavi!* "We do not hesitate to say that, during a certain stage of the controversy, we were led, in company with many others, into grievous misapprehension, through the repetition, *ad nauseam*, of unintelligent eulogies, which did more damage to the cause they were intended to support than could have been effected by any amount of vituperation culled from Herr von Tappert's 'Vocabulary.'"

It is amusing to note the intense hatred of recent converts to Wagnerism for those who had brains or opportunities enough to appreciate him from the beginning. Even Dr. Hanslick, after writing that it was a "torture" to listen to the Tetralogy, had the impudence to claim, after Wagner's death, that no one had ever opposed Wagner save only what Rockstro calls his "unintelligent eulogists"—*i. e.*, those who liked "Siegfried" better than *Senta's* ballad or the "Tannhäuser" march. However, it would be ungene-

rous to take Mr. Rockstro to task too severely, as he is now quite within the fold of the faithful. Not only does he devote a whole chapter of his precious space to Wagner, but he begins by telling the reader that "2,000 years ago the 'Antigone' of Sophocles affected the Greeks as 'Tristan und Isolde' affects us now." The opening bars of this ultra-Wagnerian work are "ravishingly beautiful," and the whole drama "may be fitly described as one long unbroken stream of melody, from beginning to end—melody infinitely more impassioned, and not a whit less tuneful, even at the moment of *Isolde's* death, than the most captivating strains in the poisoning scene in 'Lucrezia Borgia.'" Mr. Rockstro will now probably see to it that his utterances in the early numbers of Grove are properly revised up to date when a new edition is called for.

RECENT WORKS ON CHEMISTRY.

Elements of Inorganic Chemistry. By James H. Shepard. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

An Introduction to the Study of Chemistry. By Ira Remsen. Henry Holt & Co.

The Elements of Thermal Chemistry. By M. M. Pattison Muir, assisted by David Muir Wilson. Macmillan & Co.

An author must possess in large measure the courage of his convictions to venture to add another text-book on elementary chemistry to the already long list. Mr. Shepard pleads as his excuse "the hearty commendations of teachers of national reputation and undoubted ability." In his book no radical departure from the usual arrangement of the usual matter is made: the occurrence, preparation, and properties of the inorganic elements and some of their compounds are given; chemical theory is fragmentarily developed; a number of experiments are described, and an appendix conveys somewhat meagre information about laboratory apparatus, reagents, and operations. All this may be found, sometimes better, sometimes worse, in a dozen other books. What is not usual is the fusion of the elements of qualitative analysis with the rest, and, as a minor feature, the breaking of the text with numerous fine-print paragraphs of "suggestions," "notes," "remarks," "cautions," "queries," etc. Some of these last are calculated to annoy the competent teacher, who naturally prefers to ask his own questions, and is not given to propounding such inane ones as that in regard to the name of iodine (page 116). In his introductory remarks, the author makes a great deal of what he "begs leave to christen The Scientific Method"; but his discussion of methods, no less than the text, shows that he fails to apprehend and to apply even *a* scientific method (without the small capitals).

In returning thanks, in his preface, to those who have assisted him (and the list is a long one), Mr. Shepard makes Dr. Remsen appear as a quasi-godfather to his book. Our surprise at this, and belief that in some way Dr. Remsen's apparent endorsement must be due to a misapprehension on the part of Mr. Shepard, are strengthened by the publication, after a short interval, of an elementary text-book by Dr. Remsen himself. Of his qualification for the task he has undertaken it is needless here to speak. He is widely known, not only as an eminent chemist, but also as a clear and careful writer on chemical themes—a practical educator, intent on teaching students to *think*. He makes no apology for his book, nor needs to, for it will be welcomed by all who are anxious to see chemical teaching lifted out of the rut into which it has for the most part fallen. His book abounds in well-selected, explicitly described experiments, set in a text which is always clear and attractive, and often very suggestive. Rather more than half the book (231 pages) is devoted to the discussion of the chemical phenomena presented by four elements (oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, and carbon) and their compounds, thereby furnishing an admirable development of the fundamental laws and theories of chemistry. This is the distinctive feature of the book, and is a long step towards a proper teaching of the science which has probably been more unscientifically taught than any other. Dogmatic presentation has unhappily been too long the rule: chemistry has been treated by the teacher as a bundle of more or less vaguely connected facts about the properties and reactions of substances, while the training of the student in scientific thinking has been almost neglected. The use of Dr. Remsen's book will go far to correct this evil.

Mr. Muir follows his excellent work on the 'Principles of Chemistry' (1884) with an admirable text-book on thermal chemistry. It is the first attempt to give in English a connected account of this important method of investigating chemical phenomena. Planning at first, as we learn from the preface, to make a somewhat modified translation of Naumann's well-known 'Lehr- und Handbuch der Thermochemie,' the author fortunately concluded to present the subject in his own way and from a point of view essentially different from that of Naumann. The first chapter is occupied with a clear and concise outline of the underlying principles of Heat and of Chemistry, and is followed by a brief but adequate description of the instruments and methods employed in thermo-chemical investigations. Two chapters are then devoted to an account of the applications of thermal methods to the study of chemical phenomena and to phenomena partly chemical and partly physical; and the text closes with a chapter on the bearing of thermal results on the questions of chemical equilibrium and affinity. The last third (100 pages) of the book contains appendices giving most of the well-established data which have been obtained.

In addition to the very satisfactory presentation of the subject, the work has a distinct critical value. Thus, Thompsen's attempt to assign a dynamical value to each of the "bonds" of carbon is shown to rest upon a fundamental assumption which is quite unjustified, and Thompsen's conclusions are "meaningless or . . . completely demolish the theory of bonds they are supposed to support"; and the "law of maximum work" is proved to be too wide a generalization. Emphasis is laid on the difficulties which everywhere beset the interpretation of thermal data: "thermal chemistry is yet in its beginning; the facts suggest more questions than they answer." Mr. Muir indicates the lines in which work is most necessary, and does much to stimulate investigation.

The book is fairly free from errors, but it is a pity that the graphic diagrams on pages 83 and 96 should have been so carelessly drawn, and that the plate, referred to even in the "corrections" as facing page 158, should be found opposite page 1.

The Life of William Carey, D.D., Shoemaker and Missionary. By George Smith, LL.D. London: John Murray. 1885.

The life of William Carey, the Baptist missionary, is the third important work which Dr. George Smith has devoted to the vindication of missionary enterprise in India. The others are accounts of the life and labors of the two eminent Scotch missionaries, Alexander Duff, of Calcutta, and John Wilson, of Calcutta. The style in which these works are written will not be altogether pleasing to any but dwellers within the sanctuary. It is painfully stilted, excessively eulogistic, magnifying beyond all reasonable proportions the acts and sayings of his heroes; and is throughout characterized by an aggressive "cock-sureness" eminently provocative of dissent. At the same time, the author's industry and his intimate knowledge of what he is writing about are undeniable; and few who read these modern "Acts of the Apostles" will be inclined to deny that Dr. Smith has fully proved the surpassing value and importance of missionary labor in India as an agent, not less for the humanizing of British rule than for the elevation of the native character.

The labors of the Christian missionary in India are not to be gauged by the number of actual converts that he succeeds in making. These are by no means so inconsiderable as is generally supposed, while every convert constitutes an additional support towards the stability and duration of British rule. For, as Alexander Duff pointed out many years ago, while English education without Christianity appears potent only to kindle, if not positive disloyalty, a sense of discontent and antagonism to the established order of things, English education *plus* Christianity awaken feelings just the reverse. The native Christian perceives that the continuance of British rule is indispensable to the free and peaceful practice of the creed which he has embraced, and so it came about that in 1857, although the native Christian community were subjected at that time to cruel legal disabilities, they set a conspicuous example of loyalty to the State. But when William Carey and his two companions, Marshman and Ward, began their labors at Serampore, the state of British India was far other than it is now or was in 1857. The cardinal doctrine in the political creed of the English officials was that British rule in India depended upon absolute non-interference with the religious beliefs and religious practices of the native population. Not only were the authorities careful to abstain from all legal restrictions upon them, but they were bound to see that no one—missionary or otherwise—in his private capacity attempted to persuade the natives to a more excellent way. Even the introduction of English education was prohibited as calculated to "offend native prejudices." The men who set themselves thus sedulously to guard the sanctity of "native prejudices" naturally ended by becoming slaves to those prejudices themselves. The young civilian was told on arriving in the country, that his first business was to "stock a zenana." An officer writing in 1774 said that the "luxury of a large seraglio was reserved for those who were high in the service and received large emoluments." Gaming, dicing, drunkenness, appear to have been the principal relaxations of the English officials. In British India itself there was, as might have been expected, no security for men bound upon such an enterprise as William Carey with his two friends. And had they been audacious enough to begin their operations therein, they would immediately have been arrested, put upon shipboard, and sent back to England.

Happily for the people of India and the preservation of British rule, the town of Serampore, on the Hooghley, just thirteen miles above Calcutta, was, at that time and for long after, a Danish settlement. The arbitrary power of the British Government did not extend to residents within this settlement, and the Danish King was not possessed by the morbid terror of Christianity and Christian missionaries which had taken hold of the minds of the Calcutta officials. Here, accordingly, Carey and his friends were permitted to set up "the Serampore Mission"—the originator, it may be said, and, so long as it lasted, a most efficient inspirer and executor, of whatever good the English may have wrought in India. Those who are curious to learn by what gigantic labors, what disinterested and long-continued sac-

rifices, this good was effected, will find the story told with an abundance of knowledge in the volume under review. It is, in truth, difficult to see how British rule in India could have been preserved but for the quickening influence of the Serampore missionaries. They breathed a new life into it by showing that all which the authorities had declared to be dangerous and impracticable could be effected without danger to the state, and with immense advantage to both rulers and ruled. They led the way in the education of the natives; they not simply translated but *printed* the Bible in the principal vernaculars of India, thus laying the foundations of a literature for the entire continent; and to them is due the entire credit of so stimulating the European conscience that the Indian Government was at last emboldened to prohibit the cruelty of widow-burning and other like abominations which, till the Serampore missionaries raised their voices against them, no one had dared to meddle with, lest "native prejudices" should resent the proceeding.

Apart, however, from his labors at Serampore, William Carey must always be a remarkable figure in the history of mankind as the reviver of the missionary spirit in Great Britain and the United States. It is difficult to believe that at the beginning of this century this spirit was so dormant in both countries that when Carey first started the notion of missions for the conversion of the heathen he was everywhere denounced as a dangerous madman. At that time, neither in Great Britain nor in this country, did there exist an organization of any kind for conveying a knowledge of Christianity to lands which were ignorant of it. British Protestantism held itself exonerated from the duty of "preaching the Gospel to all nations" until a second Pentecostal visitation should have miraculously endowed its followers with the gift of tongues. Carey was a man of the humblest origin. He was a cobbler's apprentice and the member of a small sect, the Particular Baptists. But he had a genius for the acquisition of languages, and, almost without assistance, while cobbling shoes, he contrived to obtain a considerable knowledge of Latin and Greek. He had also a great love of geography Dr. Smith relates that sheets of paper were stuck on the walls of his room, divided into sections, each section standing for one of the countries of the world. In this section it was his custom to enter whatever information he gathered in the course of his reading regarding that particular country, and by this simple means he acquired, while still a young man, a remarkable acquaintance with the peoples and countries of the globe. Religious feelings of peculiar intensity combined with this knowledge to awaken within him that missionary spirit which, without money, friends, or other means of subsistence, sent him to attempt the conversion of the people of India. He had a hard battle to fight with the members of his own little denomination before they would look upon him as other than a man possessed with a devil. Sydney Smith poured all the vials of his satire upon the head of the "consecrated cobbler." All sections of Protestantism were amazed and irritated at his folly and presumption. But neither opposition nor adverse criticism caused him to deviate for an instant from the purpose on which he had fixed his mind, and the reawakening of the missionary spirit among the English-speaking races was the direct product of his earnestness and constancy.

The Choice of Books, and Other Literary Pieces. By Frederic Harrison. Macmillan & Co. 1886. Also, Harper's Handy Series.

MR. HARRISON takes pains to say in his preface that this collection of essays "deals solely with books, art, and history—not with politics, philosophy, or religion"; but he thus only shows the more clearly that he is too much in earnest ever to indulge in merely literary criticism. It is one of the results of Comte's life which do honor to his memory, that his influence always seems to turn to an energizing vital principle in his disciples. Mr. Harrison's mind has been so absorbed in the idea of society that he cannot write without some political, philosophical, or religious reference to it; and the most he can mean by claiming that the present volume is distinctly literary is, that the essays set out from a literary starting point. The Comtist watchword, Humanity, indicates to most readers a vague revolutionary tendency of a doctrinaire kind; but it has proved a rich idea to those who have allowed it to germinate in their minds, and in effect has caused a reaction against the Revolution as commonly understood. In these essays it is easy to observe how it has given value to man's past, in Mr. Harrison's case, developed his catholic sympathies, and especially made him preëminently a seeker of the organic centres and bonds of union in society, and an upholder of order above all things. He could never be an anarchist.

This incorporation of Comtist ideas into his life appears most impressively in one of the essays that are now first printed, the review of Mr. Monson's 'St. Bernard of Clairvaux.' This study of a man who represents almost, if not quite, ideally the typical Apostle of Humanity, in whom mere excellence dominates and blesses the life of men in their grand social relations, is the most valuable of the fifteen papers which the book contains, and is of the highest moral reach and suggestiveness. The same seriousness, though not so intense, pervades the book; and though there are many passages of cleverness, of wit and sharp sarcasm, and flashes of the lighter play of his brilliant literary art, the preacher's earnestness is never far away. It is good sermonizing, too. The glowing indignation at the lot of the poor, the fixed faith in the destiny of the people, the unrestrained denunciation of the waste and folly of the energies and pursuits of most of us, kindle many an ardent page; and through all breathes the spirit of a man who, whether duped or inspired, is settled on doing his part in the work of the time. To read such words is both vivifying and humanizing. There is instruction to be had, also. 'The Choice of Books' is the sage advice of so many wise men repeated once more—to trust the sentence of the race and read the classics. The essay on Carlyle is at once appreciative of his genius and character and just to his stupendous errors. The paper on the eighteenth century, with its widening of the field of view, and the one on the nineteenth, with its interrogations as to the justice of our self-gratulation, are admirable examples of the way in which historical periods should be examined; and these, which we have mentioned, are typical of the whole contents of a volume which, though it belongs to magazine literature, attains the highest level in that class.

American Statute Law. By Frederic J. Stimson. Boston: Charles C. Soule.

MENTION has already been made in these columns of Mr. Stimson's work, which he describes on the title-page as being "an analytical and compared digest of the constitutions and civil public statutes of all the States and Territories relating to persons and property in force January 1, 1886." We wish that the trained and enthusiastic scholar who prepared this book might be sure of a sale of it which is at all proportioned to its merits, for these are very great. In the first 134 pages a comparative summary is given of the provisions of all the State constitutions, and of certain analogous laws of the Territories and of the United States relating to the Territories. For convenience the Territories are included among the "States," and the constitutions count as "statutes." Then follows a like statement of the private civil law of all the States and Territories, covering more than 600 pages. Another volume is in preparation which is to include "Public Law," under the two divisions of "private corporations and municipal corporations"; "Adjective Law," under the two heads of "Probate Code and Civil Procedure"; and "Criminal Law." These titles, it may be presumed, will be more fully explained and justified hereafter. One may see something of the author's method by the following specimen of it, from the early part of the book, relating to the Bills of Rights:

"Article 1. Natural Rights.

"§ 10. Freedom. The Constitutions of eighteen States have a provision that men are free.

"(A) Thus, in two States the Constitution declares that all men are born free and independent: Mass. C., 1, 1; S. C. C., 1, 1. (B) In seven, that they are by nature free and independent: N. J. C., 1, 1; O. C., 1, 1; Ill. C., 2, 1; Io. C., 1, 1; Cal. C., 1, 1; Nev. C., 1, 1; Fla. C., Decln. R'ts, 1. (C) In one, that they are equally free and independent: Ala. C., 1, 1. (D) In seven, that they are born equally free and independent: N. H. C., 1, 1; Me. C., 1, 1; Vt. C., 1, 1; Pa. C., 1, 1; Wis. C., 1, 1; Neb. C., 1, 1; Ark. C., 2, 2. (E) In two, that they are by nature equally free and independent: Va. C., 1, 1; W. Va. C., 3, 1."

The letter C stands for constitution; and the omission to mention any State imports that there is nothing on the subject there. The author's divisional arrangements of the book are very carefully thought out, and, with a little preliminary attention to the explanations given of them, will be found clear and simple. It has only been possible to present in so small a space the substance of the enormous mass of matter with which the writer had to deal by omitting statutes of "purely local interest or special application," and by the author's availing himself of a curious discovery that the legislation of the States goes largely in groups.

"He found that one main stream of legislation could be traced, occasionally comprehending all the Northern, Eastern, and Northwestern States, more often divided into two main bodies, the one following in its legislation the general model of the State of New York, the other that of the New England States. He found, besides this, another important group, containing the Southwestern States, under the general lead of Maryland and Virginia; and still a third and smaller group, comprising the Gulf States. Besides these three main groups, there was one State with laws wholly anomalous (Louisiana), and others (like California, Dakota, New Mexico, and Georgia) with laws peculiar to a greater or less extent."

We have had occasion to make practical use of Mr. Stimson's book repeatedly, and can speak confidently of its careful and thorough quality. The index might with advantage be made more complete; we have now and then had to search unduly long, for lack of some fulness there. This defect is the more important for the reason that the writer and his reader may have a different theory of arrangement. We found ourselves, *e. g.*, at much loss to get at some of the matter contained in s. 553.

This book should help rapidly to the uniformity and improvement of our State legislation. It will prove of the greatest help to the student of social science and comparative law; see, *e. g.*, the eighty-four pages which summarize the legislation on Marriage, Divorce, and Husband and Wife. Few practising lawyers who have to prepare a case which requires any wide range of argument and illustration, will find it possible to dispense with this excellent guide. It is a monument of devoted and faithful labor in a region which attracts far too little attention.

Oblomoff; Scènes de la vie russe. Par Ivan Gortcharoff. Traduction de Piotre Artamoff; revue, corrigée et augmentée d'une notice sur l'auteur, par Charles Deulin. Paris: Didier et Cie.

It is not among "the books of the week" that this volume belongs in any sense of the phrase. It was written twenty-eight years ago, and the French translation was published nine years ago; yet it is "a new book" to most of us. It ought not to remain unknown to the readers of Turgeneff, Tolstoi, and Dostoyevsky; and if the name of Gortcharoff will not take rank precisely with these, none the less this little volume might serve as an admirable and very interesting preface to the greater, the loftier, and the deeper, the more imaginative and more thoughtful works of these other authors. It is, indeed, in its own nature and structure a preface—a prologue or an epilogue—more than anything else. In its original form it has the least possible "story," and in the French, which is only the first portion of the original, there is literally no story at all: it is simply the narrative of the hours from eight in the morning till four in the afternoon of a day passed by the unheroic hero in bed—out of pure laziness. The scene is confined to his apartment in St. Petersburg, the action to his thoughts and conditions, and the visits he receives from four of his friends and his doctor. Not a woman appears on the stage; the protagonist is not in female shape, but may be discovered in Oblomoff's fifty-years-old man-servant, who is made vividly known to the spectator (for with this book one is *spectator* rather than *reader*) by a portrait of extraordinary vigor and equal carefulness, which to classify as "a man-servant" renders no justice to the complete originality and really the importance of the type, an animal-like serf in the garb and position of a valet.

The ability of which this creation gives proof is likewise evidenced by the delicate skill with which an almost breathless interest is excited in the action of the drama of Oblomoff's mind, in the events of his thoughts. So admirably true to human nature is this representation that there are few of us who have not known at least some one man more or less of an Oblomoff; but so particularly true is it to the characters produced in Russia, especially during the last generation, under the influence of the national institutions and modes of life as well as of the climate, that we are told the word *oblomovism* has there come into use to designate the dreamy and vacillating indolence peculiar to the Russian temperament.

A considerable portion of the book is arranged in the "cadre" of a dream; a dream which brings before Oblomoff his childhood and boyhood, and his provincial, ancestral home. As we gaze at the vision thus displayed to us we perceive infinitely much beside, behind, beyond the immediate scene. Conditions of life absolutely unknown to our own experience reveal themselves as causes and consequences of familiar pages in history; strange surprises of social facts explain and are explained by old political truths. In a word, no one interested in Russia should fail to read this book. But every one interested in the book will demand eagerly and we hope imperatively a complete and satisfactory translation of it. The French translation (seemingly of the best as far as it goes) wandered about Paris for fifteen years seeking a publisher. Let some American publisher see to it that fifteen months from to-day we have an English translation of the whole work in our hands.

It is a book which it is absolutely impossible to make known at all by extracts. There is no one sentence or paragraph which lends itself to quotation. Its merit consists in the tone, the coloring that pervades every page, and that harmonizes and dignifies the innumerable details, which, almost in the manner of Flaubert, abound to an extraordinary degree.

The Spartan and Theban Supremacies. By Charles Sankey, M.A., joint-editor of the series, assistant master in Marlborough College. With five maps. [Epochs of Ancient History.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886.

Mr. Sankey's work probably completes the series of Ancient Epochs, at least for all except the latest and perhaps the earliest period. The epochal or "horizontal" treatment—not conspicuous in more than one or two of this series, and, indeed, not well fitted to ancient history as a whole—hardly appears at all in this volume. It is simply a history of Greece during the hegemonies of Sparta and Thebes. Persia is mentioned incidentally in connection with the expedition of Cyrus and the Peace of Antalcidas, but we are told nothing of its history. Of Syracuse we have a bare mention; of Rome—which during these years passed through very critical experiences—not even that. The rather uninteresting period under review possesses nevertheless a well-defined unity, so far as Greek history is concerned—the establishment of the harsh and unjust rule of Sparta, the iron despotism under which Greece was held, and its deliverance at the hand of Thebes. But Thebes, while strong enough to throw off the Spartan yoke, had not the qualities to establish a permanent leadership for herself. A short account—too short, we think—of the career and works of Epaminondas supplements the history of the Spartan rule which makes up the greater part of the volume.

The interest in these years is chiefly political, and here Mr. Sankey is at his best. The account, for example, of the Government of the Thirty Tyrants at Athens and its overthrow, is exceedingly well told, and the characters of Theramenes and Critias sketched with great fidelity. Agesilaus, too—the hero of the greater part of the volume—is very well described, and his exploits narrated at length. The Theban period, notwithstanding the excellence of the characterization of its two great men, is, as we have said, rather too briefly told; and a very abrupt ending corresponds perhaps to the abruptness with which Thebes lost its place at the head of the Greek States, and the rapidity with which Macedonia succeeded to it.

Studies in Greek Thought. By Lewis R. Packard. Boston: Ginn & Co.

In this small volume the friends of the late Prof. Packard have gathered from the papers of that lamented scholar a number of essays and outlines which will serve to recall to those who knew him the intellectual image of the man, and to give those who never had the privilege of his personal acquaintance the impression of a grave and thoughtful student, of one who had made what he had learned from others his own by individual reflection, and who had caught from intimate association with the great masters of expression the purity of style that became the elevated range of his thought. The brief preface does not give clearly the keynote of his heroic life, of the long struggle with pain and weakness under which a nature of less noble temper would have sunk without an effort. The calm of his style is the calm of one who has overcome.

To judge this little collection of essays as anything else than a personal memorial would be unfair. The themes of some—such as the Morality and Religion of the Greeks, or Plato's Scheme of Education—are too large for the compass to which the treatment is limited, while the other papers only serve to show how well that work was done which was intended for no wider circle than a college class. That such a man, known by his intimates and divined by his pupils to be a scholar of a high order, recognized among the Grecians of the country as the foremost of their Homeric students, should have left no great work as a monument of his long and influential career, is a matter of just regret to the great college in which he nobly maintained the high tradition of his predecessors, and to his friends whose devotion to him living and dead is the fairest testimony to the true lovableness of his nature. Authorship is exacted more and more of teachers—perhaps not always wisely; but here was a teacher endowed for authorship as few are endowed, and yet, by what seems an untoward fate, denied the achievement for which he was so rarely equipped. Still, he had written enough to keep his memory bright among American scholars of his generation, and he will live on in the lives of the many who had in him a guide and an example in the higher walks of Greek thought. All but one of these essays have to do with grave themes, and all show that we have lost in him a man who was something more than a grammarian, who had looked into problems of which the "corner-hummers," the γωνιοβόμβυκες of the Greek epigram, never dream in their drowsy buzz. And how great that loss is we can best estimate when we see how entirely our scholarship has run to grammar—grammar unmitigated by any such charm of literary expression as we recognize in this little volume.

Twenty-four Sermons Preached in All Souls' Church, New York, 1865-1881, by Henry W. Bellows, D.D., Minister of the First Congregational Church, 1839-1882. Selected and Edited by his Son, Russell N. Bellows. New York: Published by the Editor. 1886.

These twenty-four discourses may not appeal successfully to the general public, but among Unitarians they will be highly valued, especially among those to whom Dr. Bellows preached for more than forty years, and they will enable others to know something of the habitual preaching of one of the most brilliant and erratic preachers of the Unitarian sect. It was as an extempore speaker that Dr. Bellows had his great successes, and at times when his speaking was absolutely extemporaneous, without the least premeditation. Often he then said what he did not mean to say when he set out, but something worse or better: he was carried away, and his hearers with him, by the tide of his resistless eloquence. For the best enjoyment of these discourses, one should be able to remember him at such times. Then the printed matter will be informed with his voice and gesture.

The discourses are hardly less extempore than were his most spontaneous speeches. They were evidently written just as fast as he could drive his pen. The defects of such easy writing are palpable. It is not hard reading, but the argument is sometimes fanciful and superficial. Dr. Bellows is revealed in some of his most poetic moods and also in the stress of his denominational zeal. He was never a consistent thinker, but during the last years of his life his tendencies were clearly rationalistic. He said of Parker, soon after his death (1860), "I will not say that Theodore Parker is a lost soul, but I am obliged to say that he had not conformed to the conditions of salvation." But in these discourses we find him insisting upon Parker's views of many things, and it would have been easy to find others in which he ranked Parker with Channing as a typical Unitarian. The sermon on the "Resurrection of Human Nature" is perhaps the best, as well as the most characteristic, in the entire collection. To those who know Dr. Bellows well this book will seem to represent his later thought imperfectly. But he was

a man of many moods, and in the pulpit did not always have the courage of his more secluded hours.

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Clément, C. Decamps. Paris: J. Rouam.
Colby, C. C. Parliamentary Government in Canada. Montreal: Dawson Bros.
Collignon, M. A Manual of Greek Archæology. Englished by J. H. Wright. Cassell & Co. $2.
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Harsha, W. J. A Timid Brave: The Story of an Indian Uprising. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 27, 1886.

The Week.

THE Senate last week passed, by a vote of more than two to one, the Blair Pension Bill, which proposes to pension every soldier who served in the army three months, and who is now disabled and dependent upon his own exertions for support, as well as all dependent parents of soldiers who died in the service or from disability contracted therein. This is an extension of the pension system beyond anything ever known in this or any other country, and is but one step short of granting a pension to everybody who served in the Union army, which has already been proposed by demagogues more reckless even than Mr. Blair. The New Hampshire Senator frankly says that he "has no idea" how much money his bill would call for. At one time he suggests $25,000,000 a year; at another, $50,000,000. Judging from all experience in such legislation, the scheme would be likely to involve far more than even the larger of these two amounts, for, incredible as it may seem to a man who thinks nothing of such figures, there are people in the United States who consider the increase of annual taxation by $50,000,000 a matter of consequence.

The roll showed that every Republican recorded was in favor of the raid. We observe with surprise that one-third of the Democrats stood with the Republicans on the side of extravagance. If every Democratic vote had been in the direction of economy, the scheme would not have been defeated, it is true, but the vote would have been so close as 26 yeas to 22 nays, instead of 34 to 14. We trust that the Democrats in the House will administer a needed rebuke to their brethren in the Senate when the project comes up in the lower branch. The Democrats have a good majority in the House, and they can block this raid upon the Treasury. Public duty and party interest combine to dictate this course. It would be an intolerable burden upon the taxpayers to add this great sum to the already large pension account, and the taxpayers will watch to see how their representatives stand upon the question of increasing taxation. The Democratic House could not do a more popular thing than to defeat this extravagant scheme of the Republican Senate.

The President sent in another batch of vetoes of private pension bills on Monday. His messages bring out very forcibly the injustice and recklessness of the policy by which the decisions of the Pension Bureau denying pensions are overruled in Congress. Such messages make Senators and Representatives indignant, because they tell the plain truth about their unjustifiable methods of legislation, but the Congressmen will look in vain to the public for sympathy. The evidence thus afforded that Mr. Cleveland is looking sharply after the course of affairs at the Capitol, will reassure the people, who have become alarmed at the nonchalance with which their representatives are voting away their money. The attention of the country needs to be concentrated upon pension legislation, and a constant fire of small vetoes like these can hardly fail to have that effect.

Republican organs are berating the Democratic House for doing nothing. But it is only fair to say that it is better to do nothing than to do things which ought not to be done. The two great achievements of the Republican Senate to date are the passage of Mr. Blair's "bill to promote mendicancy" by appropriating $77,000,000 to demoralize the educational system of the South, and the passage of Mr. Blair's other bill treating old soldiers as beggars, and scattering $50,000,000 or more of the taxpayers' money among them every year.

The President has given another notable proof of his fidelity to reform by his action in filling the place of Postmaster at Leominster, Mass. The office had been held for eight years by Thomas A. Hills, who, although a Republican in party faith, had never been an "offensive partisan," and had done his duty so acceptably to the public that many Democrats and all the Independents joined with the Republicans in asking his reappointment; the petitioners representing almost all the business interests of the town. A few professional Democratic politicians recommended the appointment of another man, simply and solely on the ground that he was a Democrat, but Mr. Cleveland declined to make a change upon this ground, and renominated the incumbent, to the great satisfaction of nine-tenths of the community. Thus by degrees the principle asserted in the reappointment of Postmaster Pearson in this city gains ground, and it is slowly coming to be recognized that a post-office does not "belong" to the party in control of the Federal administration, but is a business institution to be filled upon business grounds.

The House Committee on Appropriations on Wednesday week reported the Legislative and Executive Appropriation Bill, with two provisos intended to annul the existing Civil-Service Act. One of the clauses making the usual appropriation for the salaries and expenses of the Civil-Service Commission provides, "that this appropriation shall be available only when the rules of the Civil-Service Commission are so framed as that the names of all applicants for official appointment from any one State, found duly qualified on examination and without regard to age, shall be sent to the head of a department or other officer charged with making an appointment." This is virtually a repeal of competitive examination altogether, and since competitive examination is the very essence of the Pendleton Act, it is a repeal of the act; or, to speak exactly, it is a declaration that no salaries or office expenses of the Civil-Service Commission shall be paid until they rescind the principle of the law which they are appointed to carry out. This scurvy amendment to the bill is reported in the teeth of the twenty-first rule of the House, which forbids the reporting of any provision in an appropriation bill changing existing law "except such as, being germane to the subject-matter of the bill, shall retrench expenditures." Now this amendment does change existing law, for the law authorizes the President to prescribe the rules, and the amendment takes the power out of his hands to a certain extent. It does not retrench expenditures, because, if the rules are changed in the manner indicated, the expenditures will remain as before. The other proviso is in the clause making an appropriation for the pay of special pension examiners. It provides that the examiners shall "be appointed by the Secretary of the Interior on the recommendation of the Commissioner of Pensions" instead of being appointed in accordance with the Civil-Service Act and regulations as now required by law. This proviso is if possible more shameless than the other in its violation of the twenty-first rule. Both are cowardly attempts to repeal the Civil-Service Act indirectly. We have little apprehension that either of them will pass; but if they do pass, we shall know which party to hold responsible.

The meeting of the Illinois Republican State Committee last week was held merely to fix a date for the next State Convention, but importance was given to the gathering by a speech made during the session, and still more by the reception of the speech. David T. Littler is the Illinois member of the Republican National Committee, and when he was called upon for a speech, he announced his views upon the great issue of the day in these frank terms:

> "There is only one other question I desire to refer to: that is, the hypocrisy and cowardice of the members of Congress—I mean Democrats as well as Republicans—in their attitude toward this contemptible and fraudulent Civil-Service Reform Law as interpreted by this Administration. I believe it to be the duty of the next Republican State Convention to take bold ground against that infernal un-Republican and un-American measure in its practical operation. [A voice: "That's right." Applause.] I have the courage to say this, and I say it boldly, and there is but one other man who has adhered to his convictions. I refer to an ex-Confederate General, Senator Vance, of North Carolina, who introduced a bill in Congress to repeal the law in its entirety. . . . I don't believe in civil-service reform in any sense, and it is my view that the Republican party ought to take the position that the Civil-Service Reform Law should be repealed, and that all Republicans in office under this Administration should be turned out. [Shouts of "That's right!" "That's business!" and applause.] I don't believe in those sneaking Republicans holding office under this Administration. [Applause.] I will sign the petition of any Democrat who wants to get my signature for the removal of a Republican now holding office, on the ground that he is a Republican and has no right to the loaves and fishes under this Administration. [Applause and a voice, "Amen."]"

Mr. Littler was the last speaker of the meeting, and no formal declaration was made by the Committee, but the enthusiasm which such denunciations of civil-service reform by a member of the National Republican Committee aroused among the members of the Republican State Committee, shows that the professional politicians of that party are as hostile to reform as are Senator Vance and his supporters among the Democrats.

The publication on Saturday of the fact that Secretary Bayard had been doing his whole duty in the matter of the fishery troubles took the wind out of the Blaine organs' sails in a most exasperating manner. The *Tribune* could not conceal the evidence of its disgust, and printed a very ill-natured article on the subject on Sunday. The Boston *Journal* showed more sense, and accepted the situation in good temper. "The tone of Secretary Bayard's letter to Senator Frye," said the *Journal*, "leaves no room to doubt that he appreciates the seriousness of the question involved in the seizure of American fishing vessels, and intends to act in such a way as to assert and defend American rights." The *Journal* frankly stated what the *Tribune* disingenuously concealed, that the impatience with what had seemed the tardy action of the Administration, was due to the fact that the public gets its information concerning what is in progress on the coast of Nova Scotia through the newspapers and by telegraph, while the State Department, having to base its action upon more formal and authoritative advices, has to await the reports made by consuls after an investigation of the facts, which, of course, consumes time; the more so as the points at which seizures have been made are off the lines of direct communication. "It is impossible for the Secretary," said the *Journal*, "while communications and negotiations are in progress, to divulge their character; but his description of what has taken place as 'reprehensible action' and 'a gross breach of the commercial rights of a citizen of the United States' indicates plainly the Secretary's point of view." This is in refreshing contrast to the *Tribune's* ridiculous talk about "the deliberate action of our Government," and its remark that "no Government will long be tolerated by the American people which so ignores their rights and its duties."

We ought to congratulate ourselves on the seizure of a Canadian fishing-boat and a cargo of mackerel in Portland harbor in retaliation for the seizure of the *David J. Adams* in Canadian waters. As both these craft were sailing without the proper papers, the two seizures make an agreeable tit-for-tat. The Dominion authorities still owe us one ship for the *Ellen M. Doughty*, but it will go hard if we do not find something afloat under the British-American colors to balance the account. The daily bulletin from Portland will doubtless furnish a fitting reprisal in the course of the next few days, or bring us the news that the codfish war has been opened by an engagement between the private armed schooner that sailed from somewhere the other day, and the Dominion cruiser that is known to be waiting for her. Once upon a time our gallant sailors inscribed upon their colors the stirring words: "Not one cent for tribute." Their appropriate motto now would be: "Just one cent for tribute." The duty on salt fish must and shall be preserved.

The anti-polygamy amendment to the Constitution reported by the House Judiciary Committee prohibits "polygamy and polygamous association" throughout the United States. But the second section then forbids the United States or any State "to make or enforce any law allowing polygamy or polygamous association or cohabitation between the sexes." This is all very well, but it goes on to provide that "the United States and every State shall prohibit the same by law within their respective jurisdictions." One cannot help asking who drafted this amendment. The positive prohibition contained in the first section, followed by the direction to Congress to pass a penal statute in execution of it, would seem to do all that can be done by constitutional amendment. The direction to every State to pass a penal statute also would therefore seem as needless as it is novel, and nothing of the kind has ever appeared in the Constitution hitherto. How are the United States to compel a State to pass a law? If the State does not do it, what is the remedy? Can the Supreme Court mandamus the State Legislature? And what would be the use of the State law if one were passed, if the prohibition were already to be found in a constitutional United States statute?

What we hoped would come out of this anti-Mormon movement was a constitutional amendment putting the whole subject of marriage and divorce within the jurisdiction of the United States, and giving the country a uniform marriage law. It is quite safe to say that the difference of the State marriage laws is on the whole as great a cause of scandal and immorality, and does as much damage to the family relation, as the Mormon polygamy. American society is suffering far more to-day from the ease with which monogamists get out of their monogamy, than it suffers, or is ever likely to suffer, from legalized polygamy. What we need is a law which shall surround marriage with exactly the same legal conditions, and follow it with the same legal consequences, in all parts of the Union, so that no American citizen shall ever be less or more married in one part of the country than in another, and no American shall find it easier or more difficult to get a divorce in one part of the country than in another. An amendment providing for this would, of course, make polygamy as unlawful as an amendment specially directed against polygamy. The amendment reported by the Committee contains some very odd things; among others a distinction between "polygamy" and "polygamous association or cohabitation," after defining polygamy as "the marriage relation by contract, or in fact, by one person of either sex, with more than one person of the other sex."

The Pan-Electric people fired their heaviest projectile on Friday, being an affidavit from Z. F. Wilber, who was an Examiner of Interferences in the Patent Office at the time when the original Bell patent was granted. The Committee of Investigation declined to receive Mr. Wilber's affidavit, the time for receiving testimony having passed. Nevertheless the precious document was handed to the newspapers, and to one of them in sufficient season to supply itself with a wood engraving of that part of the Patent Office in which Wilber says he was bribed by Professor Bell in person. Wilber's own account of himself is that he was then in the habit of being bribed by Bell's attorneys through the process of borrowing money from them and not paying it back. Since that time he has been in the habit, he says, of making false affidavits while under the influence of liquor, said affidavits to be used in important lawsuits. In this way it comes about that the present affidavit contradicts some of the former ones relating to the same subject. This one, he says, is positively the last, and is given "for the sake of justice and the easement of his own conscience." He thinks it is quite likely that Professor Bell will deny the bribery, but that his (Wilber's) "mind is now clear and his conscience active." He then introduces the diagram of the rooms and corridors, showing exactly where he stood and where Professor Bell stood when the latter handed him a one-hundred dollar bill. This is the diagram with which the *Times* illustrated Wilber and itself on Saturday morning. The one-hundred-dollar bill, he says, was given to him after he had shown Professor Gray's caveat to Professor Bell. It is not stated whether a bargain was struck beforehand that Wilber was to show the caveat to Bell for one hundred dollars. The implication is that the money was given in the way of gratuity to a hard-working officer of the Government whose expenses customarily exceeded his income.

No step taken by the Bell Company in this investigation has so fatally discredited the Pan-Electric crowd as this Wilber affidavit. Setting aside the fact that Bell made no use of the information (if he received any) of the nature of Gray's caveat, the whole story, the acknowledged character of the witness, the contradictory nature of his several affidavits touching the same subject, make up a picture which excites both derision and pity—derision for those who rely upon such testimony to establish a truth, and pity for the poor tramp who has made such a sorry exhibition of the remnants of a Union soldier. Mr. Wilber ought to be in an asylum for inebriates or in some other secure refuge, where patent lawyers are not allowed to enter. The protection of public charity should be extended to him, in order that he may not be induced to commit further perjury, and that respectable and well-meaning public journals may not be exposed to the folly of printing his "after-davits."

About one year ago Secretary Manning decided to exercise the discretion vested in him by law to suppress the one and two-dollar greenbacks. The one and two-dollar bank notes had been previously suppressed by law. The object in both cases was to make room for the circulation of silver dollars. About $45,000,000, in addition to the amount now in the hands of the people, could be got rid of by the Treasury if the small greenbacks were called in and retired. The only way to suppress these notes is to cancel those which come into the Treasury in the course of business, and to issue fives and tens in place of them, keeping the whole greenback circulation up to the amount fixed by law. When the intention of the Secretary became known, the banks gradually ceased to return the worn and mutilated small notes to the Treasury for reissue, knowing that they would only get the larger ones in exchange; and persons having payments to make to the Government contrived as far as possible to avoid using small notes for this purpose. The consequence

has been that the one and two-dollar greenbacks are becoming very much dilapidated, and also very scarce. Silver dollars are coming into more general circulation, and as they come into use their inconvenience renders them unpopular. So the silverites have raised an outcry that Treasurer Jordan is insidiously "striking down silver" by his policy of suppressing small notes. It is very hard to satisfy such people. If silver is not paid out, they say that the Department is violating the law and conspiring with the bondholders. If it is paid out, they say that there is an evil purpose and design to make silver unpopular. We do not see any remedy unless Congress passes a law guaranteeing to silver men exclusively the use of small notes, and requiring the bondholders and the "gold-bugs" to use silver for all transactions under five dollars.

General Logan announced a very important discovery in his Providence speech on Friday, one which bids fair to solve the labor problem if both employers and employees will give their undivided attention to it. What is needed, he says, in order to secure harmony between labor and capital is to pay a fair day's wages for a fair day's work. The simplicity of this remedy must strike everybody with sudden and peculiar force. The customary way of looking at the subject—that of paying an unfair day's wages for a fair day's work, or a fair day's wages for an unfair day's work—is clearly at the bottom of all the disturbances of the time. It has cost the country, according to *Bradstreet's* calculations, $30,000,000 since the beginning of the present year. What Mr. Blaine will reply to all this we cannot imagine, but we are sure that he will have a bad quarter of an hour when he gets a copy of Logan's speech.

The Massachusetts Legislature is suffering from a very bad attack of demagogism. An arbitration bill was recently proposed, and the labor politicians insisted that the choice of the arbitrator to represent the employees in every case where a board is constituted should be restricted to members of labor organizations. Members who believe that men who do not belong to unions have some rights, urged that the range of choice should include the whole body of workingmen, but the demagogues raised the cry that "the labor vote" would be cast against anybody who showed independence enough to support such a proposition, and the bill has actually passed both branches with this discriminating provision in it.

It is a good sign that the countrymen of the Chicago and Milwaukee Anarchists are anxious to repudiate any sympathy with these enemies of society. An anti-Anarchist association of Bohemians held a meeting in this city on Sunday, and after a small number of noisy advocates of the Most policy had been suppressed, they adopted resolutions protesting against the idea that Bohemians as a race are Anarchists, and condemning such acts as those of the Chicago bomb-throwers. One fact bearing upon the attitude of the Poles and Bohemians has not received the attention which it merits. While Poles were prominent among the rioters at Milwaukee, Poles were also prominent in suppressing the disorder; the Kosciusko Guards, who turned out to suppress the mob, being a Polish military organization. The recent disturbances have shown conclusively that it is only a small fraction of even the most ignorant races in this country which believes in anarchy.

The annual exhibition of the Keely motor was given in Philadelphia on Saturday. A new set of terms descriptive of the "power" was introduced, but the tuning-forks and the fiddle-bow were retained to set the "vibratory force" in motion. Ordinary Schuylkill water was used to energize the vibrator. An entirely new machine has been constructed by the inventor, but it is not claimed that any saving of water is effected by it, or that the number of tuning-forks has been essentially reduced. The value of the new machine is that it can be taken apart and put together again in the presence of witnesses. This was done by Keely, to the satisfaction of a goodly number of sightseers, and the exhibition would have been as successful as any of the twelve former ones but for the impertinence of Mr. Hall, the editor of a scientific journal, who asked the privilege of performing the experiment without the use of the tuning-forks. This request was considered by Keely insulting, and he wanted to know if Mr. Hall meant to insinuate that the tuning-forks were a humbug. Mr. Hall replied that that was what he meant. Cries of "Put him out" were raised by the believers, who had come a long distance, they said, to see an exhibition, not to listen to a personal altercation. The insurgent Hall was suppressed, and the exhibition proceeded with much éclat. A "pressure" was obtained ranging from 10,000 to 20,000 pounds to the square inch, according to the pitch of the tuning-forks. At the conclusion Mr. Keely said that he would be prepared to take out his patents in about sixty days, at which time he would have a stationary engine of 200 horse pressure in operation.

The moral effect of the Jaehne conviction and sentence is good, but it is only half of what we hope to see accomplished. The bribe-takers have had warning that their business is a risky one, and that they can be caught and punished. What is most desirable now is to show that bribe-giving is equally risky. If a few of the men who have been engaged in buying legislation can be convicted and sent to the penitentiary, the public conscience will be likely to wake up suddenly to the enormity of that offence. We state it as a fact within the knowledge of everybody familiar with corporations, that a regular item of expenditure with many of them is a large one for influencing legislation. It is looked upon not only as a necessary but a justifiable outlay. Nothing but the startling revelation that every man in any way sanctioning such outlay is liable to imprisonment, will have much effect to stop this business.

Mr. Matthew Arnold begins a letter to the London *Times* on the Irish question by stating that he will soon be on his way to visit his American kinsmen, "who abstained from setting up a Southern Parliament themselves, but are so anxious, it seems, that we set up an Irish one." If this allusion to American affairs is to be taken as referring to the period when secession was beginning, it would be a fitting answer to say that if the North had been separated from the South by sixty miles of salt water, and especially if there had been no irreconcilable antagonism between the institutions of the two sections, it is extremely doubtful if any attempt would have been made to prevent the setting up of a Southern Parliament. Juxtaposition of territory, the conflicting interests of freedom and slavery, and the certainty that any treaty of peace would have been the prelude to war, and that war would be continuous, were the determining causes in the minds of the Northern people. Attachment to the Union would not alone have warranted the outpouring of blood and treasure which actually took place. There was added to this attachment a settled conviction that peace was not possible under the conditions existing. This conviction grew stronger rather than weaker as the war went on, and it has suffered no abatement since. But if there had been a dividing line of blue water even as wide as that which separates England from France, if there had been no fugitive slaves to take into account, if there had been any good reason to believe that peace could be maintained, coercion would not have been attempted. In order to succeed at all, substantial unanimity in the North was required, and such unanimity could not have been had. The Democrats were nearly one-half of the population, and they would not have lent their aid to coercion if the question had been merely that of subduing or not subduing the Southern States. In their minds and in all minds it was a question of subduing or being subdued. It was the culmination of "an irrepressible conflict between opposing and enduring forces," a conflict not to be stopped by paper constitutions or by drawing imaginary lines upon the map. Although the war was not begun to abolish slavery, it was the existence of slavery that made peace impossible.

There is nothing odder or droller in the home-rule discussion than Professor Goldwin Smith's attack on Mr. Gladstone for having shown a "hysterical manner and excessive excitement" during the debates on the question in the House of Commons. Mr. Smith has himself been suffering from hysteria over the Irish question for several years. Four years ago he published an article in *Macmillan's Magazine* gravely recommending that such Irish as were sent to this country with Government funds should be settled among the negroes at the South, where they would do the least mischief; and he declared in the same article that the Irish would probably "destroy Anglo-Saxon civilization" in both continents. A publicist who writes in this way is not an opponent to be argued with. He is a sufferer to be treated with sedatives and change of scene. His notion that Mr. Gladstone is suffering from his own disease is one of the familiar delusions of this class of patients.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 19, to TUESDAY, May 25, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND vetoed four private pension bills on Monday and two on Tuesday, because the reasons assigned for passing them were insufficient.

President Cleveland, in one of his pension-bill vetoes, says: "I am by no means insensible to that influence which leads the judgment toward the allowance of every claim alleged to be founded upon patriotic service in the nation's cause. And yet I neither believe it to be a duty nor a kindness to the worthy citizens for whose benefit our scheme of pensions was provided, to permit the diversion of the nation's bounty to objects not within its scope and purpose."

The Senate on Wednesday passed, 34 to 14, the Pension Bill, so amended as to provide that "no pension paid under any law to any soldier, sailor, or marine hereafter shall be rated at less than $4 a month," and to cover men who served only three months.

In a debate in the Senate on Tuesday, Mr. Ingalls (Rep., Kans.) made a pointed attack on Pension Commissioner Black, alleging that General Black obtained his own pension on false representations.

The House bill providing for closing the business of the Court of *Alabama* Claims was passed by the Senate on Friday without amending. The House passed the bill making a closed season for mackerel from March 1 to June 1 by a vote of 120 to 80. The Senate Committee on Patents directed Mr. Chace to report his bill providing for an international copyright. The House Committee on the Judiciary instructed Chairman Tucker to report favorably an amendment to the Constitution declaring polygamy unlawful.

The Senate on Thursday, without a roll-call, passed the Arthur Kill Bridge Bill. Mr. McPherson could get but five votes for his tunnel amendment. The House, by a vote of 178 nays to 80 yeas, defeated the $800,000 mail subsidy. Only five Democrats voted yea; twenty-two Republicans voted nay.

The Democratic majority of the House Committee on Appropriations has voted to add in the Legislative Appropriation Bill to the item for the salaries and expenses of the Civil-Service Commission the following proviso: "That this appropriation shall be available only when when the rules of the Civil-Service Commission are so framed as that the names of all applicants for official appointment from any one State, found duly qualified on examination, and without regard to age, shall be sent to the head of a department or other officer charged with making an appointment." The item for the salaries of the 150 special pension examiners at $1,400 a year each is accompanied with a proviso that they are "to be appointed by the Secretary of the Interior on the recommendation of the Commissioner of Pensions." They are now appointed in accordance with the Civil-Service Law and Rules.

The Ways and Means Committee on Tuesday morning, by a vote of 10 to 1, decided to report adversely the bill to give effect to the Mexican treaty.

Casey Young threw his "bomb" into the Telephone Committee on Friday, in the shape of an affidavit by Zenas Fisk Wilber, who was an examiner in the Patent Office in 1875, 1876, and 1877, and passed the Bell patent to issue, and who has made heretofore no less than five different affidavits in relation to the telephone controversy since July 29, 1885. He states that in none of these affidavits did he tell the truth or the whole truth, one reason being that he was under the influence of alcohol. His new affidavit says that he accepted a bribe of $100 from Bell to show him Gray's caveat and drawings. Prof. Alexander Graham Bell denies this in the most positive manner.

The Secretary of the Treasury has issued a call for $4,000,000 of the 3 per cent. loan of 1882, due July 1, 1886.

The schooner *Sisters* from Yarmouth, N. S., was seized at Portland, Me., on Monday for failing to have a manifest. The captain has sent a protest to Secretary Manning, in which he says: "Having little knowledge of the regulations of the Treasury Department, and no idea whatever of violating the same, I feel the fine imposed is unjust, and most respectfully ask that the same may be revoked."

The British Minister in Washington is urgently recommending a commission to consider the fishery controversy. Senator Frye, in a letter addressed to the Secretary of State on Thursday, said: "I assume that the State Department is giving this matter such consideration as its importance demands. The urgency of immediate action for the protection and relief of these American citizens cannot be overestimated. I regard the conduct of the Canadian Government as entirely unjustifiable, and without authority of treaty, of law, or of good neighborhood." Secretary Bayard replied: "The late reprehensible action of the Canadian officials in relation to American fishing vessels has occurred in remote localities without facilities for postal communication, and consequently there has been delay, regrettable but unavoidable, in receiving consular reports. But your assumption 'that this Department is giving the matter such consideration as its importance demands' will, I believe, be fully sustained when the proper time arrives for publication of its action. I trust I am properly conscious of my duty as an official charged with the execution of delicate and important public functions, and that the interests and honor of my country and the rights of its citizens will not be found to have suffered at my hands." The feeling in Maine over the seizures is intense.

The second General Assembly of the Knights of Labor of the United States met in Cleveland on Tuesday afternoon, 122 delegates out of 147 entitled to seats being present. The General Master Workman, Mr. Powderly, called the meeting to order, but made no address. The statement is made that a novel proposition will soon be laid before the General Assembly to bring about amicable relations between labor and capital by forming local and district assemblies composed entirely of manufacturers and other employers.

The great strike of coal miners in the Clearfield (Pa.) region ended on Tuesday. The men return to work at the old wages, the mine owners making some concessions.

Judge Barrett, of this city, on Thursday sentenced ex-Alderman Jaehne (convicted of bribery in connection with the Broadway scandal) to nine years and ten months at hard labor in the State Prison. The limit is ten years. Jaehne was taken to Sing Sing on Friday.

The New York Assembly, on Wednesday, passed the bill providing for the election of New York Aldermen on a general ticket, for holding municipal elections in April, and providing that any voter may on one ballot cast one vote for as many Aldermen as there are Aldermen to be chosen at such election, or may on one ballot cast more than one vote for any one or more candidates for the office of Aldermen, providing that the aggregate number of votes cast by any voter for Aldermen shall not exceed the number of Aldermen to be chosen at such election.

The Senate at Albany on Wednesday night, by a vote of 19 to 7, passed the New York Aldermanic and Spring-Election Bill as it passed the Assembly. The bill giving the appointment of Excise Commissioners to President Nooney of the Board of Aldermen was passed by the Senate, and the Census Bill was defeated.

A bill passed the Assembly on Wednesday, authorizing the Governor to appoint a commission of three to investigate the different systems of prison labor, and providing for the employment of convicts on the public account or piece-price system until this commission reports or until January 1, 1887. The Senate also passed the bill and it was approved by the Governor

Governor Hill sent to the Senate on Wednesday morning the name of Edward A. Durant, jr., to be Railroad Commissioner in place of John O'Donnell. Mr. Durant is a grain merchant of Albany. He is forty years old, and was graduated from Williams College in 1869. The nomination was a surprise, as Mr. Durant is a Republican. The Senate, however, did not confirm the nomination.

On Thursday the Governor sent to the Senate the following nominations: State Prison Commission—Wm. Bookstaver of Dunkirk, George Blair, of New York, and Enos W. Barnes, of Wellesville. Arbitration Commission—Wm. Purcell, of Rochester, Gilbert Robertson, jr., of Troy, and Florence F. Donovan, of Brooklyn. The Senate confirmed them. They were made mostly for political purposes.

Both houses of the Legislature adjourned *sine die* on Thursday noon with the usual ceremonies.

Governor Hill on Tuesday appointed Roswell P. Flower an Electrical Subway Commissioner for this city, in the place of Charles E. Loew, deceased.

The Yale Corporation on Thursday formally accepted the resignation of President Noah Porter, and unanimously elected Professor Timothy Dwight to succeed him. Professor Dwight is fifty-eight years of age, and is a grandson of Professor Timothy Dwight, who was President of Yale from 1795 till his death. He has been a Yale professor since 1858.

It is announced that the Board of Domestic Missions of the Reformed Church of America, whose office is in this city, has suffered a loss of upward of $25,000 through the misuse of trust funds by its Treasurer, John R. Smith.

Arthur Quartley, a well-known marine artist, died in this city on Wednesday, aged 47. He was the son of a London wood-engraver.

Mrs. Alice Pendleton, wife of George H. Pendleton, of Ohio, American Minister to Germany, was killed by a carriage accident in Central Park on Thursday afternoon.

Dr. Dio Lewis, the author of many popular works on hygiene, died at Yonkers on Friday, aged sixty-three.

Samuel Hand, ex-Judge of the Court of Appeals in this State, died at Albany on Friday, aged fifty-two. He was a close political friend of Governor Tilden and President Cleveland, and had been engaged in many important cases before the Court of Appeals.

Professor Joel Dorman Steele, widely known as the author of a series of school-books, died suddenly of heart disease at his home in Elmira on Tuesday. He was born at Lima, N. Y., in 1836, and was educated at Albany and Troy. He served in the late war with distinction.

Gen. Frederick Nash Ogden, who led the White League movement at New Orleans in 1874, which overthrew the Kellogg Government, is dead at the age of fifty.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday night the bill providing for the election by ballot of the Poor-Law Guardians in Ireland passed its second reading by a vote of 207 to 105. The debate was very warm. Mr. John Morley supported the measure on behalf of the Government.

In the House of Commons on Thursday night, after a heated debate, the Arms Act passed its second reading by a vote of 303 to 89. This led the Government whips to claim a majority of 15 for the Home-Rule Bill on its second reading.

In the home-rule debate on Tuesday in the House of Commons, Mr. Trevelyan quoted an alleged remark of Mr. Parnell, to the effect that he would not rest until the last link that

connected Ireland with England had been broken. Mr. Parnell indignantly said, "This is not the first time that this calumny has been uttered. I demand the date and place of the speech." Mr. Trevelyan replied, "Cincinnati. If Mr. Parnell considers his words derogatory, let him withdraw them and express his regret." Mr. Parnell retorted that Mr. Trevelyan had not given the date and title of the paper from which he quoted. He (Parnell) possessed verbatim reports of his Cincinnati speeches, which showed that he had not used such words. Mr. Trevelyan said that he fully accepted Mr. Parnell's denial, and added that the date was February 23, 1880, and the paper was the *Irish World*.

The Roman Catholic Propaganda has succeeded in inducing the bishops to exert their influence upon Mr. Parnell's followers, with the object of securing the latter's consent to the retention of a full Irish representation at London. Cardinal Manning initiated the movement. It is said that he believed that the removal of Irish members from Westminster would be injurious to the cause of Roman Catholic denominational education in Great Britain

Lord Salisbury addressed a great audience, under the auspices of the Primrose League, in London on Wednesday. He advised the maintenance of law and order in Ireland. He reiterated his advice to the Irish to emigrate from Ireland if they could not prosper and be contented under British rule, and urged the Conservatives to support the Liberal Unionist candidates in the coming election where Conservatives could not certainly be chosen.

Matthew Arnold has written a letter to the London *Times* on home rule, in which he says: "A separate Parliament for Ireland is Gladstone's irreducible minimum. Ireland is a nation, says Mr. Parnell menacingly and Mr. Stansfeld gushingly. A nation should have its national Parliament. Ireland has been a nation and a most unhappy one. Wales and Scotland also have been nations. Politically none of them are nations now. Britain could not have risen to her present greatness if she had given them separate Parliaments. You begin to make them nations politically again, but you begin also to undo what made the country. The awakening mind of the country demands not that we give a separate Parliament to Ireland, but that we seriously set ourselves to the task of giving her separate laws and institutions. Lord Salisbury's bad and arbitrary temper as a home politician is as great a misfortune to the country as Lord Randolph Churchill's intriguing. The establishment of a separate Parliament would be a dangerous and unnecessary plunge. Lord Salisbury talks only of coercion. Let us refuse a separate Parliament with firmness, but with equal firmness let us insist upon a condition which alone justifies this refusal. Lord Hartington has good temper. He is no intriguer. Mr. Goschen has made local government a special study. I hope they may be trusted to make our refusal firmly and our engagements emphatically. The passionate supporters of Mr. Gladstone are political dissenters and Radical workmen of the great towns."

Lord Randolph Churchill, in a long letter to Mr. Gladstone, accuses him of completely misstating his (Churchill's) recent remarks in regard to Ulster Loyalists and rebellion. Mr. Gladstone replies: "I greatly regret if I misrepresented your statements. My words rested mainly on your speech in Ulster and on the closing paragraph of your letter to Mr. Young of the 7th instant. This paragraph was as follows: 'If Parliament, for the sake of purchasing a short, illusory quietude, hand the Irish Loyalists over to their hereditary foes, Ulster will fight and will be victorious, because she will command the sympathy and support of an enormous section of the British community and the approval of free, civilized nations.' Let us consider this paragraph substituted for the words which I attributed to you in quoting from recollection. To this I am constrained to apply exactly the same words that I expressed in Parliament."

The Gladstone Committee is making a final effort to conciliate the Radical dissenters. The Committee has made overtures to Mr. Chamberlain, promising that if he abstains from voting against the Home-Rule Bill the measure will be dropped after the second reading, and the Government will then support a resolution affirming the supremacy of the Imperial Parliament, and promising adequate protection to the Irish minority. Mr. Chamberlain's acceptance of the offer depends upon Mr. Gladstone's giving guarantees that this course will be followed.

From the best information obtainable it is believed that the British Cabinet decides not to abandon clause 24 of the Home-Rule Bill, which provides for no Irish representation at Westminster. Mr. Gladstone, however, has declared his willingness to introduce further modifications, which he will explain at a general meeting of the Liberal party. In the call for this meeting, to be held on May 27, Mr. Gladstone says: "It is proposed to hold a meeting at the Foreign Office on Thursday, 27th, at noon, of all the members of the Liberal party who are desirous, while retaining full freedom in all particulars in the Irish Government Bill, to vote in favor of the establishment of a legislative body in Dublin for the management of affairs specifically and exclusively Irish." The special significance of this is its decision as to who shall and shall not be considered members of the Liberal party in the future. It is a decree excommunicating the Whigs, and making home rule the Liberal shibboleth. It is an official recognition of the break-up in the Liberal party.

An important session of the British Cabinet was held on Tuesday. It lasted more than an hour, and at its close Mr. Gladstone started for Windsor to see the Queen. Wild rumors were afloat—one that he would advise an immediate dissolution, and another that he would tender his resignation.

M. Stephanopulos was on Thursday elected President of the Greek Chamber of Deputies. He was the nominee of M. Tricoupis, and was elected by a majority of 60 over the candidate supported by M. Delyannis.

M. Tricoupis on Friday formed a new Greek Ministry. He assumed provisionally the offices of Minister of War and Minister of Finance. The other Ministers are: M. Lombardos, Minister of the Interior; M. Voulpiotos, Minister of Justice; M. Manetas, Minister of Public Instruction; M. Theokotis, Minister of Marine. The Ministry is for peace.

A number of skirmishes took place on the Greek frontier on Thursday night and Friday morning. The Turks were the aggressors. European markets were unfavorably affected.

The Greeks claim that during the frontier engagements on Friday they captured two positions from the Turks, 20,000 cartridges, and three prisoners. The commander of the Turkish troops explained that the firing by his men was due to a mistake, and he gave assurances that Turkey's intentions were pacific. There was an entire cessation of firing everywhere along the frontier on Saturday. Mutual explanations were made.

Severe fighting took place on the Greek frontier on Sunday morning. The forces engaged covered a distance of fifteen miles. The heaviest fighting was at Tirnovo, and the casualties were heavy on both sides. A truce was effected at noon, and efforts are making to arrange an armistice.

There was more fighting on Monday, in which the Greeks were successful. On the same day a royal decree was issued sending 50,000 Greek troops to their homes. No further trouble is anticipated. The immediate cause of the recent hostilities was the fact that the Greek troops, who had served all winter on the frontier and borne all the hardships, knew that as soon as Tricoupis came back to power they would be disbanded, and were eager to show what they could do. The conflict was practically provoked. The Greek General Loris has been mortally wounded.

United States Minister S. S. Cox had a three hours' interview with the Sultan on Wednesday. He presented to the latter gifts sent by President Cleveland, consisting of 1,000 views of scenery in different parts of the United States, portraits of celebrated and typical Indians, copies of the last census reports, etc. The Sultan was well pleased with the presents, and requested Mr. Cox to thank President Cleveland for the "unique and valuable gifts." The Sultan asked Mr. Cox to coöperate in the work of taking a Turkish census.

M. Rousseau, the delegate appointed by the French Government to inspect the work on the Panama Canal, has presented a report in which he denies the correctness of the canal company's statements respecting its facilities for construction, the time when the canal will be completed, and the amount of money still required to accomplish the work. The Minister of Public Works will inform M. de Lesseps and his fellow-directors that they must reply to M. Rousseau's report, as the Government cannot authorize the proposed issue of lottery bonds until the position of the company is made clear.

M. de Lesseps assumes to make light of the report. He says that if the Government refuses him permission to issue lottery bonds for the purpose of raising sufficient money to complete the canal, he will get funds by other means and elsewhere than in France.

It is considered certain that the French Government will prohibit the Comte de Paris, who is now in Lisbon, from reëntering France.

The French Cabinet on Tuesday by a vote of 6 to 5 adopted the principle of the expulsion of the Orleans Princes.

The German Reichstag on Tuesday referred the Spirit Bill to a committee, and adjourned *sine die*.

Leopold von Ranke, the aged and renowned German historian, died on Sunday in Berlin. He was born at Wiehe, in Thuringia, on December 21, 1795, and was therefore in his ninety-first year. At the age of twenty-nine he published his first works, 'The History of Roman and German Nations from 1494 to 1535' and 'Criticisms upon Modern Historians.' These works brought him a professorship of history at Berlin in 1825, which he retained until his death. A few years later he was sent by the Prussian Government to examine the historical material in Venice, Vienna, Florence, and Rome, in which work he spent four years. Libraries, public archives, and monasteries were ransacked, and much valuable historical material was brought to light. From this he produced a number of notable historical works. The work which first gave him European reputation was entitled 'The Popes of Rome,' which was really a continuation of 'The Princes and Peoples of Southern Europe.' This work appeared in 1834. The review of it by Lord Macaulay in the Edinburgh *Review* is one of his masterpieces, and it made Ranke's name familiar to English and American readers. His most complete effort, however, is his 'German History in the Time of the Reformation.' The closing work of his life, a history of the world, entitled 'Weltgeschichte,' was projected after he was eighty years of age. It was to be in nine volumes. Six of these have been completed, and it is believed that he has left sufficient notes and documents to permit at least one more to be prepared by his literary executor.

The official report of the Minister of Militia was presented to the Canadian Parliament on Friday morning. It shows that the total cost of the half-breed rebellion was $4,700,000, and the casualties 26 men killed and 206 wounded.

Maximo Santos has been appointed President of Uraguay, President Vidal having resigned.

DESPOTISM AND SECRECY.

THE two leading strikes of the late labor crisis were those of the Southwestern Railroads and of the Third Avenue Road in this city. One was started and managed by Martin Irons and the other by Joseph O'Donnell. Irons was Chairman of one Executive Committee and O'Donnell of another. In both cases the great body of the strikers had no grievances of their own to complain of. They struck because they were ordered to strike by the man representing the Executive Committee, and they held out because they got no orders from him to go back to work. There have been other similar cases on a smaller scale. In the Paterson silk factory 1,200 persons struck, without knowing why, on receiving a signal made with his fingers by a cigarmaker from Albany, who was also chairman of some committee, and sought to make the owner of the factory conduct the business of his dye-house to suit him (the cigarmaker). Being coldly received in the dye-house, he lost his temper, and snapped his fingers as he passed through the shops, with the above-mentioned result.

In all these cases the strikes failed utterly, but not without great loss both to employer and employed. The employer lost the profits on his business, the interest on his fixed capital, and probably some of his permanent custom; while the strikers lost their wages, and thousands of men and women all over the country lost the amount of a special tax levied on them, or assumed by them to support the strikers while loafing or rioting. A fortnight ago the Third Avenue strike ended in failure, and when it ended, O'Donnell, the man who started it and kept it going, had to resign and get out of the way of his constituents. For some days there was talk of mobbing him, and after having at one time occupied a position so eminent that he peremptorily directed the Inspector of Police not to suppress a riot which he was himself heading —and this with the approval of some of the newspapers—he has utterly disappeared from view, amid the curses of his dupes. More recently the Southwestern strike ended in failure also. Irons is in hiding, or has made his escape, leaving a mob of his former followers and many angry creditors vainly searching for him with hostile intent. In like manner the silk workers at Paterson went back to work ashamed and sorry, and the cigarmaker who snapped his fingers has been expelled from his assembly, or whatever the body is to which he belongs, and deposed from his high office.

Now, what is the moral of all this for working people? Is it not the old moral, which political history has been teaching for 4,000 years, that no man or small knot of men is fit to be intrusted with the exercise of arbitrary power over other men's lives and fortunes? Is it not astounding that there should be found so many white citizens of the United States ready to act as if they had no knowledge of the experience of their race with absolute rulers and secret cabals and committees; of the loss, and suffering, and sorrow which it has undergone at their hands, of the vast expenditure of life and treasure which it has taken to get rid of them and establish government by popular consent and public discussion? Louis XIV. and Napoleon I. and Napoleon III. were really nothing but Grand Master Workmen, with a lot of Inside and Outside Esquires at their beck and call, who had only to crack their fingers in order to tear people away from their occupations without telling them why, and levy on their property without rendering them an account. Charles I., too, really wanted to be a Walking Delegate, and go about the country and collect money, without letting people know what he wanted it for, but the English would not give him "assessments," or permit him to snap his fingers in their workshops; and on his persisting in the practice they cut his head off.

The strikes which Louis XIV. ordered were on a tremendous scale. He had constantly 300,000 or 400,000 men striking in one direction or another, without ever telling them what the cause was. He himself escaped the fury of the strikers by death, but his successor in the fifth generation perished for his ancestor's sins on the scaffold. Napoleon I. was a still greater organizer of strikes. He kept all France on a strike against the rest of Europe for twenty years. He used to order out a couple of hundred thousand men at a time, and when the wretched strikers asked what it was all about, he used to say, like Martin Irons, that it was to "show his power," and when they begged to be allowed to go back to their factories and fields, he used to say, like Master Workman Powderly, that though the strike might have been unjustifiable in the beginning, it had to go on for the credit of the Order. But the day came at last when, as in Missouri, the patience of the strikers was worn out, and they deserted him, and then, like Irons, he had to run, with a mob after him, and left the world wondering what he had done with all the money. His nephew, Napoleon III., had a somewhat similar experience. He headed and managed strikes in France, and collected assessments, and kept "pickets" out, and stopped trains, and ran opposition stages for twenty years, but at last he organized a bigger strike than he could manage, and he too had to run with the mob at his heels, followed by his Venerable Sages, and his Esquires, and his Local Assembly.

In fact, how any workingman who can read, and who has any habit of reflection, can bring himself, in the year 1886, in the United States of America, to join any organization in which his life and property can be controlled by arbitrary or secretly prepared orders, it is difficult to understand. For to be, not simply an American, but a modern freeman, it is before all things necessary that a man should make his own contracts; should pay no money, except debts, to anybody who is not willing to render him an account; should submit to no laws or "orders" which he has not been consulted about, or has not had a hand, personally or through his representatives, in making after open discussion. These things are among the essentials of freedom. A man who has only some of them is partially free. A man who has none of them is a slave.

HOW THE KNIGHTS CONDUCT STRIKES.

EXTRAORDINARY revelations as to the manner in which the Knights of Labor conduct strikes, were made by many members of the order during the late Congressional investigation. The sessions of the Committee were attended by Charles H. Litchman, first General Secretary of the order, and at present a member of the General Executive Board for the whole country, who was sent to St. Louis by Mr. Powderly as his authorized representative. What Mr. Litchman says as to the morals of striking, and of preventing by force other men from taking the places of strikers, is therefore of the highest significance. Here it is:

"Mr. Parker—What do you call a scab?

"Mr. Litchman—By a scab, the trades unionist means what the lawyer means by a shyster and the doctor by a quack.

"Q. Do you not acknowledge the right of any man to work and earn wages and support his family? A. When you put the question abstractly, in that way, I must answer it, 'Yes.' *But I do not acknowledge the right of any man, at the time a great conflict is raging between labor and capital, to step in between and scab.*

"Q. You said a while ago that when a strike was declared, everything in human power should be done to make it effective and successful. What did you mean by everything in human power? A. *I would rather not answer that question. The case is not here, and I don't care to make myself plainer.*"

Irons was asked for his views on the same point with this result:

"Q. Now, do you regard injuring property as lawlessness? A. Yes.

"Q. And killing engines? A. Well, sort of, I suppose.

"Q. Do you regard uncoupling cars and breaking up trains as violence? A. Well, yes."

On previous occasions Irons had been more candid in expressing his endorsement of violence. One witness produced short-hand notes of a speech made by Irons at a Knights of Labor meeting in East St. Louis, while the trouble there was at its height, in which he said:

"Talk to the scabs; go to their houses and talk to their wives, and make them quit. Do everything you can to make them come out, *and if they won't, give them some pills and — them out.* To hell with the Chinese! To hell with the scabs! We won in the Chinese fight, and we will win this."

At the same meeting, said this witness,

"another Knight of Labor advised the men to be quiet while the militia were there, but as soon as they were gone"—here the speaker winked significantly.

"Mr. Stewart—He didn't reduce it to words, but he looked it?

"Witness—Yes."

The way in which the teachings of men like Litchman and Irons were carried into practice was perfectly illustrated at De Soto, Mo., and is best told by some of the witnesses from that place. Joseph Cramer, formerly employed by the Missouri-Pacific at De Soto, was thus examined:

"Mr. Stewart—Are you a Knight of Labor?

"Witness—No; I used to be.

"Mr. Stewart—How did your connection with the order terminate?

"Witness—Well, on March 14, I was ordered to assist in stopping trains. I didn't go. On the 17th two members of the assembly asked me again, but I said I shouldn't have anything at all to do with such business. On the 18th I received the following written notice from the lodge:

"'You are hereby notified to come to the hall and report for duty to the Master Workman.'

At first I didn't go, but when they sent again I went. When I appeared, the Master Workman told me to go to the coal chute. I asked what that was for. He said, 'To stop trains.' I said I was not going to do any such thing as that. He said, 'Very well, you needn't do anything, but you can go and swell the crowd.' I replied, I didn't propose to violate any laws or make myself a criminal in any way. He told me I was a coward. I replied, 'Well, I may be, but I'm not afraid of you or any one else; all the same, I'm not going to damage the company's property.'

"Mr. Burnes—Where did this conversation take place?

"Witness—In the Knights of Labor hall at De Soto.

"Q. With the Master Workman? A. Yes.

"Q. Whose signature was attached to the notice? A. Master Workman McLaughlin's.

"Q. Who brought the notice? A. I don't know, but it was one of the officers who came the second time.

"Q. Here is a list of names of the men who broke open the round-house. Do you know of your own knowledge whether they are Knights of Labor or not? A. Most of them I have met at the lodge, and one of them abused me terribly.

"Q. Who was that? A. Rogerson. He said: 'Do you suppose the Knights of Labor will ever allow you to work in their shops again when they have got through this affair?' I said: 'That is a matter for consideration later on.' He said they were going to win the fight, and I should never be allowed to work with them afterward.

"Mr. Burnes—Did you withdraw from the Knights of Labor?

"Witness—I didn't withdraw; I was expelled.

"Q. Why? A. For refusing to stop trains and damage the railroad property.

"Q. When were you expelled? A. The same night I refused to go on duty. They also went so far as to say that they would give me twenty-four hours to leave the town.

"Q. Were you present when you were expelled? A. No, but officers of the assembly told me the next morning.

"Q. What were you told? A. That I was expelled for gross violation of the laws of the order.

"Q. What was the violation? A. Refusing to obey the officer's demand to stop trains and destroy property.

"Governor Curtin—Do you understand that there is a law of the Knights of Labor to compel a man to disobey the laws of the United States?

"Witness—No; and I told the Master Workman so. He said he didn't know anything about that, but I had got to do it."

Henry P. Becker, a merchant of De Soto, testified that he had witnessed several acts of violence by Knights of Labor. He himself formerly belonged to the order, and left it in this way:

"Mr. Burnes—Why did you leave the order?

"Witness—I was expelled because I was told to go on picket. I said I had done all the picketing I meant to do. The Master Workman pressed me, and I said: 'I'll be d——d if I go on picket.' I walked out of the room, and was expelled. After that I received notice that it would be well if my son did not make himself so busy. I went round to my son at once. He is employed in the office at the depot, and I said: 'You do your duty, and if any one interferes with you shoot him. You do this, and I'll stand by you.'"

John French, a blacksmith formerly employed at De Soto, testified that he had belonged to the Knights of Labor up to the 8th of March, when he retired because he could not countenance acts of violence and intimidation. Further evidence to the same effect was ready, but the Committee declined to hear more, one of the members saying: "I hardly see the use of continuing this line of examination. There is no doubt whatever that the Knights of Labor were implicated in these disturbances, and that the Master Workman gave notice that no trains should go out."

Finally, as to the character of the tyranny exercised over the Knights of Labor by the organization, two bits of testimony may be quoted. One is from the examination of Joseph Cramer, who was expelled from the De Soto Assembly for refusing to obey the Master Workman's order to stop trains and damage the railroad property:

"Mr. Stewart—Is it a principle in the order that members shall stop trains and damage property?

"Witness—I don't know about that, *but a man has to obey orders.*"

The other is from the examination of John Doyle, formerly a tinner in the Missouri-Pacific shops at St. Louis:

"Mr. Burnes—Why did you go out?

"Witness—Because I was ordered to.

"Mr. Burnes—Would you have gone out except for the order?

"Witness—No; I didn't suppose it would do me any good, *but when a man belongs to an order, he has to obey it.*"

This testimony of members of the order presents a complete picture of the Knights of Labor organization as it exists to-day. It is an organization whose authorized representative regards "labor" as meaning only laborers who belong to the organization, and who does "not acknowledge the right of any man, at the time a great conflict is raging between labor and capital" (meaning between Knights of Labor and their former employer), "to step in between and scab" (meaning for an unemployed man not a Knight of Labor to take a vacant place formerly filled by a Knight of Labor). It is an organization in which such an utterly worthless fellow as Martin Irons becomes absolute dictator over 5,000 men, so that they are bound by oath to obey any order he may give. It is an organization in which a Martin Irons possesses and exercises the power to order a strike which affects not only these 5,000 men, but all the industries of half-a-dozen States, because he fancies that a railroad official in one of these States meant "a slight on the order" when he discharged an inefficient workman. It is an organization whose local assemblies have ordered members to stop trains and damage railroad property without being called to account by the governing body, and whose authorized representative justifies such action by saying, when asked to define what he means by doing "everything in human power" to make a strike effective, "I would rather not answer that question." It is an organization which binds the member by oath to obey implicitly any command of anybody who chances to be his superior officer, no matter if that superior officer orders him, suddenly and without reason, to stop work, give up a place with which he is entirely satisfied, and leave his family without means of support, or even to break the law and by force prevent another man from working in his place—any act of disobedience bringing down upon the offender the vengeance of the organization: "*when a man belongs to an order, he has to obey it.*"

ONE OF MR. GLADSTONE'S DIFFICULTIES.

A GREAT deal of the trouble which Mr. Gladstone is experiencing with his Irish measures is due to the fact that to most Englishmen the whole Irish question is a complete novelty, and the island a terra incognita. It would probably be found, if the matter could be investigated, that only a very small number of Englishmen, prominent in public life, have ever been in Ireland, or, if they have ever visited that country, have stayed there more than a few days, or have seen more than one small class of the community. The same reasons, too, which keep Englishmen from going to Ireland have always kept them from studying Irish questions, or indeed giving them any attention except under the pressure of some such necessity as the holding of an Irish office. And then the persistent grumbling of the Irish ever since the Union has produced in most Englishmen the impression which grumbling always produces on people who know little and care nothing about the grumblers—that is, the impression that they are born grumblers and that nothing would satisfy them. A "man with a grievance" is always, even to his friends, a serious bore. After they have heard his story once or twice they cease to care whether it is true or not, and are inclined to believe that it is not true.

Moreover, the Irish, with all their oratorica gifts, are on the whole ill fitted to make a serious impression on English audiences, even if they get a hearing. Their rhetoric is too fervid, just as that of Frenchmen or Italians is, for the cold English temperament. Their exaggerations and flights of fancy excite disgust and distrust in the English mind. So that even if Englishmen had been disposed to listen to them, they would probably not have succeeded in making much impression. To these difficulties we must add what we may call the natural imperviousness of the English mind. As Matthew Arnold says, Englishmen "have become, in a certain sense, of all people the most inaccessible to ideas, and the most impatient of them; inaccessible to them because of their want of familiarity with them, and impatient of them because they have got on so well without them that they despise those who, not having got on so well as themselves, still make a fuss for what they themselves have done so well without."

Now, Mr. Gladstone's announcement fifteen years ago that Irish grievances were real, and could be redressed, and must be redressed, was really a disturbance of English life by the introduction of a new and essentially repulsive idea. His proposal to disestablish the Irish Church and to interfere between landlord and tenant was a new idea, which the English mind apprehended with difficulty and reluctance, and which first gave him the reputation in English clubs and drawing-rooms of being a dangerous man, who concocted strange and startling theories of English duty. His home-rule scheme is, of course, still more alarming and incomprehensible than anything which has gone before. Accordingly when it first appeared it absolutely shocked the middle and upper classes in England. They looked on it as a wild and grotesque concoction of Gladstone's brain, and, besides this, absolutely gratuitous. They had heard of home rule, but they had not considered it, or turned it over, or "taken it in," as the phrase is, or dreamed that anybody of note or consequence was disposed to treat it seriously. They were disgusted with both Gladstone and the Irish for having such an idea, seeing how well Englishmen had got on without it. Nobody in England, they said, felt the need of a Parliament in Dublin; why, then, should the Irish want one, and why should Gladstone propose to give it to them? They pronounced it, therefore, as Mr. Arnold does, in a recent letter to the London *Times*, a "leap in the dark." All novelties in legislation in England are to the English mind "leaps in the dark." Catholic emancipation was one. Lord Eldon

said it had caused "the sun of England to set forever." The Reform Bill in 1832 was another. The Duke of Wellington did not see, he said, if it passed, "how the King's Government was to be carried on." The Reform Bill of 1867 was also denounced by a large number of those who are now most vigorous in their opposition to home rule as "a leap in the dark." In fact, we believe these very words were used about it by Lord Sherbrooke, then Mr. Robert Lowe. All change is objectionable in a greater or less degree to the typical English mind simply as change, and it foresees hardly anything but evil from it.

We see some illustration of all this now in the gains Gladstone is making by waiting. As the weeks roll on, home rule is losing many of its terrors, and many of the Liberals who ran away when it first appeared are coming back. Mr. Chamberlain finds that but few of his followers are willing to stand by him to the end. Consequently the Tories and timid Liberals are anxious to bring the pending debate to a close as soon as possible, while Mr. Gladstone wishes to prolong it. He knows that time and resulting familiarity with his plan tell in its favor. He knows that the English public needs time to make up its mind, and that it cannot make up its mind about anything without getting used to it.

THE STUDY OF THE LAW AT THE GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

It is a well-known fact that in Germany every one who wishes to practise law, or enter certain of the most important branches of the public service, must study law for at least three years at a university and pass two State examinations. One of these examinations is to be taken at, or shortly after, the close of the academic triennium, and the other at least four years after the first. As a matter of fact, the first is ordinarily taken three years and one-half after the student enters the university, and the second five years after the first, making in all a preparatory course of eight and one-half years before the student is admitted in full standing to the bar. All this is in addition to the completion of the course in the gymnasium, or classical college, which takes the student on the average until his twentieth year, and which must be finished before the student is admitted to the university. In spite of this long preparatory course, the complaint comes to us from Germany that too many students are studying law, that the supply is outrunning the demand. In a recent number of Conrad's *Jahrbücher für Nationalökonomie und Statistik* Professor von Schulte, in an article entitled "Das juristische Studium auf den deutschen Universitäten," discusses some very interesting phases of this question which should be of interest to students of university matters the world over.

The author begins his discussion with a reference to the valuable monograph by Professor Conrad, which was reviewed in the *Nation* some time ago, in regard to the attendance at German universities during the last fifty years, arranged according to faculties. The first interesting phenomenon is the great fluctuation in the number of students at different times in the history of the same institution. Thus, Berlin had 1,441 students of law in 1881, while it had only 348 in 1860. Breslau varied from 101 in 1841 to 432 in 1877; Halle, from 186 in 1832 to 42 in 1860; Leipzig, from 257 in 1862 to 1,130 in 1875; Munich, from 898 in 1852 to 212 in 1874; Kiel, from 113 in 1834 to 9 in 1872. For these facts it is hard to find any satisfactory explanation. Thus, the time of greatest attendance at Bonn occurred in 1851, when the leading professors did not lecture at all, owing to absence in Parliament. Twelve of the universities reached their highest attendance at a time which had nothing to do with the great extension of study that followed the wars of 1866 and 1870. The six old Prussian universities—Berlin, Breslau, Halle, Greifswald, Koenigsberg, and Bonn—had the smallest attendance during the years which followed the earnest warnings of the Prussian Ministry from 1855–60 that the business of studying law was being overdone. Five of the universities had their lowest attendance in 1870, which seems natural. On the contrary, Munich and Erlangen declined steadily from 1867 to 1880. Another interesting fact is to be found in the great difference in attendance between the winter and the summer semester. The greatest difference is to be seen in Berlin and Heidelberg, the former having at times about forty per cent. more students in the winter than in the summer, while the latter has fifty per cent. more in summer than in winter. Heidelberg and Freiburg, indeed, may fairly be called summer resorts for the German students.

The largest attendance at the different universities varies greatly. Berlin had at one time more than 1,400 law students, while Leipzig never reached 1,150, nor Munich 900, nor Heidelberg 600, nor Bonn 400, nor Tübingen 300, nor any of the rest 275, except Breslau and Goettingen, which at one time came near to 450, while Rostock never got above 72. The explanation of this great difference is found by the author in a variety of circumstances, the most important of which are the following: (1.) The large number from the immediate neighborhood of the university. Thus, nearly 10 per cent. of the students in Berlin come from the city itself, while in Munich more than 10 per cent. are from the city. (2.) The attraction which a capital city exerts upon the future lawyer or Government officer. This is particularly noticeable in Berlin and Munich, and is especially clear in the case of Berlin since it became the capital of the empire, as is seen from the great increase in attendance from outside of Prussia since 1870. (3.) The price of living, which is lower in a large city than in a small one. The rooms in a large city are perhaps somewhat dearer, but any one who wishes to economize can do so much better in a large city than a small one. The means of getting about are cheaper, and enable one to live at a distance from the university. The restaurants are better and cheaper. One who wishes to work is not drawn off by his companions, as he can always find students who also wish to economize and to work. Amusements are better and cheaper. For the impecunious student the great city offers decided advantages. It is, of course, the Paradise of him who has means. (4.) The universities of most of the States have an assured attendance, since all but Prussia require that the students shall spend at least half of their time at some university within the State, and where there is only one university it gets all the students for at least three semesters. Besides this, in some of the States the State examination must be passed before a board of examiners composed chiefly of university professors, and the students know that it is safer to hear the lectures of the examiners themselves. This accounts for certain tendencies at Munich and Tübingen. (5.) A chief reason for this great difference is also fashion, and a desire to see other universities. Thus, more than 40 per cent. of the Prussian students study at universities outside of Prussia, while less than 14 per cent. of non-Prussians study in Prussia. This is explained to some extent by the provision mentioned above in regard to studying at a home university. Less than 8 per cent. of the Bavarian students go out of Bavaria during their course; less than one-sixth of the Saxons out of Saxony; and less than one-third of the Würtembergers go out of their own State. To give an idea how extensive the habit of moving about among the different universities has come to be, the author makes an extract from the records of the University of Bonn, from which it appears that out of 200 students of law in 1875 40 had been at one other university, 41 at two others, 27 at three, and 7 at four other universities. In 1882 the facts were still more striking. Of 295 students, 47 had been at one other university, 70 at two, 45 at three, 17 at four, 1 at five, and 1 at six.

It is interesting to note that the author regards this feature of moving around from one university to another, which seems to be rather on the increase than otherwise, as a decided drawback to thorough work, although it is ordinarily held up, by Germans and foreigners alike, as a system which other countries might well adopt. The disadvantages of the plan are great both for student and instructor. A student who changes his university twice or thrice loses much time in getting accustomed to the place, in making new acquaintances, etc., so that the term time becomes very short indeed. The professors must go on the supposition that a large part of the students are new. Hence there can be no proper coördination of lecture courses. If a professor lecturing on the Pandects, for example, could be sure that his hearers had heard the courses on the history and institutions of Roman law, he could presuppose much. The various professors of Roman law could arrange their courses so that they would fit into each other. As it is now, each professor must take for granted as little as possible. The result of this is an absurd combination of courses on the part of the student. The average student, if he goes regularly to his lectures at all, takes those which come at convenient hours, takes the course which happens to be fashionable, etc. He wishes to attend as many different universities as possible; in summer he takes in the pleasant districts, in winter the pleasures of the metropolis, and withal hears continually the A B C courses, because they give him least trouble. Prof. Schulte says that the less said about the actual attendance at the lectures the soonest mended. It is a very good state of things if one-half or even one-third of the students regularly go to the lectures. The habit of performing during term-time their compulsory military service, which for students at the universities is limited to one year, interferes seriously with the attendance. The members of the *corps* and other societies among the students do not even pretend to go to the lectures.

The question as to whether the supply of law students does not exceed the demand is made the subject of a careful investigation. The law students are all looking forward to entering the Government service in some department or other, or practising law. The number of places in the civil service is, of course, definitely known, and, although it is continually on the increase, it is comparatively easy to estimate just how many new men will be wanted. The number of practising lawyers was until very recently limited by law to that number which in the judgment of the court was necessary to do the legal business of the community. Although the number is not now limited, yet as a lawyer must engage in the practice of his profession exclusively and not embark in other business, which is regarded as inconsistent with the dignity and duty of an advocate, it is plain that the number is very much smaller than in such a community as our own. It is, moreover, tolerably easy to estimate the number of lawyers who can earn a fair living by the practice of the profession alone. The num-

ber of positions in the civil service which are open to the educated lawyer in Prussia, and the number of "livings" from law practice, amount, according to our author, to about eight or nine thousand, about four hundred of which become vacant each year. The universities and courts are now turning out yearly about eight hundred and sixty assessors, as those are termed who have completed the second examination, making about four hundred and sixty more than can find positions in the Government service or openings in a practice. The author concludes that the number of students should decline by at least six or eight hundred before supply and demand will be fairly equalized.

Prof. Schulte concludes his article with the statement that certain measures, which, in the opinion of all who have studied the question, are imperatively necessary, should be immediately taken to check the enormous attendance. These measures he indicates to be (1) the lengthening of the period of university study by at least a half, and better by a whole, year; (2) the adoption of some means to secure the actual attendance of students at the lectures. The best means to do this would be to hand over the first examination entirely to the universities, so that the examiners in this test should be the professors themselves. A second means would be to introduce an examination at the end of the second year, and make the passing of it the condition of being promoted to the third year of the course. It is significant that both these changes would be in the direction of our American college system.

It may seem strange to an American that such universal complaints come to us from Germany that there are too many students at the universities; but such facts as are here given us make it clear why it should be so. If a man spends the years of his life from the sixth to the twenty-ninth in preparing himself for one career, he is very likely to be unfit for any other; and if there is no place for him in the one he has chosen, he is likely to make a poor showing in another calling where he must compete with men who have spent all the years he has given to the law to the work of preparation for that particular branch. A system which requires for each calling a special and long-continued technical training, is also a system in which a man cannot go from one branch to another: having been educated for one thing, he must stick to it. It is easy to see how, under such circumstances, a calling may be easily overcrowded without any hope of relief except by the comparatively slow process of discouraging young men from entering the preparatory stages. This is the state of things in Germany to-day, and the Government is actively exerting itself to discourage attendance at the universities. Another interesting fact about the German university is the class of considerations which determines whether a student shall enter one faculty or another. Unpleasant reflections are often made upon the devotion to the material side of life which is supposed to be characteristic of the American; but it may fairly be doubted whether any higher institution in the world affords a better example of a pure and undying devotion to the bread-and-butter aspects of life than a German university, where the mass of students rush this way or that, taking up law, medicine, theology, or teaching, indifferently, according to the prospect of finding Government employment soonest in one branch or the other. The only difference between Germany and other countries is that the Government of the former, with a wise foresight for the ideal side of life, has made a bread-and-butter employment of devotion to pure science, and has connected with this pursuit substantial rewards which are not to be had in other countries, and which have brought it about that Germany now stands at the head of modern nations in nearly every line of scientific achievement.

THE IRISH HURLY-BURLY.

LONDON, May 13, 1886.

Is Mr. Gladstone riding for a fall, or is he going to save the second reading of his Irish Government Bill by some great stroke of policy at the last moment? Such is the problem on which every political mind is now at work. Your readers may perhaps be weary of following the turns and changes of this home-rule debate, but there is nothing else in which our people can be induced to take any interest. Bills which at any other time would have raised debates of some importance drag wearily through their successive stages; and on the nights appropriated to private members the House of Commons is counted out as a matter of course. Lord Rosebery is working away at the irrepressible "claims of Greece," not without credit to himself; but his proceedings are hardly noticed by the active politicians who used to rouse the echoes of Willis's Rooms in the days when the Eastern question *was* a question for every elector. Troubles are not wanting in Burmah; there is a new fishery dispute (not a very serious dispute, I hope) in Canada; but these matters will hardly find their way into the question paper of the House of Commons until we know what is to happen to the Irish bills. All the prophets had made up their minds that the Prime Minister would make any effort and almost any concession to procure the acceptance of the principle of home rule. Mr. Chamberlain had formed his own estimate of the price that would be offered for his support. But all forecasts were falsified by Mr. Gladstone's speech of Monday night. He offered no concession; he made no special effort to convince or conciliate anybody except Lord Hartington—the one Liberal adversary whose vote is not to be had on any terms. As for Mr. Chamberlain, he was simply ignored; at one point he was brought within the scope of Mr. Gladstone's argument, but not by any personal reference; only by a backward wave of the hand which seemed to recognize him as a feature in the political landscape. This is not what Mr. Chamberlain is accustomed to, and he expresses his feelings and his intentions with even more than his usual frankness.

What does it all mean? It may mean that Mr. Gladstone feels that he has the country with him, and that he hopes to overcome the Liberal opposition, not by persuasion, but by the threat of having them ruled out of the party. Or it may mean that he no longer hopes to overcome; that he wishes to provoke defeat. If the Irish-Government Bill is rejected, he will be able to choose between several policies, any one of which affords him a hope of ultimate success. He may advise the Queen to dissolve Parliament. It is true that her Majesty is not bound to act on the advice; the constitutional rule is tolerably clear on this point, and it was laid down with emphasis by Mr. Gladstone himself in 1873. But if the Queen should prefer to send for Lord Hartington or Lord Salisbury, and if either of these gentlemen should undertake to form a Government, the dissolution must come, and that before long. Meantime Mr. Gladstone might hold the balance of power in the House of Commons, while enjoying leisure enough to make a series of great speeches out of doors in favor of home rule, and so to prepare a triumph for himself at the general election. Supposing (not a very extreme supposition) that the Queen is not strongly disposed to favor Mr. Gladstone and his bill, she may perhaps think it wise to dissolve. The Liberal party is now in complete confusion, and the Gladstonian section of the party could hardly succeed in ousting all the good Liberals who oppose the bill. The transfer of the Irish vote would not quite make up for the loss caused by internal divisions; and if there were a loss of twenty or thirty seats to the Liberals, they would still have a majority, but they would have sustained a moral defeat sufficiently marked to justify the Lords in rejecting or modifying any measure of home rule. But the chance of a moral defeat for Mr. Gladstone, if we suppose it to be an inducement to dissolve, ought not to prevail against the strong reasons which forbid a dissolution in the middle of the first session of a new Parliament, and in the busiest season of the agricultural year.

The delays and doubts of British parties are putting a severe strain on the patience of the Irish members, and they are bearing the strain very well. In private as in public they take a rational and moderate tone; they seem to be sincerely desirous of putting an end to the long struggle in which they are engaged, and if they obtain a separate legislature, I believe they will do their best to make it work. They admit that the provisions, and especially the financial provisions, of Mr. Gladstone's bill are likely to cause serious difficulties; but they hold that difficulties may be overcome if Englishmen will only go a little way to meet the spirit that will be evoked in Ireland by the concession of independence. One member from Munster assures me that an "incalculable effect" has been produced on popular opinion in his neighborhood by the mere promise of home rule. He added a remark which is worth recording: "You must not think," he said, "that the Irish people follow a constitutional question as you follow it. They care very little for all this discussion about powers and limitations; if you give them something they can call a Parliament, why, you may draw its powers yourself, and they won't object." While the Parnellites display the cheerful moderation of a winning party, the Ulstermen are in a state of dangerous excitement. It is certain that some of them are buying gunpowder, and sensational newspapers do their best to aggravate the dangers of the situation by talking loud nonsense about civil war. It is very unlikely that there will be anything to call war; but it is quite possible that there may be firing of shots. For some time past the people who buy up old Government rifles have found a market in Ireland, and especially in Ulster. The Protestant farmers have become accustomed to attend political meetings with rifles and revolvers; and when Lord Iddesleigh was in Ireland he had to caution his friends against firing off their guns "in the lightness of their hearts." And now the editors of certain London papers are doing their best to persuade these excitable persons that if they rise against a Parnellite Parliament, Lord Wolseley, and Lord Charles Beresford, and a host of loyal officers will throw up their commissions to join the revolt. According to credible witnesses, the two noble lords specially named have used very strong language about the Irish Government Bill and its author, and about their own Parnellite countrymen. But before we have time to construct an Irish legislature they will probably see cause to moderate their zeal for the Union, and they may even do good service by showing their friends in Ulster what exactly is meant by war, and what responsibility rests on those who begin it.

In the eighteenth century, members of the House of Commons, if they travelled beyond the history and constitution of their own country, drew their examples and warnings from classical antiquity. In our day it is the fashion to refer to the laws of foreign countries and the policy of foreign statesmen. This home-rule controversy is constantly enlivened by the introduction of side issues from every unexpected quarter. Why

were Holland and Belgium separated in 1830? Is the present Constitution of Austria-Hungary a success? and (a question some omit to ask) what *is* the Constitution of Austria-Hungary? Does federal government work well in the United States? This last question receives various answers, according to the taste and fancy of the individual debater. Politicians of the Chamberlain school assure us that it works admirably, combining the maximum of national dignity with the maximum of local independence. Anti-federalists assure us that the system produces confusion and over-legislation; that no country can provide fit men for two sets of representative bodies. We are also told that the federal system gives too much importance to lawyers and to the legal element in politics. Our own experiments in constitution-building do not seem to help us much in the present difficulty. We know how to establish a self-governing colony; but then no British statesman will admit that Ireland can ever become as independent as New Zealand. We have tried our hands at confederation in Canada; but then it is just a little doubtful how far the experiment has succeeded. There certainly has been a good deal of litigation between the Dominion and the provinces; Quebec has more than once pursued what Scotch theologians call "divisive courses." Nova Scotia, which has welcomed Mr. Gladstone's bill with effusion, is itself in the act of proposing to secede from the Confederation. All these cases are now more or less in point, and they are cited freely on all sides. If this controversy has no other practical result, it will at least have made considerable additions to the legal and historical knowledge of our people. R.

THE HOME-RULE MOVEMENT.—I.

ITS STRENGTH.

OXFORD, May 13, 1886.

THE revolution in England moves apace. But a month has passed since my last letter, and the movement for home rule has already entered on a new stage. My present object is to analyze, as dispassionately as may be possible to an opponent, the causes to which that movement owes its strength. In my next communication I shall say something of its weakness.

1. The primary condition on which depends the success of Mr. Gladstone's new policy is a peculiar state of English opinion.

For the first time in the course of our history our national policy is under the influence, not so much of democratic convictions, as of a much more formidable thing—democratic sentiment. Every idea which can rightly or wrongly be called popular, commands, even among persons who think themselves Conservatives, a ready assent. Hence (be it at once admitted) flow some of the best characteristics of our age. Hence the detestation of inhumanity; hence the growth of the conviction that property has at least as many duties as rights; hence the faith that by some means or other the toiling multitudes ought to share in the prosperity which is due, in part at least, to their ceaseless labor. Hence, too, arise a host of dubious, not to say ignoble, ideas, as that the voice of the majority is the voice of God; that it is useless to struggle with any prevalent phase of opinion; that any body of persons who claim to be united by a sentiment of nationality have an inherent right to be treated as an independent nation. It were needless to explain how the currency of democratic sentiment tells in favor of home rule. It is, however, worth pointing out that democratic ideas at the present day exert far less influence from any enthusiasm they excite, than from their singular capacity for dissolving the convictions by which the claims of every kind of revolutionists are opposed. The argument that if Irish householders had votes, the majority of the United Kingdom must concede anything which the majority of Irish householders desire, is logically absurd; but, combined with other causes, it convinced a Conservative Government that in Ireland the executive was under no obligation to enforce the law of the land. The most curious, however, and the most alarming feature of the situation is the way in which democratic sentiment blends in the minds of modern Englishmen with feelings of a much less respectable order. Dislike of trouble, hatred to the performance of arduous political duties, indifference (one is constrained to add) to ordinary commonplace ideas of law and justice, are at the present moment influencing both members of Parliament and, it may be feared, the electors on whose wishes the conduct of members of Parliament depends. It is hardly too much to say that half the arguments used by politicians in favor of home rule amount simply to this: that five hundred and odd English gentlemen cannot be expected to resist the continuous pressure of the eighty-six Parnellites. Respectable members of Parliament yield, to the terror of being bored, what their fathers would not concede to armed rebellion.

2. No foreign observer can fully appreciate the immense influence exerted by Mr. Gladstone's personality. He represents in his person in a very singular way the best and the worst features of the sentiment of the day. He is also one of the few modern politicians who possess the energy which characterized the statesmen of the last generation. When you add to this that he is, to use his own language, an "old Parliamentary hand"—that is to say, a thoroughly trained and very skilful party manager—you understand part, at least, of the sources of his influence; but there is a good deal more in this influence than it is easy to sum up in a few words. High personal character has at all times told very strongly on the imagination of Englishmen. It was admittedly quite as much the superior morality as the genius of Chatham and his son which made the two Pitts the heroes of England. George the Third, with all his dulness and his cunning, was a popular idol because he was the "Good old King"; and Mr. Gladstone is to the electors the "good man" of English politics. In part by his merits and great powers, in part also, in my judgment, by his genuine sympathy with some of the weaker sides of English sentiment, Mr. Gladstone has obtained a hold on popular feeling which he can hardly lose. Fickleness, as Macaulay pointed out long ago, is not really the vice of the people. The masses cling to their idols; it is more doubtful whether they choose the objects of their admiration with perfect discretion. But the influence of the Premier is, it is fair to remember, due to a great extent to a circumstance independent of either the merits or the defects of his character. Modern democracies, in Europe at least, show a marked tendency, which is not in all respects a bad one, to place more store by persons than by principles. The people (they feel) can judge of a man's character; they cannot judge of his policy. The result is, that the one predominant idea which sways the conduct of thousands of electors is that Mr. Gladstone's policy must be supported simply because it is Mr. Gladstone's. No sensible person doubts that his present policy would not have had a hearing if proposed by any other politician. Few cool observers can, I suspect, doubt that if Mr. Gladstone were to vanish from the political arena, two-thirds of his followers would hasten to explain that they had never meant to favor home rule. I can easily believe that the Prime Minister himself would admit the difficulties besetting his policy far more readily than would his followers. It is quite possible that Mr. Gladstone is not a Gladstonian.

3. Many persons who are neither swayed by sentiment nor victims to the disease of Gladstonianism, are so impressed, and naturally enough, with the failure of all past attempts to govern Ireland; they are so disgusted with the weary round of concession following on coercion, and coercion again succeeding to concession, that they are willing to try almost any experiment which may give a chance of closing the secular feud between Great Britain and Ireland. This feeling harmonizes well with the kind of political hopelessness which prevails among many of the educated classes. Mr. Gladstone is the most sanguine of optimists; it is quite natural that he should exert exaggerated power over men who feel their own lack of hope. A moralist or statesman may condemn all forms of despair; but it is the merest justice to persons who are not likely to receive just treatment from partisans of any class, to recognize the fact that Mr. Gladstone's proposals are supported by men, who appreciate its dangers, because they see in it at least a chance of making a new departure in our Irish policy. Nothing is so idle as to suppose that statesmen such, for example, as Lord Spencer, are influenced by the spirit of vanity or affection. They may be taking a leap in the dark, but they are taking it to escape from what they deem to be an untenable and intolerable position.

4. English parties, and especially the Liberal party, have of recent years been organized on a plan which approaches the American model. We have our caucuses, our managers, our wire-pullers—in short, our "machine." At the present moment the Machine, as far as the Liberal party is concerned, is worked wholly in Mr. Gladstone's interest. There is no need of explaining to the citizens of New York all that this means, but they will easily perceive that the fact of Mr. Gladstone's supporters being in command of the party mechanism greatly favors the movement for home rule, or indeed any movement which may be identified with the name of the Prime Minister. One curious result, however, of our new party organization may escape the attention of American observers. A new element of uncertainty is added to the numerous difficulties of ascertaining the true set of opinion among the electors. No one knows how far the resolutions of so-called public meetings do or do not express the feeling of the public. It is impossible to tell how far machine-made opinion may not pass current for the genuine article. In any case, members of Parliament are rendered extremely nervous about their seats should they oppose the party, and the party is at this moment identified with Mr. Gladstone. Here, however, I am nearly touching upon the weakness as well as the strength of the home-rule movement, and that topic I purposely reserve for my next letter.

A. V. DICEY.

THE DUC DE BROGLIE'S RECOLLECTIONS.

PARIS, May 6, 1886.

THE publication of the 'Souvenirs' of the late Duc de Broglie, the father of the present Duke, has begun. One volume has appeared, and I hear that it will be followed by the publication of two others. Among the men who have played some part in the affairs of their time, few have resisted the temptation to write such memoirs: "Ecce enim breves anni transeunt, et semitem per quam non revertar ambulo." The biographical notes which are now published were written when the Duc de Broglie was already advanced in years; they have not the form of a journal, you do not feel in them the spur of the occasion. They are wanderings over the past, but what a past!—the French Revolution, the Empire, the return of the old dynasty. The preface is written in a grave, solemn style:

"I have lived more than seventy years, I have gone through an epoch of disorders, of misfortunes, of crimes. God has spared me neither misfortunes nor defeats; he has given me the grace never to ignore the wisdom of his ways, nor the excellency of his works. I love life. 'Je l'aime et la cultive,' says Montaigne, 'telle qu'il a plu à Dieu nous l'octroyer.' I enjoyed it in my infancy, in my youth, in my middle age; I enjoy it still in my old age, mildly and gratefully. I regret nothing of what the progress of years has successively taken from me. I feel that, if we live long, we gain definitively more than we lose; and if we can belong to our age and to our time, as fast as the exterior man gets destroyed, the inner man gets renewed."

The Duc de Broglie was not a pessimist of the modern school, a misanthrope. He had a certain sort of serenity which came partly from good health, partly from self-contentment, partly from philosophy. I saw him in the latter part of his life, under the Second Empire. He was out of active politics, but he kept his interest in all the events of the time. He was much occupied with philosophical speculations, and saw the affairs of the world from those *templa serena* of which Lucretius speaks. He liked to speak in aphorisms, and when he had hit on a good one, he rehearsed it frequently. I heard him once, speaking of the policy of Napoleon III., at the time of the *Coup d'état*, when the future Emperor was coquetting at the same moment with the Socialists and with the Conservatives, say pointedly: "He says to the wicked, 'I am with you,' and to the good, 'I protect you.'" He was so pleased with this formula that he repeated it, as it were to himself, three or four times.

The Duc de Broglie was born in Paris, November 28, 1785. His grandfather was Marshal of France and Governor of Metz. His father was only thirty years old, and was Colonel of the regiment of Bourbonnais; he had, three years before, in 1782, joined the army commanded by Rochambeau in the United States. His regiment had reëmbarked for an expedition against Jamaica, and had returned to France after the signing of the peace. A manuscript of the journal of Colonel de Broglie exists among the papers of the family. The Colonel married a lady of Swedish extraction, who had large estates in Alsace, where her family had been established since the Thirty Years' War. Judging from the picture of her which is at Broglie, she was a person of great beauty.

The Marshal emigrated at the beginning of the Revolution. His son, who had adopted liberal ideas, remained in France, and was a member of the Constituant Assembly. He afterwards joined the army of the Rhine, under Luckner; he had himself Desaix, then a mere lieutenant, as his aide-de camp. His brothers, who had joined the Marshal, disavowed him, and would have no further communication with him. He was, nevertheless, ill looked upon by the Jacobins: he lost his command, and was finally arrested. He died on the Revolutionary scaffold June 27, 1794; his wife, who was reserved for the same fate, succeeded in making her escape from prison and fled to Switzerland, through the mountains of the Jura. She returned to France after the ninth Thermidor. Young Broglie had found a second father in M. d'Argenson, and received, during those terrible years, such an education as could then be received in France. He was capable of learning from events and things as well as from books; his mind was very receptive, and his character acquired in infancy a strength which it always preserved. When he was in Paris, he saw the remains of the old society mixed with the lights of the new society; all social distinctions seemed to have been lost in blood. As a very young man he made the acquaintance of Mme. de Chevreuse (who was afterwards exiled by Bonaparte), of Talleyrand, of M. de Narbonne, of the Suards, who received in their salon the Abbé Morellet, Garat, Daunou, Ginguené, the latest philosophers.

The first time he saw Bonaparte was in the garden of the Tuileries "giving his right arm to Bourrienne, keeping under his left arm a little Turkish sword: thin, slender, with a yellow complexion and a wild look." He saw him again at the château of the D'Argensons, when the Emperor was on his way to Spain. "All was changed: the bust was short and fat, the little legs fleshy; the complexion sallow, the forehead bare, the face cut like a Roman medal." Nobody, at the time, understood Spanish affairs, and the Duc de Broglie seemed to think that Napoleon himself had no idea what he was going to do at Bayonne. "He had surely prepared the trap, but he did not know exactly how much prepotency, wickedness, and perfidy would be necessary to attain the end." He describes very vividly the unexpected arrival, some time afterwards, of the King of Spain, of the Queen, and of the Prince de la Paix, who were sent, as prisoners, to Fontainebleau. The house of M. d'Argenson marked one of the halts of the royal party. The prisoners arrived in the same carriages which had taken Philip V. to Spain, enormous gilded carriages, with glasses on all sides, more fit for gala ceremonies than for a long journey; "and this was Spain, was the house of Bourbon!" The King was tall, bald, strong-looking, but merely strong in body. The Queen looked a very clean, nice little old body, dignified and reserved:

"Then came out of the carriage the Prince de la Paix, whom we have seen so long in Paris, a sort of cross between the butler and the *chasseur*. . . . The King did not stay a minute in the apartment which had been prepared for him; he walked incessantly in the château and in the gardens, shouting, 'Godoy, Godoy!' He would not lose sight of his favorite, and he finally established himself with him in the billiard room. . . . The Queen remained in her apartment. She received my mother with dignity, gravity, kindness, and put all sorts of royal questions: 'How many children have you? How many boys? How old are they? How long has this château been built?' . . . The name of Napoleon was never pronounced."

Three months afterward came the news of the catastrophe of Baylen.

In 1809 the Duc de Broglie was named *auditor* of the Council of State, and as such was attached to the Ministry of War. He performed various missions to the armies in Austria; he was afterward sent to Spain and again to Warsaw, on a diplomatic mission, of which the Abbé de Pradt was the head. He was attached to M. de Narbonne at the time of the Conference of Prague, and was initiated into all the negotiations which followed the disastrous war of Napoleon in Russia. One day the Emperor was talking with M. de Narbonne of this Russian campaign: "'After all,' said he to M. de Narbonne, who repeated it to me the same evening, 'what does all this cost me? Three hundred thousand men, and in this number there were a good many Germans.'" The Congress of Prague lasted twenty days, but it ended in nothing, and the Duc de Broglie returned to France full of sad apprehensions. He goes rapidly, with a feverish step, over the last days of the Empire, and begins his third book in these words:

"In the night of December 31, 1813–January 1, 1814, the Allies, after having long hesitated, crossed the Rhine between Spire and Bâle.

"January 24, the Emperor left for the army.

"March 31, Paris capitulated.

"April 2, the Senate pronounced the *déchéance*.

"The Emperor abdicated on the 11th.

"Louis XVIII., recalled to the throne, entered France on the 29th.

"May 2, he conceded the general principles of the *Charte* in the declaration of Saint-Ouen.

"The 30th, he opened the two Chambers."

The Duc de Broglie saw these great events as a mere witness: he took no part in the conclaves of the Legitimists. He witnessed the astonishment of the Parisians when they saw the allied armies from the hills of Montmartre and heard the first guns. "Nobody believed in anything, everybody expected everything." The Duc d'Artois arrived, and all the royalists went to see him in the Tuileries; then came Louis XVIII., escorted by the generals and marshals of the empire. "I saw, as a mere *curieux*, the great procession. I followed it from street to street, from boulevard to boulevard, as far as the Tuileries. I think that I am not mistaken if I say that there was a double current—one composed of people like myself, and it was by far the largest, curious, sad, resigned; the other, composed of ardent royalists, limited in number, but noisy and demonstrative." The King looked serious and unmoved; the Duchess of Angoulême was grave. The generals on horseback were visibly agitated and uneasy.

We come now to a curious passage in the memoirs. The Duc de Broglie received an invitation to take a place in the new House of Peers. He had desired to offer himself as a candidate for the House of Deputies, but he was only twenty-nine years old, and by the new law the candidates were to be at least forty years old. "I was not personally prepared for the compensation which was offered to me. It may seem extraordinary, but it is nevertheless true—I had completely forgotten that I was the head of the oldest branch of my family, the heir to the Dukedom of Broglie, and that, as such, since a House of Peers was created, I must necessarily be called to it." The fact is certainly a curious one. During the Empire the Duc de Broglie was merely called the Prince de Broglie; but that he should not have been conscious of his rights, shows how profoundly the French Revolution had mixed all the social elements in France. The Emperor had continued what the Terror had begun. We are living now in 1886, under a third Republic, and the passion for titles has never been so great as I see it. We have now society papers which give the lists of guests at a great party classified as the names are classified in the list of a levée at the Court of St. James—dukes and duchesses first, marquises, counts, viscounts, etc. This is quite an innovation in a country where the ancient rule was "un gentilhomme vaut un gentilhomme," and where mere titles were almost unimportant, except the title of *duc et pair*, which conferred a privilege. It must be supposed that the powers of imagination are very strong. At any rate, the young Prince de Broglie had forgotten in 1814 that he was a duke; his uncle, Prince Amédée, who was a friend of the Prince de Condé, remembered it, and so the unconscious Duke received a letter which summoned him to the Tuileries. "I found myself," says he, "transported suddenly, by the mere flow of events, to the first rank in society and in the state. I had not deserved it by my services; I had not made myself unworthy of it by my feelings, my language, and my conduct. There remained nothing for me to do but to use well this unexpected good-fortune."

At this very moment the Duc de Broglie was preparing to marry the daughter of Mme. de Staël. He tells us, at the end of his first volume, the history of Mme. de Staël during the Empire; of her return to France, with her son, her daughter, with M. Rocca, her second husband, and with Wilhelm Schlegel. He draws a portrait of this celebrated person, which is full of life, and of a warm and enthusiastic admiration. Her salon was the rendezvous of all the illustrious strangers whom the Restoration had drawn to Paris. The Duc de Broglie became acquainted there with the Duke of Wellington, with Canning, Sir

James Mackintosh, Humboldt; with Chateaubriand, M. de La Fayette, Benjamin Constant. During the "Hundred Days" she left Paris. The Duc de Broglie remained, and he describes all the incidents of this dramatic period which came under his eyes.

Correspondence.

CABINET OFFICERS ON THE FLOOR OF THE HOUSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to call your attention to a bill now before Congress which, though of considerable importance, has not attracted the attention and discussion which it deserves. I refer to the bill giving Cabinet officers seats in the House of Representatives. It was introduced many months ago by Mr. Long, of Massachusetts, and was referred to the Select Committee on Reform in the Civil Service, where it now lies, and where it will continue to lie unless there is some popular agitation for or against it. The subject is an interesting one, and has been much talked of for many years by the public-spirited; and as it is now before the country in proper form, we should at least have a discussion of it, and find out what the wise and learned have to say.

The bill is in the following words:

"*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled*, That the Secretary of State, the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, the Secretary of the Interior, the Attorney-General, and the Postmaster-General shall be entitled to occupy seats on the floor of the House of Representatives, with the right to participate in debate on matters relating to the business of their respective departments, under such rules as may be prescribed by the House."

It will be observed that the bill gives members of the Cabinet seats in the House of Representatives, and the right to debate and answer questions, but not the right to vote. It might be said that the privilege should not be confined to the House, and that the Cabinet officers should be given seats in the Senate also. But this is matter for amendment and may be passed by here, as I am at present concerned only with the main issue of the question. The bill is clearly constitutional. The Constitution says that "each house may determine the rules of its proceedings"; and it has always been the custom for Congress to give the privilege of its floor to whomsoever it pleased. Nor is the bill a violation of the clause in the Constitution which says that "No person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office." A Cabinet officer with only the privilege of the floor cannot be called a member. He has neither the right to vote, nor freedom from arrest, nor any of the essentials of membership.

It is to be further observed that the bill does not make the members of the Cabinet hold their offices at the pleasure of Congress. In other words, there is no resemblance to the English system of a responsible ministry. In England, the Cabinet resign as soon as a majority of Parliament is opposed to their plans and policy. But our Cabinet officers will, under the change proposed, hold their positions whether Congress is with them or against them. In England the legislative and executive departments are merged, and the executive is simply a committee of the legislature. But it is a fundamental principle of our form of government to keep the legislature distinct from the executive. To have our Cabinet officers go in and out at the pleasure of a majority of Congress would require an amendment to the Constitution. The object of the present bill is simply to make the means of communication between Congress and the departments more convenient. Communication is now carried on between them by resolutions calling for information, and the information is furnished in writing: when mismanagement is suspected, an investigating committee is appointed, which takes testimony in secret and reports to the House. Congress cannot obtain easily from the departments the information which is necessary to intelligent legislation, and the heads of departments have no say, except by lobbying, in legislation which concerns their work. But if the Cabinet officers have seats in Congress, information will be obtained more readily and accurately, and, what is of still greater importance, openly, before the whole country. By the questions put to members of the Cabinet on the floor of Congress and their answers thereto, the people will be kept constantly informed of the doings of the Administration. There will also be an additional check on the Government, and frauds when suspected will be more easily traced and punished. The Administration, in its turn, will have the opportunity of defending itself openly before the people, and of exercising a salutary influence on legislation. Neither legislature nor executive will gain power at the expense of the other, but the power of each to check the other will be increased; and this is in exact accord with the theory of the Constitution.

There recently appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly* a very able article entitled "Ministerial Responsibility and the Constitution," in which the writer took for granted that there was a movement on foot to introduce a responsible ministry in this country, and then he proceeded to prove that it was in violation of the Constitution, and would, by merging the executive and legislature into one and making Congress all-powerful, destroy our principle of balanced powers of government. He succeeded in this most admirably, and showed himself a good constitutional lawyer and a valuable citizen. But he wasted his excellent ammunition and soiled his gun all for nothing. He fired at a phantom of his own creation. No one has any intention of setting up a responsible ministry in the United States, and there is no bill for that purpose before Congress. Such a thing could only be accomplished by an amendment, and an amendment of that sort could not be carried. F. G. S.

May 18, 1886.

TEXT-BOOKS IN CHEMISTRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an article on text books of chemistry, which appeared in your last issue, there occurs a passage which calls for an explanation from me. It is this: "Mr. Shepard makes Dr. Remsen appear as a quasi-godfather to his book. Our surprise at this, and belief that in some way Dr. Remsen's apparent endorsement must be due to a misapprehension on the part of Mr. Shepard, are strengthened by the publication, after a short interval, of an elementary text-book by Dr. Remsen himself."

I beg to say that Mr. Shepard has said nothing which he was not fully justified in saying. At the request of Messrs. Ginn & Heath, I some time ago consented to examine Mr. Shepard's book in manuscript, and afterwards I agreed to make such changes and additions as I thought were called for. It seemed to me that the book was likely to prove useful in showing teachers how they could keep their pupils profitably at work in the laboratory from the beginning of their study. The lesson taught by the book is that chemistry can only be learned in the laboratory, and that the book is only a guide to experimental work; and this is a lesson which certainly needs to be taught above all others in chemistry.

As to the fact that "after a short interval" an elementary book by myself appeared, I have to say only this, that I did not begin my book until I had had a free correspondence with Mr. Heath and Mr. Shepard, and they had expressed themselves in the most friendly way in regard to the proposed work.—Yours very truly,

Ira Remsen.

Johns Hopkins University, May 24, 1886.

A BAD LOT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Bear's statement (*Nation*, No. 1089, p. 393) about the character of the Irish majority—"a crowd of Fenians, priests, rogues, and paupers"—puts me in mind of the late Jones McCarthy in the 'Dodd Letters': "He loved his country, and it was a treat to hear him praise it. 'Oh,' he would say, 'there's but one blot on her. The Judges is rogues, the Government's rogues, the Grand Jury's rogues, and the people is villains.'"

Bear-ing the Irish stock, isn't it?

Respectfully, F. H. S.

Springfield, Mo., May 19, 1886.

A HAPPY THOUGHT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me through the *Nation* to make a suggestion for the settlement of the labor question and the solution of the silver problem, believing it will commend itself to all who are logical in thought and Christian-like in desire. The suggestion is this: Pay the eight-hours workmen with the eighty-cents dollar. Y.

Notes.

'Cut,' a West Point novel, by G. I. Cervus, author of 'White Feathers,' is in the press of J. B. Lippincott Co.

'Aspirations,' a story by Helen Hays, will be issued this week by Thomas Whittaker.

Harriet Martineau's 'The Peasant and the Prince,' edited with notes for schools, and a new edition of James M. Whiton's 'Six Weeks' Preparation for Reading Cæsar,' are announced for next month by Ginn & Co.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will publish directly 'The Labor Question in America,' by Prof. Richard T. Ely; and 'A Vital Question; or, What is to be Done?' from the Russian of N. G. Tchernishevsky, by Nathan Haskell Dole.

The title of Miss Macfarlane's forthcoming novel, 'Children of the Earth,' is said to be derived from *Rosencrantz's* reply to *Hamlet's* inquiry of him and *Guildenstern*, "How do ye both?" The scenes are laid on the shores of Nova Scotia and in New York society.

Mr. William Archer, the author of 'English Dramatists of the Present Day,' and one of the most careful and acute of English dramatic critics, is collecting certain of his magazine papers into a volume, 'About the Theatre,' to be published by T. Fisher Unwin.

As a private souvenir of a long-shore cruise from Boston to Mt. Desert in a steam yacht, the 'Log of the *Ariel* in the Gulf of Maine' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.) would be safe from criticism. Much taste has entered into the embellishment of it, and an expenditure of money probably sufficient to have made it at once more valuable and less costly to a circle of readers not specially interested in the small party and their insignificant adventures. If, for example, instead of drawings from photographs, we had had photogravures like the frontispiece showing the

Ariel from the original negatives, the book would have been better worth preserving. The owner is to be thanked, however, for an appendix frankly revealing the qualities and dimensions of his yacht, her accommodations and boilers, so that other like-minded voyagers may profit by his experience.

The maps of the United States at the close of the Revolution, in giving the Western claims which formed the basis of the cessions of the several States, assign to South Carolina a narrow strip west to the Mississippi River, affording a problem to the historical student which he is seldom tempted to solve, in view of the insignificance of the strip in question. Mr. W. R. Garrett, in his 'History of the South Carolina Cession and the Northern Boundary of Tennessee' (Tennessee Historical Society Papers; Nashville: Southern Methodist Publishing House, 32 pp.), has given a lucid and interesting account of the matter—in which, however, we note an apparent discrepancy of dates: "Mar. 8 of the same year" (p. 10) should, we think, be 1787; but the last date mentioned was 1786. On the same page Mr. Garrett corrects an error of Hildreth, who says that the lines described in the South Carolina cession "included nothing," whereas they were "valid, though useless, claims," embracing a strip twelve miles wide. The historical importance of this act is in its being the first cession of southwestern lands, and being probably designed to exert a moral pressure upon the neighbor States. The North Carolina cession followed in 1790, that of Georgia in 1802. The paper upon the northern boundary of Tennessee is longer, but is more a matter of detail and merely local interest.

Apropos of the recent call in these columns for an improved English Grammar, a correspondent writes us from Detroit that Sill's 'Practical Lessons in English' (A. S. Barnes & Co.) fills the bill, and has stood the test of the class-room.

Every one understands that no one who begins drinking desires or expects to become a drunkard, nor indeed at the first believes that he can be harmed by his pleasure. Such is not the opinion of many students, and Dr. A. B. Palmer, in the 'Temperance Teachings of Science' (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston), without passion shows the risks that the moderate as well as the immoderate drinker runs. This is a temperate presentation of a controversy sometimes waged with more zeal than kindly discretion.

In 'A Text-Book of Nursing,' modestly said to be compiled, by Clara S. Weeks (Appleton), there is an amount of good sense and clearly expressed precious information that rarely is found between the covers of one book of its kind. Probably its greatest value will be in the education of mothers and daughters who cannot be trained nurses, and who know that sickness must come into their families; but in the training of professional nurses and as a book of reference it will hold no mean place. "Air cannot be renewed by disinfecting it, any more than it can be disinfected by deodorizing"; "The use of a feather bed is nearly equivalent to putting the patient into an immense poultice"; "Cleanliness takes precedence in a hospital ward of all the other virtues"—are random extracts showing one face of its teaching. Besides being indexed, and having a glossary of unaccustomed words, it is followed by a copious body of questions that emphasize and give point to the teaching.

Shepard & Johnston, Chicago, send us the 'Library Catalogue and Index,' a blank book, of small quarto shape, arranged for 1,500 titles, with provision for a full description in each case, including price and position on the shelves. The index tracks the book by its author, and by its subject or title if desired. The scheme speaks for itself.

According to the latest advices, the International Copyright Bill, which is in charge of Mr. James Bryce, was half through committee in the House of Commons, with every prospect of passing. We regret that we can point to no preparations at Washington to put the United States in a position to enter the International Copyright Union. The existence of this Union, however, cannot fail to induce a sentiment in favor of our joining it sooner or later.

The last book of M. A. Loiseau, 'Histoire de la littérature portugaise depuis ses origines jusqu'à nos jours' (Paris: Thorin; Boston: Schoenhof), is a mere compilation. The scanty information dealt out is not taken from original sources; nor does the writer seem to know of the existence of some of the best books on his subject. Even such a work as Ferdinand Wolf's 'Littérature brésilienne' appears not to have been used by him. Except for one or two very vague phrases upon the press in Portugal, M. Loiseau's information stops before 1850, and all that is said about the nineteenth century might be condensed into a couple of pages. Nor are the more ancient periods treated with any precision or completeness. In the chapters on the 'Amadis de Gaule' the writer shows that he has no sources of information more recent than the unreliable work of Baret, which dates back to 1853. Thirty-four pages of matter bunglingly put together, on the 'Origin and Formation of the Portuguese Language,' are intercalated in the course of the work. In these the author shows that he has not used, at least with any profit, the grammar of Diez, which he complacently quotes as one of his sources.

For the eleventh time MM. Édouard Noel and Edmond Stoullig have issued their theatrical yearbook, 'Les Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique' (Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern). It is an invaluable record of the events of the year in Paris. The fault we should find with it is that it is too bulky, and that the same facts might be more briefly recorded to greater advantage. The preface this year is an essay by M. Charles Gounod, called "Considérations sur le Théâtre contemporain," and devoted to a discussion of the present condition of the opera in France. M. Gounod rebukes the star-system, and sneers at the French imitations of Wagner.

Col. Chaillé Long's 'Three Prophets—the Mahdi, Gordon, Arabi' has just been published in Paris in a French translation, and so has Miss O'Meara's 'Un Salon à Paris: Mme. Mohl et ses intimes.'

The volume of collected 'Préfaces et Manifestes littéraires' of Edmond and Jules de Goncourt (Paris: Charpentier) will be accompanied by a bibliography of their writings compiled by M. Maurice Tourneux.

Our mention of the little exercise book, 'The Bridge,' in the Notes of May 13, seems to have been misleading, as it contained an inaccurate statement. It is merely a very small book of difficult exercises, some of them rather puzzling, with not a word of explanation. The first edition, the only one we had seen, was signed Oliver Straightways. A new edition appeared in 1885, increased in size but really much diminished in quantity, signed N. Perini (London: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof). This contains nothing directly bearing on Pseudo-Synonyms, such as *improuver*, which is not 'to improve'; *lard*, which does not mean 'lard,' and similar words.

Although there are not a few books on bookbinding, æsthetic and practical, all book-lovers will gladly welcome a work just announced in France—'La Reliure Moderne, artistique et fantaisiste,' by M. Octave Uzanne (Paris: Édouard Rouveyre; New York: F. W. Christern). M. Uzanne is a writer with whose style readers of *Le Livre* are familiar. 'La Reliure Moderne' is to be abundantly illustrated with plates, both colored and plain, by the Albert-Dujardin process. There will be a special limited edition on Japanese paper signed by author and publisher, for subscribers only.

In a memoir presented last autumn to the Academy of Inscriptions, a curious confirmation of some Chaldean inscriptions is drawn from the petrology of Brittany. They had been interpreted to mean that the stone for the statues of diorite on which they occur had been brought to Chaldea by water, in ships which collected it at the foot of the cliffs on the sea-side. This seemed very unlikely to some critics, who thereupon threw doubts upon the whole system of interpreting Chaldean inscriptions. But last summer M. Heuzey, with this controversy in his mind, happened to visit the diorite rocks on the Bretagne coast, and he saw at once that the disputed interpretation was probably right. Diorite is exceedingly hard, and it is difficult to get off blocks of any size by the usual methods of quarrying. But what man can hardly do, frost and the waves are continually doing. Great pieces become detached and fall down upon the beach or the talus where boats can easily get them in calm weather.

As supplementary to the list of recent philological works of a compendious character, mentioned in a late number of the *Nation*, attention should now be called to two important undertakings of the Strassburg publisher, Karl J. Trübner: 'Grundriss der romanischen Philologie,' to be edited by Gustav Gröber, the well-known editor of the *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie*, and, secondly, a 'Grundriss der germanischen Philologie,' under the editorship of the Freiburg professor, Hermann Paul. With Gröber are associated twenty-six co-editors, specialists of first rank, to whom are assigned severally the various departments and phases of the subject. Names like Tobler, Bartsch, Deecke, Kluge, Schuchardt, and Windisch assure the essential soundness of the work. Of the six parts proposed, the first, comprising 280 pages, has just appeared (price, four marks). With Paul are associated in the editorship of the second-mentioned work men of standing like Sievers, Sweet, Kluge, Noreen, Kögel, Wegener, and Behaghel.

Dr. J. J. Egli, of Zürich, author of a meritorious 'Nomina Geographica,' published in 1872, did much by that work to stimulate research into the origin of geographical nomenclature. He is now publishing in parts, through Friedrich Brandstetter, Leipzig, a 'Geschichte der Geographischen Namenkunde,' which is a bibliography and something more.

In his annual report to the Royal Astronomical Society, Mr. Christie, Astronomer Royal at Greenwich, states that, on the recommendation of the Board of Visitors, the Treasury have sanctioned an important addition to the optical means of the Observatory in the shape of a refracting telescope of twenty-eight inches aperture and twenty-eight feet focal length. This new telescope is to be mounted in place of the old equatorial, the glass of which is thirteen inches in diameter, and which has been the largest instrument possessed by the Observatory for more than a quarter century. Of late years the Royal Observatory has taken the lead in spectroscopic observations of the stars, and the new instrument will make a large increase in the number of stars available for this special work, which relates more particularly to their motion in the line of sight. The construction and mounting of the telescope have been intrusted to Mr. Howard Grubb, the well-known optician and mechanician of Dublin. At the time when the telescope is completed, it will probably rank third or fourth in size among the great telescopes of the world.

The summer courses for practical instruction in chemistry at Harvard University will open

July 5 and close August 14, and will be under the direction of Mr. Arthur M. Comey, of the Chemical Laboratory at Cambridge, to whom applications should be addressed. These courses are designed for all classes of students, but more especially for teachers, and are open to both sexes. Instruction will be given in general chemistry, qualitative analysis, quantitative analysis, organic chemistry, and mineralogy.

—The June *Atlantic* contains the first classical paper that we have seen in the magazines in a long time. It is the story of that attractive man who has come to be considered the most modern of the ancients—the younger Pliny; and so strong is the persuasion of his contemporaneity with the moderns in many essentials, that the writer has felt no impropriety in dubbing him "A Roman Gentleman." The events of his life are profoundly interesting, especially if one reckons among them the incidents of those other noble careers which touched him nearly. How fresh, as if it were of yesterday, does the narrative of the great eruption of Vesuvius in which his uncle made so good an end, still stand out; with what naturalness and charm the figure of the young nephew himself steals upon the page, doing what he could, beside his mother, in his boyish way, "to imitate the gods," and continue his studies unmoved by the black convulsion of nature. Great characters and famous deeds were nigh to him always: Verginius, his guardian, who twice refused the Empire; Arria, and the line, faithful to her, whose one sure inheritance was the death by which they gave the world a memory of stoic virtue worthy to close the Annals of Tacitus; Trajan—but we must leave the story to the authoress, who has dexterously set it in the landscape of Lake Como, and has kept mainly to Pliny himself, refined, humane, philanthropic, the lawyer and administrator, the lover of art and books and men, with the finest respect for women, and a conscience as pure as justice. Somehow we cannot think of this Roman as a "gentleman"; he was (let us not deceive ourselves) of another time. One turns to the true modern age, not without misgiving, where he will certainly find it, reflected in Mr. Lathrop's long review of Balzac. It is the old story—and is it only our fancy that Mr. Lathrop rehearses it with reluctant assent?—how Balzac is "a physiologist in a very literal sense," and we do not "reproach a physiologist for not having an ideal," and that any way Balzac is the Paris of his age. It may be so; but when all is said that can be urged for "the science of novel-writing," we think it a part of man's good fortune that there was no Roman Balzac. A Pliny is enough for what was noble, and the brevity of Tacitus ample for what was infamous. Commend us to such portrayers of life!

—*Harper's*, apart from its serials, its comedy from standard literature of the last century, and its little poems, is predominantly industrial; for one may fairly regard the naval article in that light. This is by Rear-Admiral Simpson, and, with the cuts, it gives a view of our navy and an account of the high perfection to which modern invention has brought the science of the warfare of iron against iron. The paper upon the sugar industry is a complete monograph, like the others of the series to which it belongs, and has a wonderful amount of information regarding the crop, manufacture, and mercantile value of sugar. In certain ways, too, it has a relation to current politics, but only by virtue of some of the facts it contains. There is also a readable contribution from a traveller in the region of the Cumberland Gap, the South being now a favorite hunting-ground for the magazines; and, indeed, there is no country that will better bear exploration with respect to the picturesqueness of the land or the oddity of the inhabitants. The gardening department is conducted by Mr. Roe, whose "Home Acre" is as capacious as Noah's Ark, and has a corner in this number for the vineyard and the orchard. The issue, which is the first of a new volume, seems to emphasize the aim of the magazine to be the favorite of "the home circle" wherever found.

—No one can read without a kindly feeling for the author Mr. J. C. Derby's 'Fifty Years among Authors, Books, and Publishers' (G. W. Carleton & Co.). What succeeds a brief and modest autobiographical introduction is a series of sketches of publishers, authors, and public men with whom Mr. Derby has been brought in contact in his long career. These are unpretentious in form, abound in curious anecdotes, and will be found eminently readable. Mr. Derby learned his trade in Auburn, N. Y., under Mr. Henry Ivison, who afterward became the head of the greatest school-book publishing house in the world. In 1852, with a brother and partner in Buffalo, Mr. Derby engaged in the venture of founding a bookstore in San Francisco, in charge of Mr. Hubert Howe Bancroft, a brother-in-law of Mr. George Derby. Everybody knows what has come of this besides establishing a most profitable publishing-house on the Pacific Coast. An early partner of Mr. Ivison, again, in Utica, was S. Wells Williams, the future Chinese scholar, missionary, and diplomat. Mr. George Derby, on removing from Geneva, N. Y., to Buffalo, left in charge of the business a former clerk, William Orton, afterwards President of the Western Union Telegraph Company. With his neighbor, William H. Seward, at Auburn, and the Conklings, not far off, Mr. J. C. Derby became acquainted through propinquity as well as in the way of business. These names we have selected (and many others might be added from the same pages) as reminders of the part which Central New York has played in the production of the great moral, political, industrial, and financial forces of the present century on this continent. Mr. Derby takes no thought of this in furnishing illustrations of it; but nothing else in all his book has impressed us so much.

—For some unexplained reason, the statistics of the Astor Library for the last library year show a large increase in the number of readers over the former year and any preceding year. This increase occurs among both the general readers and the alcove readers, and perhaps indicates that the library is becoming better known. But such a statement at this period of the library's existence seems a strange reason. Certainly, however, the new day has brought new wants, which the reader finds the Astor able to satisfy; and it is strange, not that so large an increase took place last year, but that, with so valuable a collection, the library's means of accommodating the public, in this large city, were not long ago exceeded. The books there, however, do not appeal to the ordinary reader or the usual lounger of the public library, who could easily be induced to occupy all the vacant room, but to the scholar. Yet the library has always had a large constituency towards whom its relations have been rather charitable than literary; and it will continue to have, probably, till the great city free circulating library is built, which will at once benefit the city in general and the Astor Library (by enabling the latter to concentrate its work more) in particular. According to the president's report, the total number of readers last year was 72,584, while in 1884 it was 59,057. In 1881 the number was 44,123. By the same report, with the superintendent's and the treasurer's, it appears that the number of books bought last year was 5,719, and the whole number added 6,852, not including pamphlets. $24,376 were expended for books and binding. The quick fund of the library is $411,550. This has been supplemented for a number of years by an annual gift of $15,000 from Mr. J. J. Astor for the purchase of books; and this, we understand, does not represent the whole of Mr. Astor's late donations, as the expense of the new catalogue, now printing, is also his special gift. The whole invested fund of the library to date, including increase, is $1,412,374.77, and the whole number of volumes is supposed to be 221,490, an increase of 69,000 in the last ten years. In July the library published a list of the more important accessions for the year, a 12mo volume of 141 pages, making the fifth annual list since 1881. It continued, also, a series which had been published at more frequent intervals since the fall of 1878.

—The great event of the present year at the Astor Library has been the printing of the new catalogue, of which the first volume has just been issued. It makes a very large book of 1,118 pages, and is printed (the main entries) in small pica, a luxurious kind of type and very easy to read. The old catalogue, in four vols., 1857 61, was also printed in this type; but the present volume is far superior in its mechanical arrangements to the former, and presents a more elegant page on account of the omission of the frequent dashes which the older work used to represent the same surname. In the new, every new author's surname, though the same as the preceding, is printed in full. Further, instead of giving initials only, as the old catalogue did, and burying them up in the title, great pains have been taken to ascertain the full names of authors, and print them in the vernacular; and, as authors' names are also printed in capitals, we have at once not only a more varied page than the old catalogue gave, but a greater clearness of page, and consequent ease of consulting it. As to other outside differences, italics in references have not been used, as they were not in the old catalogue, although they had been in the Supplement; and perhaps it would have been better for the sake of added clearness if they had been retained. But (another improvement) while the old catalogue used only one kind of type throughout, in the new, besides capitals for authors' names, the contents of books have been printed in bourgeois, and where this occurs we get a still greater variety of page.

—In what pertains to the science of cataloguing, aside from the mechanical appearance of the book, we notice in the new volume, which has been prepared mainly under the charge of Mr. C. A. Nelson, a closer approach to the uniform rules, as now recommended by the American Library Association, than in Dr. Cogswell's original catalogue, although similar rules were then followed by the British Museum and approved by other eminent cataloguers. Thus, in the matter of anonymous entries, the old catalogue put titles under the first leading word, and this method, combined with a desire to arrange anonymous and often other titles under headings where they would, in the opinion of the cataloguer, be most readily found, led to frequent subject-entries, although in an author-catalogue, and although a subject-index was afterward printed separately. These subject-entries occur rarely in the present volume, which has been made (with a few exceptions, rather survivals from the older work) simply an author-catalogue. One large exception occurs, however, in biographical articles and historical works relating to towns, which are here frequently catalogued under their respective subjects, and are printed in bourgeois. A characteristic feature of the old catalogue, that of printing neither a mere finding-list, nor, on the other hand, a catalogue of bibliographical fulness, has been followed in the present work. A mean title has been given, sufficient to identify

the book, though, of course, not to give all the information contained in the title-page; but this development may well be left to a later subject-catalogue. The old catalogue was often rather loose in transcribing titles, and frequently changed the order of words, etc., in titles for the sake of brevity. In a work whose execution covers so long a time as the present there will probably be found the marks of different hands, but the catalogue undoubtedly conforms much more nearly to the present requirements of bibliographical science than the old. This might have been expected. The old one did a good work in its day, and, as it is not superseded, it will continue to do so. It unlocked to the public the stores of the library very soon after they were collected, as the library was chartered in 1849, and opened in 1854. It contained a great deal of information in the way of contents of collections, and frequently printed these contents under their respective authors. These often required many pages, as may be seen under the headings: Shakespeariana, L. A. Muratori, J. P. Migne, etc. It also had other merits. But the new catalogue has gone further in the work of analysis, as may be seen on referring to the transactions of many learned academies; yet not to the fullest extent, on account of the great bulk to which the catalogue had already swollen. Even here a wise economy has been shown; and instead of printing again contents which other printed catalogues have spread out on their pages, reference is made to them, to the catalogue of the Boston Athenæum, Boston Public Library, etc. The catalogue's bulk is owing, too, partly to the including and consequent superseding of the Supplement printed in 1866. It was a wise proceeding, as well as a generous one, to include the Supplement. It makes the contents of the library all the more accessible. The present volume, which will be followed by three others, records no additions to the library of later date than 1880. A great many books have been added to the Astor Library in the meantime, probably more than 30,000. These are recorded in the card catalogue, and are made much more convenient of reference from the fact that the catalogue drawers will be relieved of the 100,000 cards printed here. It is a fine gift that Mr. J. J. Astor makes with this work to the literary resources of New York city, and it will always remain a noble memorial of his generosity towards this library, which for three generations has been a favorite investment for his family.

—In making photography serviceable to the astronomer, a very serious difficulty was early recognized, in that the achromatic object-glass, as corrected for the ordinary visual rays of light, would not bring to the proper focus the chemical, or actinic rays, by which the sensitive plate was to be affected. If specially corrected for these latter rays, the telescope would be useless as an optical instrument. Rutherfurd was the first to demonstrate, some twenty years ago, that an effective and satisfactory compromise of the two desirable ends was feasible; and his researches showed that any achromatic objective, well corrected for the visual rays, might be readily converted into an effective photographic telescope by simply adding to the outside of the objective a third lens ground to the proper concavo-convex figure. Several photographic telescopes of this pattern have been constructed, and they have generally given satisfactory results. We note the announcement, a fortnight ago, that the great refracting telescope of thirty-six inches aperture, now constructing for the Lick Observatory, is to have its value greatly enhanced by the construction, in this manner, of a third lens, or "photographic corrector," as it is called. The necessary disc of glass in the rough is already made, and the Lick trustees have recently purchased it from the makers, the Messrs. Feil & Mautois, of Paris. The Clarks, who are now well advanced with their work of figuring the object-glass itself, will undertake the grinding and polishing of this photographic lens also. The chief importance of so huge a photographic apparatus will appear from the proportionate size of the original negatives of the celestial objects obtained with it, the diameter of Jupiter and Saturn on the photographic plate being about one-eighth of an inch, while that of the moon will be somewhat in excess of six inches. With the exceptional atmospheric conditions of Mount Hamilton, it may be expected that the very perfect negatives obtainable will admit of proportionate enlargement. The English optician Dollond, by the way, is generally accredited with the invention of that combination of lenses which has been of incalculable benefit to astronomy, known as the achromatic objective; but it appears, from recent inquiries of the Royal Astronomical Society, that Dollond's invention was antedated some twenty-five years by Mr. Chester Moor Hall, a bencher of the Inner Temple. None of the object-glasses made by Mr. Hall are now known to exist, but as late as 1790 there was one mentioned in the *Gentleman's Magazine* as being in the possession of the Rev. Mr. Smith, of Rathbone Place. The presentation to the Society, at its April meeting, of an old legal document bearing the signature of Moor Hall, became the occasion for recalling the facts in the case. There are thought to be materials in existence for carrying the investigation further.

RECENT POETRY.

HEINE says that the image of a nation's future is always to be found in the breasts of its authors, so that the critic who dissects a young poet with a knife sharp enough can easily prophesy the future, as soothsayers used to do from the breasts of slain animals. He adds that he would gladly slaughter a few of these victims, for his own share in the work of divination, but fears that he might behold things which he should not dare to utter. The more modern and American critic fears rather that he may see nothing worth the uttering; but while the older poets continue to publish their latest fruits, even Mr. Stedman will admit that there is something to be said. Just now there is also the peculiar interest that the comparative poetic reputations of two English-speaking nations are trembling in the balance. Now that Emerson and Longfellow are gone, Tennyson and Browning have it all their own way as regards contemporary fame; and the most ardent American will not grudge them precedence over Holmes, Whittier, and Lowell. Let the two great Englishmen die to-morrow, and the same precedence would by no means be conceded to Swinburne and Morris, but the star-spangled banner would assert itself; let all these die, and it is "anybody's race." Meanwhile it is impossible to deny that Browning is holding his own better at seventy-four than Tennyson at seventy-six. Part of the poems in 'Tiresias' are of early date, part are languid; and it is to be observed that in the most vigorous production, "Hands All Round," Lord Tennyson unkindly omits the good-natured verse about America which this song included when first published by Tennyson the Commoner, under the signature of "Merlin," in the London *Examiner;* and as this leaves the volume incomplete, we will take leave to insert the missing passage:

"Gigantic daughter of the West,
We drink to thee across the flood:
We know thee and we love thee best,
For art thou not of British blood?
Should war's mad blast again be blown,
Permit not thou the tyrant powers
To fight thy mother all alone,
But let thy broadsides roar with ours.
Hands all round!
God the tyrants' cause confound!
To our dear kinsmen of the West, my friends,
And the great name of England, round and round."

It is a resounding verse; but, after all, when we compare anything in the volume—except its occasional humor—with such superbly vigorous fruits of advancing years as Browning's "Echetlos" and "Muleykah," it must be owned that the less conservative poet bears his old age better.

The lapse of a few months always brings a harvest of home-born poetic volumes, of which some are easily classed as below mediocrity, others as just reaching that point, and others as deserving especial attention. Among those below what may be called the dead-line of criticism may almost always be included those first volumes which are preceded by a portrait and autograph. For some reason or other, the state of mind which thus protrudes its personal semblance on an innocent public is unfavorable to the writing of good verse. Thus, when Col. John A. Joyce offers his 'Peculiar Poems' (Knox & Co.), illuminated in this way, one is not surprised to find in the preface such an announcement as this: "I do not claim for my lines the imperial flights of Homer, Shakspere, or Edgar Allan Poe, but I do claim some of the simplicity, heart, and love found in Tasso, Goldsmith, Longfellow, and the Carey sisters." And the weary critic can usually construct, out of his inner consciousness, the style of poetry that will follow this claim. Another book of the same class, but more easily pardonable, is 'The Poet Scout: A Book of Song and Story, by Capt. Jack Crawford, late chief of scouts, U. S. Army' (Funk & Wagnalls). The portrait reveals the accustomed length of hair that we associate with the stage frontiersman; and the biography gives some really interesting facts, as that Capt. Crawford never went to school, and was taught to read by the Sisters of Charity, while lying wounded in a Philadelphia hospital after the battle of Spottsylvania. The book itself might well be popular, for it is a dime-novel in verse.

Another type with which the critic becomes gradually familiarized is that to which the thin monthly pamphlets called 'The Perpetual Fire' (Davenport) belong. They are apparently published by their author, and the flame they represent is that of a religious enthusiasm, to which all charm of poetic measure is sacrificed as ruthlessly as in the days of Sternhold and Hopkins. The writer wishes to do good; why, then, should he utterly lay aside all those rhetorical attractions by which alone he can win an audience? Even Moody and Sankey sing; but our author gives us such crude and harsh measures that if he inserted "In the Sweet Bye and Bye," it would be hailed with gratitude. Another constantly recurring type is the Indian or Aztec poem. 'The Inca Princess, an Historical Romance' (Philadelphia: Lippincott), by M. B. M. Toland of San Francisco, is founded on the career of De Soto, and is as melodramatic as many very sensational illustrations can make it, although the verse itself is rather tame. 'Tecumseh, a Drama,' by Charles Mair (Toronto: Hunter, Rose & Co.), is a Canadian work, and is sustained with some vigor, though a little heavy and monotonous. It is hampered, too, like all such plays, by the necessity of having humorous passages, which are here couched in a dialect such as is to be heard nowhere on earth; the furthest eastern and the furthest western Americanisms being intermingled without stint.

The collection in authorized form of Mr. Howells's 'Poems' (Boston: Ticknor) is an interesting fact in literary history, for it shows clearly the path by which he came to that realism on which he is now putting a possibly overstrained em-

phasis. He came to it by the old familiar path of conversion, and his zeal is the proverbial zeal of a new convert. In his poems we have his wild-oats period: crude, diluted, and in the last degree sentimental. There is power in them, as the early development of a man of genius always shows gleams of power; but we fancy him now looking from the heights of his present severer faith and entitling this volume, like Miss Blanche Amory's verses, 'Mes Larmes.' Curiously unlike this uncertain and changing wake thus left behind by Howells's literary voyage is the even keel of Whittier, marking in youth as in age one straight heroic line. His 'Saint Gregory's Guest and Recent Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) might be a reprint of poems of his earlier years, but for the absence of the slavery question from their pages; they have his old-time purity and directness, and his early limitations on the side of musical structure. It is especially delightful to find him following in that broad path indicated in William Penn's 'No Cross No Crown,' and versifying the hymns of the Oriental Brahmo Somaj "as a fresh revelation of the direct action of the Divine Spirit upon the human heart" (p. 64). Compared with this wide receptiveness, even the genial and devout hymns of Rev. W. H. Furness, in his 'Verses, Translations from the German, and Hymns' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), show some of the barriers of the pulpit.

"Firdausi in Exile, and Other Poems,' by Edmund Gosse (Scribner & Welford), produces that general impression of after-dinner confectionery which is so common among the younger London poets. And it is curious that when they essay a bolder strain, they are apt not to ripen, but rather spoil, as in the case of Michael Field, whose exuberant early fruit seems already a little tainted and over-purple. His (or shall we say her?) previous works suggested fear of this, but the three new dramatic poems, included in one volume —'The Father's Tragedy, William Rufus, Loyalty or Love?' (Henry Holt & Co.)—show this writer to be what an English critic, with probably unintentional satire, called "a tragedist"—rather than a tragedian. Nothing above the level of a Bowery theatre ever concentrated so many separate assassinations in a short space as appear at the close of this volume: in one place there are five separate murders or suicides within a page and a half. There is genuine power in these tragedies, but it is the power of the unknown author of 'Titus Andronicus,' not of Shakspere. At intervals there rise above the even surface of English poetry certain poets who attempt a more daring strain—Thomas Lovell Beddoes began this series some forty years ago—but they rarely seem to achieve anything beyond a turgid precocity. Miss A. Mary F. Robinson, who seemed in her 'Dream of Arcadia' to be going in this same direction, with a difference, has changed her course a little, after a visit to Italy, and now appears with a volume of dainty and melodious pessimism, having a heart-break at the foot of every page. It is 'An Italian Garden: A Book of Songs' (Boston: Roberts Bros.). Italy has certainly taught new graces to Miss Robinson; but it is a little tiresome to be called on to weep so constantly with the same poet, especially when that poet is very likely a comfortable Englishwoman with a good digestion and a proper appetite for lawn-tennis and Mudie's Library.

The American volume most in the vein of the mouthing English dramas is 'Sylvain; a Tragedy, and Poems,' by John Philip Varley (Brentano). The author makes one of his characters say of some tenor singer, the subject of conversation, that he "would sing a soft nothing of lunatic words with more mad airs and consummations of frenzy, more heart-beating passions, dilations of the chest, and swellings of the diaphragm, than ever a tom-cat at moonrise with Venus in the ascendant" (p. 18). Such a vigorous characterization shows Mr. Varley at least to sin voluntarily when he does this sort of thing himself; but there is among the smaller poems so much that is fresh and sweet, with just a racy flavor of seventeenth-century imitation, that the reader feels in a most forgiving mood before the end. If mannerism we must have, what an agreeable bit of mannerism is this:

TO ONE BEING OLD.

"Her aged hands are worn with works of love;
Dear aged hands that oft on me are laid;
Her heart's below, but oh, her love's above,
As flowers do sunward turn though in the shade.

"The set of sun is dear that lasts not long,
And she is sweeter far than light that dies;
But if her aged body's weak, she's strong,
Her folly, wisdom in a softer guise.

"The very smile of love is hers, and she
Hath him long known where others knew a shade;
Forget thine eyes, and learn herewith to see
Within this time-worn sheath the snowy blade.

"Upon her lovely cheek there still doth play
A maiden's blush, for her heart grows not old:
Her silver locks go sweetly all astray,
Though silver are her locks, her heart is gold!"
(P. 160.)

While certain English authors show decline, it is pleasant to find a veteran American poet reforming the defects of youth and shedding his mannerisms, even when he does not attain assured greatness. In Mr. William Ellery Channing's small volumes, 'Eliot' and 'John Brown' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.), there is some sustained vigor and an absence of the whimsical. Both are in that somewhat varying blank verse which this poet has often employed, in which many halting or inadequate lines are relieved by continuous passages of much strength and beauty. The two poems are curiously unlike in their themes; Eliot himself being that type so dear to Mr. Channing's kinsmen of an earlier generation, Allston and Dana—the high-minded though erring recluse, who retires from the world and dies in solitude; while the John Brown he paints is the man of to-day, or of the immediate yesterday. There is a strain of Mr. Channing's old power in the conclusion. After painting the types of character with which his hero has been allied in the anti-slavery agitation, he thus draws to a close, his last two lines being as concentrated as Landor's:

"With this host he passed—
All that was acting on life's stage, he passed,
On crowding street, on miscellaneous wain
Towering with luxuries; the Mill whose bleach
Was spun from bloody thread; the Court, the Church,
Where never yet that name of Slave was breathed;
He knew them well; 't was the loud treacherous world
He oft had dreamed of, masking Human Right,
Till one man touch the cords and launch the bark,
With loud acclaim, United Liberty!

"He came; he touched the cords; 'tis done!
The chain is snapt; the vessel leaves the shore."

The name of Mr. Channing naturally suggests that of Poe, his most virulent assailant. A late critic of Poe has pointed out that he has succeeded to the place held first by Byron and then by Swinburne as the patron saint of wilful boys suspected of genius. Mr. Andrew F. Underhill must at some time have belonged to this class, or he would not have begun his little volume of 'Etchings in Verse' (Brentano) by anything so flagrantly Poesque as the following:

"DESOLATION.

"In the kingdom of the gloaming,
Where the days are gray and dim—
Dim, and gray, and pensive;
Where the dead Past's thoughts go roaming
Like the fallen seraphim—
Once I wandered 'neath the lustre
Of a spectral, leaden moon:
'Neath a moon of lurid lustre,
Where the sad lights fade and swoon."
(P. 9.)

This fails to accomplish even a literary desolation. The truth is, that the uncanny and exceedingly unpleasant land where Poe hunted his ghouls and spectres is now closed for ever: it has vanished as completely as the "Great American Desert" of old Western maps, and it is happily useless to try to recover it. Later in the book, after a less successful "Imitation of Byron" (p. 85), Mr. Underhill becomes cheerful and humorous—even this being a relief.

We have often pointed out that, in default of great originality or poetic power, a volume of verse may have a certain value for its local coloring, because it preserves, even imperfectly, the traits or traditions of some particular region; since one poet will hereafter build on another, and every nation needs to be saturated through all its soil with picturesque associations. Thus the 'Songs of Sleepy Hollow,' by Stephen Henry Thayer (Putnams), celebrate what may be called Washington Irving's country; 'Needles of Pine,' a collection of "lines without rhyme," by Charles Wellington Stone (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.), describes the aromatic pine-woods of New England. 'A Bundle of Sonnets and Other Poems,' by Henry Hartshorne (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates), includes Haverford College memorial verses, and has a flavor of the beautiful rural regions of Pennsylvania. 'The Thankless Muse,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), contains a pretty sketch of a New England garden, under the title of "Between the Flowers," and offers also some Yale College verses, not very inspired or inspiring. Mr. Henry Frank, in 'The Skeleton and the Rose, and Gems by the Wayside' (Brentano), has some verses celebrating the charms of Santa Barbara, Cal., and a really thoughtful poem on the old bell of the San Miguel Mission at Santa Fé; while Abraham Perry Miller, in his 'Consolation, and Other Poems' (Brentano), gives his readers the consolation of a commemorative poem on the discovery of St. Anthony's Falls in Minnesota. All these are successful in affording the flavor of some particular locality; but when, in 'America, and Other Poems' (Putnams), Mr. Henry Hamilton tries to do the same thing for a whole nation, he attempts more than he can grasp; and though he begins with a good generous purpose, among the emigrants at Castle Garden, he cannot hold a strain of sufficient compass. The rest of his poems are serious and earnest, but belong too continuously to the class of hymns.

Of American volumes by new poets, not relying mainly on local coloring for their value, we may especially mention three, all suggestive of hope, though not as yet giving absolute performance. The slightest of these three is a thin volume entitled 'In Fruitful Lands' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.), by Minna Caroline Smith, apparently a student in the Harvard "Annex," and who inscribes her work in these modest lines to her would-be Alma Mater:

"TO HARVARD.

"The gracious Muse that crowns each minstrel soul
With hope and faith, bright laurels of her own
That time fades not, has a most joyous tone,
Singing thy future as the season's roll.

"I catch faint music from the coming days,
Nor hear the full, fine rhythm of the song,
But, echoing in the chorus sweet and strong,
Thy daughters join thy sons in love and praise."

Miss Smith shows in several instances—as in her three couplets called "June"—the power, rather unusual with beginners, of concentrating a distinct and vivid thought in a few clear-cut lines. A similar power, displayed in a difficult form, belongs to Miss Louise Brooks, whose 'A Year's Sonnets' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.) is an exquisite piece of bookmaking and a charming series of studies from nature. There is no trace of immaturity except an occasional want of perfect keeping in some symbol, as, in the "stained with mire," in this pretty sonnet:

"APRIL.

"Hark! the frogs' birdlike piping has begun!
To lace-work turns the ice by garden wall,
And the big snowflakes melt before they fall,
And willows with their yellow mock the Sun.
April comes dancing, clad in palest green;
Behind her, a black cloud with fiery rift.
One hand she raises, her blown hair to lift.
And free her heaven-blue eyes that must be seen.
One dainty foot, all bare and stained with mire,
Peeps from her hem heavy with buds unblown,
Half child, half woman: rosy now with fire,
Shrinking again in shade; the world unknown,

To-day all smiles, to-morrow all despair,
Wayward and sweet, uncertain but most fair."

Maturer than either of these, although still a first volume, is the pretty little book called modestly 'Summer Haven Songs,' by James Herbert Morse (Putnams). Those who have heretofore known Mr. Morse only as a scholar or a prose critic, will be delighted at the self-control that has kept back his poetic work until it has taken a form so pleasing and thoughtful. The book is the reverse of sensational: those who look in it for turgid, meretricious verses of the "I am dying, Egypt, dying" type, will be wofully disappointed; but it is a volume for summer havens, as the name indicates—for those who will take it into the country and read it over and over, letting its quiet thoughtfulness sink into their minds, until it becomes a part of their actual summer life. How exquisitely touched, for instance, is this little picture:

"A MEMORY PICTURE.

"There is a scene deep-graven on my mind,
Once tinted with rare colors now half-gone:
On a fair bay, a boat; a merry wind,
Invisible, that thrust it gayly on.

"Along the crimson cushions at the stern
Are boys and merry girls with tell-tale eyes,
With speaking, rosy cheeks that seem to burn,
And lips half-open, framing sweet replies.

"Upon the bows two silent figures stand,
One with a kerchief waving a good-bye;
For this she could not spare her little hand,
Were not that other form so dearly nigh.

"How dull the painter that expressed so much,
Yet lost the thrilling sense of that sweet touch!"
(P. 91.)

Three new volumes have been lately added to the great Goethean library. Sir Theodore Martin gives us the Second Part of 'Faust' (Edinburgh: Blackwood); and neat and careful as his version is, it falls as visibly short of Bayard Taylor's as to give a perpetual feeling of disappointment. It is a curious fact that while there has been a rapid shrinkage, since Taylor's death, in all other aspects of his fame, the admirable merit of his 'Faust' becomes only more and more obvious; and it is clear that his permanent reputation is to be that of a translator and commentator in connection with the one monumental German book. In respect to commentary Martin attempts no rivalry; he indeed gives a few notes toward the close, but they are largely drawn from Taylor. The single advantage of his book will be in its small size and compact shape, making it the most convenient and accessible reproduction in English of the Second Part. The same advantage is not possessed by Mr. Frank Claudy's version of the First Part (Washington: Morrison), inasmuch as this portion of the book is now familiar in English through many different translations, and the external form of this one is rather awkward. It has, however, a peculiar interest, as being the work of a native German, and this after fifteen years of labor. We cannot agree with the glowing circular of the publishers, announcing it as "a splendid translation": but while it is far inferior both in ease and literalness to that of Charles T. Brooks, it has merits of its own. It would be curious to point out, had we the space to give to it, some passages in which the translator gains by his native intimacy with the German, and others where he loses again by his want of the same kind of knowledge of the English. Taking one of these last at random, we find that where Margaret apologizes to Faust for the hardness of her fingers, Mr. Claudy thus assigns the reason:

"What work have I not done! You'd never guess it!
For mother is much too exact." (P. 118.)

The German word here rendered "exact" is *genau*, which indeed means "precise" or "accurate," but quite as often "narrow," "parsimonious," or, in the rustic phrase, "near." Either of these last would have been a far more felicitous rendering; and on referring to Bayard Taylor, we find that he has "close," which expresses substantially the sense we urge. It is possible that Taylor's word and his own seemed substantially equivalent to Mr. Claudy; or, that the words "exact" and "exacting" may have confused themselves a little in his mind. Nevertheless, we accept his version as interesting and illustrative. The third book in this department contains 'The Poems of Goethe' (Holt) rendered by Commander Gibson. It is a thick volume of the smaller poems, and one cannot help respecting the zeal and patience implied in a work so extended and so careful. Commander Gibson had, it seems, the aid of Bayard Taylor in revising some of these; but it must be owned, after all, that the renderings are more remarkable for quantity than quality; and there is a frequent tendency to the prosaic or even the grotesque. To transmute the yearning "Dahin! dahin!" of Mignon's immortal song into "O thither! so" (p. 12) is bad enough; but it is difficult to treat the matter seriously when in another of her songs he gives us—the italics being our own—

"In severance and constraint,
My loved ones mourning,
Ah! I am giddy, faint,
My bowels burning:
Save with such grief acquaint,
None know my yearning."
(P. 347.)

Yet undoubtedly the book is to be welcomed, on the whole, as a most deserving effort. It will be remembered that it is not its author's first attempt in literature; and his previous volume of poems, although it contained no translations, yet took its motto from Goethe.

Of recent miscellaneous collections, 'Through the Year with the Poets,' edited by Oscar Fay Adams (D. Lothrop & Co.), is incontestably the best, and 'The Humbler Poets,' by Slason Thompson (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.), as surely the poorest. The latter is a most presentable volume on the outside and a dreary waste within. The author says in his preface that he began his collection in his first boyish scrapbook, and the difficulty is to believe that he did not compile it all at that same period of life. The incidental merit of the book comes from the literary ignorance of the editor, for he occasionally stumbles, in spite of himself, on a good poem from Stedman's published volumes (p. 123) or from Helen Jackson's (p. 415); and gives it as anonymous. In great contrast stands Mr. Adams's series, whose editor is equipped with thorough knowledge, and spares no pains to give us the fullest details of information, such as the precise place and day of each author's birth and the successive names of every married lady. Each volume of this series represents the aspects of nature for a separate month, beginning with December and already including May; and although he, too, must sometimes draw from "the humbler poets," they exhibit in his hands some merit besides humility. By careful arrangement he has escaped something of the monotony that might be expected under his plan; and he has skilfully bridged over those differences of aspect which make a sort of poetic parallax, so to speak, between observations taken in England and America. These little volumes are neat, attractive, and exceedingly cheap; they are sold singly. A curious little book, with a quaint mixture of poetry and prose—genius, ecclesiasticism, and commonplace—is 'Time Flies,' by Christina G. Rossetti (Boston: Roberts Bros.). It has a thought or selection for every day in the year, but few of these are so exquisite as this:

"Innocent eyes not ours
Are made to look on flowers,
Eyes of small birds and insects small;
Morn after summer morn
The sweet rose on her thorn
Opens her bosom to them all.
The least and last of things
That soar on quivering wings,
Or crawl among the grass-blades out of sight,
Have just as clear a right
To their appointed portion of delight
As Queens or Kings." (P. 158.)

Another collection which has at least a certain historical value is Frank Moore's 'Songs of the Southern People' (Appletons). It reads curiously, in the light of past events, and throws much illumination upon that mood of enormous blustre in which secession began. It is a great historical lesson, after the manly and candid addresses lately given at the North by former Confederate officers, to revert to the time when the Southern heart fired itself with strains like this:

"I'll sing you a song of the South's sunny clime,
Chivalrous C. S. A.!
Which went to housekeeping once on a time;
Bully for C. S. A.!
Like heroes and princes they lived for a while,
Chivalrous C. S. A.!
And routed the Hessians in most gallant style:
Bully for C. S. A.!

CHORUS. Chivalrous, chivalrous people are they!
Chivalrous, chivalrous people are they!
In C. S. A.! In C. S. A.!
Aye, in chivalrous C. S. A.!" (P. 96.)

ACTORS AND ACTRESSES.

Garrick and his Contemporaries. [Actors and Actresses of Great Britain and the United States from the Days of David Garrick to the Present Time.] Edited by Brander Matthews and Laurence Hutton. Cassell & Co.

THE plan followed in this volume is that of giving in the case of each actor or actress a brief biography, reinforced by extracts from writers who have spoken of them. This produces a somewhat disjointed effect, but in other respects is interesting, as giving the reader a good deal of contemporary anecdote and criticism. It must be confessed that by far the best part of English stage literature is its anecdote. Most criticism, on the other hand, loses its virtue with age. There is something almost pathetic in the difficulty which the best writers have found in preserving even for a couple of generations the impression made by the greatest actors. Garrick is a great name to us, and we readily perceive that he must have been one of the great actors of the world; but when we are asked to listen to detailed accounts of his acting, or the differences between him and his predecessors, we soon lose ourselves in a maze of conjecture. He introduced or revived the "natural" style; but was the "natural" in Garrick's day what we should now call the natural? Read the contemporary criticisms of an actor of our day, of Booth, of Salvini, of Irving, and then ask what will our descendants make of this a hundred years hence, when they can no longer hear the voice, nor see the gestures, nor measure the effect upon the audience. It is the only art which leaves no memorials behind it. Literature has no proper means of preserving them. It is in a much worse position than that occupied by the art of poetry before the invention of letters, for memory then did the work which printing does now; but the difficulty is almost aggravated by the constant and ineffectual effort of literature to overcome it.

"Michael Angelo," as the editors say (quoting Mr. Lawrence Barrett), "to gratify the whim of a capricious patron, carved a figure of snow, expending on this as much thought, perhaps, as upon his immortal Moses or the imperishable dome of St. Peter's. The sculptor and the architect, the painter and the poet, live in their works, which endure after them; the actor's work dies when he dies. He carves his image in snow."

Perhaps the best attempt ever made to preserve by literary means the effect of an actor's method is the description of Garrick's *Hamlet* by Lichtenberg, which has only been translated into English within a comparatively recent period. It is appended to the account of Garrick in the present volume:

"*Hamlet* appears in black attire, the only one, alas, which is still worn in the whole court, for his poor father, who has been scarcely dead a couple of months. *Horatio* and *Marcellus* accompany him in uniform. They await the *Ghost*. *Hamlet* has folded his arms and pulled his hat over his eyes. It is a cold night and just twelve

o'clock. The theatre is darkened, and the whole audience is still, and the faces as motionless as if they had been painted on the walls of a house. At the extreme end of the theatre one might have heard a pin drop. Suddenly, as *Hamlet* goes rather far up the stage somewhat to the left, with his back to the audience, *Horatio* starts. 'Look, my Lord, it comes,' says he, pointing to the right, where the *Ghost* is standing immovable, ere one is even aware of it. At these words Garrick turns suddenly round, and at the same moment staggers back two or three paces with trembling knees. His hat falls to the ground, both arms—especially the left—are nearly extended to the full, the hand as high as the head, the right arm more bent and the hand lower, the fingers spread out and the mouth open. There he remains standing with legs far apart, but still in a graceful attitude, as if electrified, supported by his friends. His features express such horror that I felt a repeated shudder pass over me before he began to speak. The almost appalling silence of the assembly, which preceded this scene and made one feel scarcely safe in one's seat, probably contributed not a little to the effect. At last he speaks, not with the beginning, but with the end of a breath, and says in a trembling voice, 'Angels and ministers of grace, defend us' —words which complete whatever may yet be wanting in this scene to make it one of the sublimest and most terrifying of which, perhaps, the stage is capable."

Nothing is here neglected, not even the life-like touch of real as distinguished from mock horror —that when the actor begins to speak, his violent emotion has taken away his breath. Lichtenberg saw and recorded everything, and his Garrick stands out before us a complete picture. We feel faintly in reading the same shudder that he says passed through him as one of this long dead audience of play-goers a hundred years ago. But the tone of voice, the pronunciation, the rhythm, the accent, almost everything that made Garrick himself and no one else, are vanished. It is a description of a work of art, instead of a work of art itself.

But nature is full of compensations, and if actors produce nothing permanent, the temporary impression they produce is something which painters, sculptors, and even poets may well envy; and, through their connection with literature, they live on in a remarkable way, long after what we may call their artistic identity is effaced. In the great periods of the drama there has always been a close connection between the stage and literature, and one of the most alarming signs of the present condition of the art is the divorce which has been effected between the two. The names of Macklin, Quin, Garrick, Sheridan, and Tate Wilkinson, which we find in the present volume, are rich with literary associations, and will live, by the humble aid of anecdote, as long as English letters themselves endure. We think, therefore, that the editors have done very wisely in determining to mingle biography and criticism with anecdote. There are to be five volumes of the series, with biographical and critical sketches of about seventy-five of the leading actors and actresses of the two countries from 1750 to 1886. We have already given the names of some of those considered in the first volume. Some of the writers are Austin Dobson (Katherine Clive, David Garrick, and Margaret Woffington), Brander Matthews (Samuel Foote and Thomas Sheridan), Percy Fitzgerald (Frances Abington and George Ann Bellamy). The second volume will treat of the Kemble period; the third and fourth, of the actors of the middle of this century (Edmund Kean, Junius Brutus Booth, William Charles Macready, and Edwin Forrest); while in the fifth volume the chief performers now before the public will be discussed.

We have little or no room left for further quotation, but cannot deny ourselves the pleasure of extracting another excellent piece of criticism (by means of which the manner of an actor has been well preserved in literature)—this time, however, not for purposes of admiration:

> "Mossop, attached to military plan,
> Still kept his eye fixed on his right-hand man;
> Whilst the mouth measures words with seeming skill,
> The right hand labors and the left lies still.
> For he resolv'd on Scripture grounds to go,
> What the right doth the left hand shall not know.
> With studied impropriety of speech,
> He soars beyond the hackney critics' reach;
> To epithets allots emphatic state,
> Whilst principals ungrac'd, like lacquies, wait;
> In ways first trodden by himself excels,
> And stands alone in indeclinables:
> Conjunction, preposition, adverb join
> To stamp new vigor in the nervous line;
> In monosyllables his thunders roll,
> HE, SHE, IT, and WE, YE, THEY fright the soul."

Mossop's name is now pretty well forgotten, though he was one of the leading actors of his day; but his method enjoys immortal life.

FURNESS'S VARIORUM OTHELLO.

A New Variorum Edition of Shakespeare. Edited by Horace Howard Furness. Vol. vi, Othello. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

MR. FURNESS has adopted for this play the text of the first Folio, which he reprints. The problem of the text of "Othello" involves some peculiar circumstances—as what Shaksperian topic does not?—but it is comparatively simple. The earliest Quarto was published thirteen years after the press had ceased to give first editions of Shakspere's plays, in 1622, just before the appearance of the Folio; and it differs from the latter by the omission of lines and by the retention of oaths. The second Quarto was issued in 1630, and though it restored many lost lines and showed other revision, it is clear that it was not under obligation to the Folio, but was a corrected edition of the first Quarto. The play, as we have it in print, thus represents two sources, two manuscripts: but whether either of these was from Shakspere's hand is doubtful, and it is generally agreed only that both reproduce acting copies of different dates and ownership. The readings of the Folio are as a rule so far preferable to the Quartos, especially the first, that there is no difference of opinion among scholars as to the priority of its claim to accuracy. The text given is, of course, from Mr. Furness's copy. Below it are the variations of the other printed sources and the emendations of the Shakspere editors, and below these such notes and quotations, from editors, lexicographers, critics, actors, and the like, as elucidate the meaning in detail, or try to do so. This work of selection and citation from the mass of Shakspere literature in order to produce a digest of scholarship and opinion regarding each play, which is the substance of a variorum editor's task, has been done with that thoroughness, tolerance, and good-nature, to praise which would now be an impertinence. In the appendix are the usual discussions and summaries in respect to the dates, sources, duration of plot, and impersonations by noted actors, and English, German, and French critical opinions, together with a few pages on the special topic of *Othello's* color.

The construction of a text, and the interpretation of the half-dozen *cruces* of verbal criticism which the play affords to the curious, are matters so narrowly limited in interest, and already so thoroughly threshed, that we shall not delay upon them. The play is, besides, tolerably plain, in the way of verb, and noun, and grammar. One or two of Mr. Furness's own suggestions, of which he is very sparing, are to be noted, such as his idea that *Roderigo* was disguised in Cyprus — "defeate thy fauour with a usurp'd Beard" (I. iii, 371). This is reasonable, and though not absolutely necessary to the working of the plot, in its minor intrigue against *Cassio*, falls in with the circumstances. It may not be superfluous to observe, too, that on the oft-quoted, much-disputed passage—

> "It is the green-ey'd monster, which doth mocke
> The meate it feeds on"—

Mr. Furness sustains Hunter and Staunton in interpreting "meate" as the jealous man; and that on another famous passage—

> "Of one, whose hand
> (Like the base Iudean) threw a Pearle away
> Richer than all his Tribe"—

he sustains what has been regarded as the fantastical interpretation of Halliwell, who rejects the common emendation "Indian," and refers "Iudean" to Judas Iscariot!

The perusal of the notes reminds one again of the traditional weaknesses of commentators, and often stirs up wrath or humor according as the reader is amused with a fool or aches to bray him in a mortar. The experienced editor's genial attitude toward all comers is to be reckoned the last result of wisdom in this matter, and so, too, is the placidity with which he winds up discussions with the remark that it is not to be expected that Shakspere editors should agree where there is such opportunity for difference. What strikes one most is, of course, the persistency with which the obvious sense of a passage is sometimes missed by narrowness or obliquity of vision. It would seem that when some small-brained creature starts a doubt, no editor has the courage to leave the words to themselves again, but must join with the pack in worrying all meaning out of them. One such instance, in our judgment, is the speech of *Othello* (I. ii, 22-27):

> "'Tis yet to know,
> Which when I know that boasting is an Honour
> I shall promulgate. I fetch my life and being
> From men of Royall Siege, and my demerites
> May speak (unbonnetted) to as proud a Fortune
> As this that I haue reach'd."

Difficulty is found in the word "unbonnetted," on the ground that to be unbonneted is to confess inferiority of station (the opposite of *Othello's* intention); and the passage has been emended and explained in several ways. Now, if the present writer may hazard his untaught understanding of English that never gave a doubtful sense to him, the natural meaning is that *Othello's* services need no addition of privilege, but by their own worth put him, the mere man, on a level with his "proud fortune." Take "unbonnetted" with what precedes, and does not the course of *Othello's* thought run somewhat as follows? "It is not known that I am of royal blood. I do not mean to seek honor by boasting of that ancestry, nor need I; for, though I am a prince, I have done such services that they alone, without any outward badge of rank (such as this royal birth would be if I promulgated it), lift me to an equality with my 'proud fortune.'" This interpretation, unless it be contained implicitly in Fuseli's note, is not given; but it is by following *Othello's* brains as well as his words that one understands him. With this audacious example, we leave the student to build up his own text and get his own meaning out of the ample materials set before him; he cannot err more ridiculously than some have done among the commentators, and he will find the best of them wiser in their good sense than in the ingenuities of their learning. With the text we dismiss, too, the date of the play, set in 1604 on the authority of Malone's memorandum, which is accepted as representing the lost original on which the Cunningham forgery in the Master of Revels' Account was based. In this Mr. Furness follows Halliwell-Phillipps.

The general features of the commentary on this play are not without some peculiar interest. It has sometimes occurred to us that when our century comes to be analyzed in future ages, a favorite illustration of its materializing spirit will be found in its Shaksperian criticism. The dramatist's imagination has imposed itself upon our time for reality; and this, too, so far as the body of Shaksperian literature is concerned, not so much with respect to its poetic substance as to its theatrical accidents. In "Othello" we have a

capital example of the sort of realism foisted on Shakspere because the plastic nature and symbolic significance of fact under a poet's handling are not apprehended. We do not refer merely to the attempt to date the action and make it tally with Venetian history, or to the scholarly effort of that admirable lover of Venice, Rawdon Brown, in which he tried to identify the Moor with a real lieutenant of the republic; so long as these are subordinate to the study of the sources of the play and remain in the region of historical fact, they have no offence in them. It is only when the domain of imagination, the play itself, is entered that the absurdity of confusing poetic truth (truth of representation) with historic truth (actuality of occurrence) becomes apparent. Out of the divergence of these two modes of truth arises the theory of Double Time, of which "Othello" is regarded as affording the best instance. According to this hypothesis, Shakspere reckoned by two kinds of time, the Dramatic and the Historical; the first is illusory, and measures the duration of the action on the stage; the second is real, and measures the duration of the action in its necessary course under the limitations and delays essential to its probability. The first appeals to the imagination, the second to the reason. Thus, as Rymer sneeringly pointed out, *Desdemona* is murdered within thirty-six hours after her arrival in Cyprus; and this is without doubt the dramatic time, the illusion for the imagination; yet the circumstances of the plot require a longer period and imply it continually, and in this latter Historical Time the reason finds the justification of the facts, the probability of the action. The discord of the two "times" is only discovered by reflection; it is not felt in the representation, and herein lies the poet's art; but an intrusive realism, dissolving the poet's synthesis, misses the imaginative unity of "Othello," and muddles itself in an attempt to understand how *Iago* could have asked *Emilia* "a hundred times" to steal the fatal handkerchief, how *Roderigo* could have spent all his wealth in a day, and *Cassio* have become so intimate with *Bianca*, etc., etc., until the poet's inconsistencies have been piled up, mole-hill on mole-hill, on the top of which the commentator flaps his wings.

Here, too, is the place to ask the horrid question—Was *Othello* black? Nay, more—Was he a *black negro?* There has been much ado over this, and the ethnographic and æsthetic whitewash has certainly toned down the jetty African of stage tradition to a very presentable light-brown gentleman. Time was when our stage *Othello* pulled off white gloves to emphasize his hue, and once this fine trick disillusionized a realistic spectator, who chanced to know that the inside of a black man's hands is whitish, like the soles of his feet and the skin of his new-born heir; but now dramatic proprieties have changed. *Othello* was not a negro, though his lips may have rolled just enough to suggest *Roderigo's* nickname; he was a Moor. Black, however, his visage was in Shakspere's mind, as Mr. Furness concludes, and therewith cites the inexorable passage—

> "My name, that was as fresh
> As Dian's visage, is now begrim'd and blacke
> As mine owne face."

"Grime" is not a synonym of light-brown. If any one requires the production of a live black Moor of "royall siege" before he believes this, let him search in lion-haunted Arden, where he will find many strange things.

But the most offensive example of what we have called the intrusion of realism in the interpretation of Shakspere is afforded by Mr. Furness himself in the professional opinions he prints, from eminent doctors of his acquaintance, in regard to the physical conditions of *Desdemona's* death. Was she smothered or (as the stage tradition says) stabbed? And, in either case, could both her smock and face have been pale? could she have revived and spoken, and then died without further violence? The doctors practically agree that, although a fatal stab would not necessarily cause effusion of blood in any quantity, she was smothered. Dr. Agnew decides that she died from "secondary effects of injury to the larynx"; Dr. Brinton says "cardiac exhaustion"; Dr. Hammond refers to the smothering case in his novel 'Mr. Oldmixon'; and Dr. Wm. Hunt renders his verdict as death by "fracture of the cricoid cartilage of the larynx"—a phrase which he expands into a description of how *Othello* "grasps her neck with his powerful hands, his thumbs being over the larynx, and with two strong squeezes and a 'So, so,' garrotes her." We submit that this is the most brutal intrusion of the realistic spirit into poetic art yet known; to read this note is to give to an ideal tragic scene a bias of physical horror, from which the imagination recovers with difficulty, and to destroy at a crisis of its culmination the sense of that moral control of events in which tragedy finds its only æsthetic justification. It is to reduce "Othello" to the level of "Titus Andronicus." With this prime example of the utility of science in the criticism of works of the imagination, one may well leave this branch of the subject.

The play has not been especially fruitful in the department of proper literary criticism. It offers few problems. Discussion has centred most distinctly about *Iago*, and the exploded opinion that his malice was motiveless has given rise to a considerable part of the character-criticism of the drama. To us his repulsiveness springs rather from his indifference, his cold-bloodedness, than from the mere sight of his villany in action. The power of the play lies less in the horror than in the "pity of it," the mere misery of *Desdemona*, the ignoble duping of *Othello*. It is naturally a favorite with those who interpret Shakspere almost exclusively from the ethical standpoint, and the commandments they have found written in it are more than ten; from the doctrine concerning the family tie which is extracted from the fact that the trouble comes originally from *Desdemona's* deception of her father, down to the doctrine of courtesy which is found in the notion that, if *Othello* had had the good manners to pick up the handkerchief when *Desdemona* dropped it, all the results might have been avoided, a marvellous array of "morality" is exhibited. But this intrusion of the logic of morals is hardly less to be reproved than that of the logic of facts. It ought to be always remembered that the primary endowment of Shakspere was the artistic temperament: he was a poet first, and everything else afterwards. To say this is the same thing with saying—though we must state it baldly—that the ethical principle in him was a necessity of the imagination, not of the understanding; was vision rather than inference; was a part and not the whole. One can no more imagine life truly without ethics than he can imagine mass without cohesion; a creative genius, consequently, a man of imagination all compact, does not necessarily start from ethics in moulding his works, but it is more likely that the moral principle which his works must contain as a part of their reality will be secondary and derivative. Shakspere is ethical because he imagined life truly; he did not imagine life truly because he had thought out, in Lord Bacon's manner, the general principles of morals. Of course what is here said applies only to the ethical motives and laws which are thought to pervade whole plays, not to the apothegms or detached reflections which occur in them. The present writer would contend that an ethical view was never a formative principle in "Othello" or any other of the plays, and that the attempt to ascribe such conscious ends to Shakspere's art is made in ignorance of the fundamental principles of æsthetic criticism. "Othello" has, it is true, the Æschylean swing of fate; but it derives it from life, not from thought. Hence Mr. Snyder's laborious discussions of this play, and all like them, must be regarded as moral disquisitions on topics suggested or illustrated by Shakspere, but by no means as Shakspere's view of the world and fate. In "Othello" this sort of criticism seems especially forced. Is it because the intelligence (*Iago*) is enlisted in the service of evil?

But this notice must be ended. The next variorum issue, "if there ever be one" (which heaven grant!), will probably be "The Merchant of Venice."

Memoirs of the Life of Colonel Hutchinson, Governor of Nottingham, by his widow Lucy; edited from the original manuscript by the Rev. Julius Hutchinson. To which are added the letters of Colonel Hutchinson and other papers. Revised, with additional notes, by C. H. Firth, M.A. With ten etched portraits of eminent personages. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford. 1885.

THE memoirs of Col. Hutchinson rank among the best-known and most instructive of the class of original historical documents to which they belong—writings private in their nature, throwing a side-light upon events, rather than presenting them in a direct and authoritative form, as is the case with public documents. This book does not give us an account of the Civil War; Marston Moor and Naseby, the Self-denying Ordinance and the New Model, Pride's Purge and the Expulsion of the Rump, are barely alluded to; but we have a complete narrative of the military operations, and the civil dissensions as well, of one corner of England. This is a view that the great historians omit. In their works we learn the conduct of the large affairs, but we can never get from them the perfect picture of the times that may be obtained from a book like this.

As time goes on and Col. Hutchinson becomes a more prominent and influential man, we find more frequent mention of the great events of his day. The Second Civil War, the Scotch War, and especially the events after the death of Oliver Cromwell, receive relatively more attention than those of the first Civil War, when the hero of the book was simply a country gentleman of Nottinghamshire, holding a post important, it is true, but quite secondary and relatively inconspicuous. Only relatively, however. The holding of Nottingham steadily for the Parliament, through all the dark days of 1643, was a service of the highest value. The whole north was in the hands of the royalists, whose stronghold at Newark gave them safe and continuous communication with the King at Oxford and in the west. But Nottingham, only a few miles from Newark, served in its turn as an advanced post on the Parliamentarian side—standing towards Cromwell's Eastern Counties' Association somewhat as Newark did to the royalists of the north under the Earl of Newcastle.

The side-lights of a book like this are, as we have said, of the highest value; and we are assisted by it to an understanding of that breach between Parliament and the army which is one of the most critical facts of the Civil War. We are familiar, in the history of our own civil war, with this source of dissension; but the relations between the two authorities were quite the opposite in the two cases. If our Congress interfered unduly in military operations, it was because it thought the army leaders deficient in zeal and ear-

nestness; the efforts of civilians were in the direction of inspiring greater intensity of action, and infusing a keener sympathy with the anti-slavery policy. In the English Civil War, on the other hand, it was the army that was in earnest and the Parliament that was ready to compromise. So that we find, besides the natural and unavoidable jealousy of the two powers, an antagonism in temper and policy which complicates the questions at issue, and makes it very difficult to determine in all cases where the right lay. The intrigues of the politicians against the single-hearted soldier are narrated at a length which, if somewhat wearisome by reason of its petty details, is nevertheless very instructive. The highest interest in the book is found in the later years, when the hostility was not the mere jealousy of power, but was upon fundamental questions of policy.

In these great questions of policy Col. Hutchinson occupied an attitude which classes him with Sir Harry Vane the younger—who, however, is hardly mentioned in the book. He was one of the judges of the King, and appears to have joined heartily in the policy of putting the King to death; but he was wholly opposed to the "usurpation" of Cromwell, and retired into private life, from which, however, he emerged after the resignation of Richard Cromwell, and had then some hope that the restoration of Charles II. would give England a good and free government. It seems clear that he changed his mind as to the execution of the King, and regarded it as a mistake—having led the way, not to a free government, but to a new despotism as unbearable as the old. At the same time, he never changed his opinions as to the questions at issue, and did not receive the new King with servile submission, but as, under the circumstances, the best hope of free institutions.

This is the conclusion that we draw, from the actions and language of Col. Hutchinson, as to his genuine sentiments in relation to the Civil War, the Protectorate, and the Restoration. After the Restoration he was placed in an equivocal and embarrassing position through a petition written by his wife, without his knowledge, and signed with his name. By this letter, which the editor characterizes correctly as an "humble and dishonoring petition for life," and by the assistance of members of her family—her brother, Sir Allen Apsley, had been an active leader on the Royalist side, and had now great influence at court—Col. Hutchinson was preserved from the punishment visited upon the other regicides. He felt keenly the dishonor of his situation; and although he acquiesced in the result, so far as even to address, shortly after, another petition, to the House of Lords, dignified and manly in tone, but expressing a degree of repentance which he certainly did not feel, yet he brooded over it in his mind, and did not conceal his satisfaction at being arrested, two or three years after, and thrown into the prison in which he died.

The intercession of Sir Allen Apsley for his brother-in-law illustrates one fact that we note in this history: there is no indication in any part of the book, so far as we can recollect, of the bitter hatred which civil war has the reputation of creating between near friends and kinsmen. Col. Hutchinson's relatives, the Birons, and his wife's relatives, the Apsleys, were ardent Cavaliers; but their intercourse with him, even when the contest was at its height, is represented as always friendly, while it was their influence that obtained his pardon at the Restoration. His enemies, and very bitter ones they were, were in his own party—the members of what we may call the Parliament faction as opposed to the army leaders.

The edition before us is sumptuous and beautiful. The ten portraits, etched with spirit, are of great value as historical portraits, most of them being of eminent characters. They are, besides Col. Hutchinson and his wife, the following: James I., Charles II., Cromwell, Ireton, Sir John Hotham, Lord Chaworth, and two kinsmen of the hero—Lord Biron and Sir Allen Apsley. Only five hundred copies have been printed, two hundred of which have been reserved for sale in this country, with an American imprint. We find an incorrect reference in a footnote on page 270 of vol. ii: it is given to page 378, when it should be 213.

The Story of the Jews. By James K. Hosmer. [The Story of the Nations.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1886.

CONFORMABLY to the plan laid down in the prospectus of this series, the present work is distinctly a book for young people. Its style is pure and graphic, and it can be read from cover to cover with unabated interest. Everything, even historical proportion, is sacrificed to the desire to bring out salient features of the Jews even more than of their history. Jewish history before the contact with Assyria is dismissed in one chapter, while two are devoted to the Assyrian period. The Maccabean age is strikingly depicted, though no attempt is made to separate the legends which have grown up about the actual history contained in the Apocryphal Books of Maccabees. When our author comes to the Middle Ages, he is full of sympathy with the Jews for the persecutions they had to bear in those dark days, though he thinks that Jewish pride and exclusiveness are somewhat to blame for such constant enmity. Concerning the Jews of modern times this work is much fuller than any book on the subject. Spinoza, Mendelssohn, the Rothschilds, Montefiore, Lasker, Crémieux, D'Israeli, and Heine, all have a place.

Prof. Hosmer shows throughout evidences of careful preparation, and yet there are constantly distinct traces of the dilettante's work. He is wrong in taking *Rabshakeh*, an officer's title, as the name of a man; again, no god by the name of Nisroch has been found in the Assyrian Pantheon, and it would have been much better to assume with Halévy that Nisroch is a mistake for Nesoch, the Assyrian god Nusku. Prof. Hosmer speaks of Cyrus as the "Mede," which he certainly was not, and repeats the traditional story of the Septuagint translation without any hint of his disbelief in it. There is, moreover, a marked lack of familiarity with Jewish customs. Each male was required to visit Jerusalem thrice, not twice a year. The Day of Atonement generally falls at the beginning, never at the end of October. Similar blunders are to be found in the account of the Passover service and the description of the interior of a synagogue. But few historians will agree with the dictum concerning Josephus, that "there is no reason to doubt his real accuracy." The philosophical system of Maimonides—a reconciliation of Judaism and Aristotelianism—our author does not seem to have appreciated. A whole chapter, entitled "Casting out a Prophet," is devoted to an indignation meeting over the excommunication of Spinoza by the synagogue of Amsterdam, though, whatever be his claims to consideration as a philosopher, Spinoza certainly had none which could weigh with the elders of the synagogue or of any other church. And, finally, there are some careless slips, such as the citing of Lucien Wolf's Biography of Sir Moses Montefiore as "Simon Wolfe's."

Vice in the Horse; and Other Papers on Horses and Riding. By G. S. Anderson. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1886.

THIS little volume contains nine short essays on matters connected with horsemanship. They show the author to be a very competent horseman, though by no means a fancier of the school of clumsy "practical" horsemanship which for a century or more has been the vogue among the English. Other distinguished American amateurs have also of late declared in favor of Continental horsemanship, and have condemned the British modes of using the saddle-horse. The Southern people of the United States have never adopted the modern English manner of riding, though the Kentucky and Virginia horsemen cannot be said to follow any of the Continental schools. Their horsemanship, with its careful training in paces, more closely resembles that of the French than the fashions which now prevail in England. It appears that the modes of training and using horses on the Continent were, during the seventeenth and perhaps in the eighteenth century, common in England. That delightful braggart, Lord Herbert of Cherbury, describing in his memoirs the movements of the horse which his successors have relegated to the circus, says: "The most useful aer, as the Frenchmen term it, is territerr; the courbettes, cabrioes, or un pas et un sault, being fitter for horses of parade and triumph than for soldiers, yet I cannot deny but a demivolte with courbettes, so that they be not too high, may be useful in a fight or mêlée"—all of which he learned in western England about the beginning of the seventeenth century. The disfavor into which the old and somewhat fanciful horsemanship fell was probably due in part to its inutility in hunting, but partly also to its essential impracticability. In the same way the graceful but useless *salutes* preceding a bout of fencing, as well as many departments of the fencer's art, were abandoned in Britain as soon as French influence began to decline. Now that men of leisure in America desire to amuse themselves with horses, it is perhaps worth while to bring back the banished capers of the olden-time horsemanship. Persons who desire this diversion of training horses in nice details of action will find Mr. Anderson's hints very useful, while those who contemn such practices will find his suggestions on horse-shoeing valuable.

The Scientific Angler: Being a general and instructive work on Artistic Angling. By the late David Foster. 3d edition. London: Bemrose & Sons.

THIS is a new edition of an excellent angling book previously noticed in these columns, with the addition of delicately colored engravings of over sixty land and aquatic, natural and artificial flies, the natural and artificial being placed side by side. The imitations in some cases are wonderfully exact, in others scarcely to be recognized. The American trout is not, on the whole, as highly educated as his British cousin, and the very delicate and fine differences in the construction of flies is not so essential to success here as in England, although a good many of our Eastern waters are now breeding fish that laugh to scorn the attempts of the ordinary angler. That there is, however, a growing interest in the niceties of the art is shown by the fact that Mr. Foster's book has been reprinted here. It is stated erroneously in the preface that this and the 'Compleat Angler' are "the only English books on angling that our transatlantic cousins have deemed worthy of reprinting." The book is one every angler ought to have, and the colored plates of flies make this the most desirable edition yet published. There is a good deal of useful information about rods, reels, lines, etc., but the fact is, that we are as much ahead of the English in these utensils as they are of us in the fly-tying branch of the art of angling.

Glimpses of Three Coasts. By Helen Jackson (H. H.). Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1886.

THE papers that fill this volume are rather the fruit of travel than the description of it. The first coast visited, the Californian, is looked at in the main as the scene of the early Spanish missions, which interested the author ethically through her sympathy with the work of civilizing the Indians. The other coasts, Scottish, Norwegian, and Danish, are more picturesquely treated; but here, too, it is the novelist who writes, and scenes from the common life are of more consequence to her than landscape. Often the narrative becomes only a dialect-sketch. The village and play of Oberammergau, which are the last subjects, could hardly be "glimpsed" from any but a Bohemian seacoast. The volume has no unity, and most, if not all, of its contents have appeared in magazines or papers.

George Eliot and Her Heroines: A Study. By Abba Goold Woolson. Harper & Brothers. 1886.

THE very poor portrait of George Eliot prefixed to this volume—a mechanical engraving of a feeble photograph—is a fitting frontispiece for it. That this "study" has succeeded in producing a certain sort of likeness of George Eliot is not to be denied; but it is feeble in conception and mechanical in execution. Such power of representation as it possesses is impaired by frequent uncalled for criticism, of a kind that might even be pronounced impertinent, of George Eliot's works, though they are ranked as highly as they deserve. There is, too, a large amount of extraneous matter. There are few leading themes in the volume and no striking passages. It is, therefore, a book impossible either to analyze or to quote from. A few unfortunate misconceptions might be pointed out were it in any wise worth discussion.

Bilder aus dem englischen Leben. Von Leopold Katscher. Zweite Auflage. Leipzig. 1885. 342 pp.

Aus England. Von L. Katscher. Leipzig. 1885. 109 pp.

Nebelland und Themsestrand. Von L. Katscher. Stuttgart: G. L. Göschen. 1886. 473 pp.

GERMANY must be the paradise of the "literary journalist"—using the phrase in the sense in which it is understood by those who so describe themselves. In Germany, as elsewhere, scholars and specialists occasionally write articles, and the littérateur is not absolutely unknown; but the staple of German magazines and feuilletons consists of "reports" and political correspondence writ large, being as devoid of the literary flavor as are the columns of a newspaper. Mr. Katscher is one of the best, as well as one of the most prolific, of these journalists, and has turned his reporting faculty to the best account in connection with what seems to have been a long residence in London. But he has neither the grace of style necessary to make commonplace agreeable, nor the power of intuitive perception which draws from it an unobvious meaning. In these volumes we find discussed everything of current newspaper interest, from sewers and gas to the Salvation Army and the Shakers, but nothing is treated in any but the every-day, superficial aspect; so that, however useful as an encyclopædia of useful information, Mr. Katscher's collections cannot be said to have any claim to form an addition to literature. His sketches are always sensible, but never shrewd. He is too exclusively a journalist to take a particular interest in anything, and altogether too reasonable and careful to display the prejudice and ignorance which, faults as they are, give the foreign studies of his French contemporaries a certain interest, if not value. What is more surprising is that he shows none of that "thoroughness"—that special familiarity with some field of research or phase of life—which one expects to find in German books, and which characterized the English studies of Mr. Katscher's predecessors, Althaus, Rodenberg, Hillebrand, and Holtzendorff.

Die Buddha-Legende und das Leben Jesu nach den Evangelien. Von Rudolf Seydel, Professor an der Universität Leipzig. Leipzig: Otto Schulze.

THIS little book is a sequel to the author's previous work on the same subject ('Das Evangelium von Jesu in seinen Verhältnissen zu Buddha-Sage und Buddha-Lehre'). It includes in it arguments drawn from the most recent researches into the Buddha legend. The conclusion to which the author now comes is, that it is quite possible that the structure of the Gospels was framed after a Buddhist model. He says that the Evangelists need have known nothing of the Buddhist legend, as it was *Buddhist:* but that a poetical Gospel, or the framework of a Gospel, might have been put together at Ephesus or Antioch or Alexandria by a Christian poet brought into contact with a Buddhist mendicant attached perhaps to some embassy to the West—and that on the lines of this poetical outline, confessedly built on the Legend of Buddha, the Evangelists, with no knowledge of Buddha himself, might have constructed or shaped the Gospels of Christ. Professor Seydel gives an example of what he means by observing that the typical group of the Virgin and Child, as painted by Raphael or Holbein, must undoubtedly have been suggested by the Isis-Horus figures, although without any distinct recognition in the minds of the Christian painters. In other words, his theory is that there is always a surviving ideal of the fittest, whether in poetry or art, which commends itself to the mind of the man tuned to receive it, though he himself in accepting the ideal is utterly ignorant of the source or concrete origin of the idea itself.

Professor Seydel therefore takes for granted that the Buddha-life was an ideal of human perfection, not necessarily the most perfect ideal, but such an one as, in the development of man's capabilities, would commend itself to the great human conscience. This ideal, transplanted to another soil, and brought into contact with a higher knowledge and a more complete religious system, and at the same time with a more perfect ideal of human greatness, viz., the character of Christ, produced the first thought of framing a life of Jesus; or, in other words, suggested the idea of the Gospel narratives.

It is undoubtedly a fact, notwithstanding all contradiction, that the Buddha legend was put together before the Christian era; and when we follow Professor Seydel in his comparisons of the leading features of this legend with the particulars found in the Gospels, we cannot but allow that there is a great similarity of *framework.* But as this does not support the wild arguments of those who would convert the Christian system into a perverted form of Buddhism, neither does it seek any reconciliation with those who discard the Buddhist element in the development of the religious idea in man, which is embodied in history. We think that Professor Seydel has put the whole matter, as it concerns the parallels between the Buddhist legend and the Gospel narrative, in very fitting words, as concise as any canon can be, when he says, on p. 16 of his work, "The probability of the independent origin diminishes in proportion to the increasing specialty of the resemblances and the increasing frequency of such specialties."

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Arnold, T. The Second Punic War; Being Chapters of the History of Rome, edited by W. T. Arnold. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Behrends, Dr. A. J. F. Socialism and Christianity. Baker & Taylor. $1.50.
Blake, J. V. Manual Training in Education. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 25 cents.
Bowker, R. R. Copyright: Its Law and its Literature. With a Bibliography of Literary Property, by Thorvald Solberg. Office of *Publishers' Weekly.*
Brooks, H. M. New England Sunday. [The Olden Time Series. Vol. 3.] Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Buchheim, C. A. Modern German Reader. Part II. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Burritt, J. L. How to Teach Penmanship in Public Schools. 2d ed. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 60 cents.
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Gibbs, D. C. If Love be Love: A Forest Idyl. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1885	1,339,525 10
Total Marine Premiums	$5,196,143 76
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1885, to 31st December, 1885	$3,770,094 30
Losses paid during the same period	$1,915,020 67
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	776,712 42
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Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise	1,438,600 00
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Amount	$12,740,326 46

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ADDITIONAL LIABILITY OF STOCKHOLDERS	100,000 00
ACTUAL NET STRENGTH OF CORPORATION	$377,592 70
ASSETS	$519,928 70
LIABILITIES (including Cap. Stock)	$342,335 86
RECEIPTS FOR THE YEAR OF 1885	$1,066,155 81
DISBURSEMENTS FOR THE YEAR 1885	$987,801 47

L. H. PERKINS, Sec. F. M. PERKINS, P't.

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[L. S.] W. J. NEILL, N. P., Douglas Co., Kansas.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 3, 1886.

The Week.

THE President sent in five more vetoes of private pension bills on Friday, and nobody can read the messages without feeling convinced that his objections in each case are well-founded. Mr. Cleveland lays down the rule which ought to govern in these matters, but which has come to be entirely disregarded, when he says: "It is not a pleasant thing to interfere in such a case, but we are dealing with pensions and not with gratuities."

The Boston *Advertiser*, last week, saw fit to speak of "the absurd secrecy which is being practised at the White House concerning the President's marriage." To our minds, so far from being absurd, it was most natural. We presume there are very few properly-constituted human beings who do not crave *some* privacy touching their tastes, habits, doings, sayings, social and domestic relations; or, in other words, do not desire that some portion of their life, be it never so small, shall be private. We think, too, that there is no man with a spark of gentlemanly feeling who, when about to be married, would not wish to regulate the amount of news about the match and the wedding which should be communicated to the public. His rights in this matter, too, are paramount. The public appetite for gossip does not annul or override them. It is only in savage communities that the claim of individuals to have secrets about themselves is totally denied. An Eastern traveller who had put up at a "hotel" in a mining town in Colorado, finding no shades in his window, which looked out on a piazza filled with loafers, pinned a shirt across it to screen him while he was dressing. In a few minutes it was rudely torn down by a hand from the outside, and on his asking angrily what that meant, the intruder exclaimed: "I want to see what there is so d—d private going on here." The loafer's surprise and curiosity were, perhaps, not unnatural, but the traveller was none the less entitled to his screen. Nobody has a right to know everything about anybody on any occasion in life, except the police about a man convicted of a crime. An honest man has a right, on any lawful occasion, to say to what extent he is willing to take the public into his confidence, whether the occasion be his own marriage or his mother's funeral.

President Cleveland doubtless feels all this strongly. He shrinks from having more of his private and personal affairs laid before the public than he chooses. He knows that it is impossible, as the newspaper business is now conducted, to get the simple facts of either his engagement or his marriage given to the people. He knows on what trifles columns of silly, flippant, ruffianly fiction are built up by some of our esteemed contemporaries, and with what disregard of the decencies of civilized life, with what contempt for the feelings of the living or for the memory of the dead, the work is done, if it is at all likely to be marketable. Moreover, his domestic affairs have no sort of resemblance to those of a European sovereign, though the reporters work them up as if they had. His place is not an hereditary one. He and his wife will in all probability be, a few years hence, plain citizens of Buffalo. But none the less his marriage is a matter of some interest to the people of the United States. It does concern them to know what manner of woman the mistress of the White House is, or is to be, but they ought to get their knowledge about her in a sober, respectable, and self-respecting way, like civilized men, and not like savages. The President would doubtless have been glad to gratify their legitimate curiosity about his marriage; but, knowing the agents by whom all knowledge on such subjects reaches the public, he probably endeavored to protect himself by precautions which looked like secrecy, whereas he was simply trying to keep something back, be it never so little, and felt that he should never accomplish even this except by trying to keep everything back.

The grievances of the trades-unions against the Knights of Labor have been reduced to writing, in the form of six demands, and presented to the Cleveland Assembly. These are, in brief, that the Knights shall not initiate any person or persons whose trade has a national or international organization without the consent of such organization; that no person shall be initiated as a Knight who works for less than the union scale of wages, or who has ever been convicted of "scabbing," "ratting," or embezzlement of the funds of a trade-union; that all charters granted to assemblies having a national or international union shall be revoked; that any organizer of the Knights of Labor who endeavors to induce trades-unions to disband, or tampers with their growth and privileges, shall be expelled from the order; that when any strike of trades-unionists is in progress, no assembly of the Knights of Labor shall interfere; and that the Knights of Labor shall not grant any label in competition with any label issued by any national or international trade-union. To grant these demands will be equivalent to disbanding the Knights of Labor altogether, or reducing the order to very contemptible dimensions. The idea at the foundation of the order is, that it is possible to bring "labor" of all kinds into one society, and direct its united power against capital in such a way as to squeeze profits down to nothing, or next to nothing. In practice it is an attempt to enable all trades to get the better of each other—as futile as the proverbial endeavor to lift one's self over a fence by the boot-straps. The trade-union idea is to enable each particular trade to do the best it can for itself, not intending any harm to other trades, but leaving them to look out for themselves. The Knights of Labor would seek to enable the workers in a coal mine and those in an iron furnace and those on a railway connecting the two to jointly get the better of the mine owners, the railway, and the furnace. In case of a "grievance" in the furnace, the workingmen in all three of the trades might be "ordered out." Two entirely innocent and disinterested trades, together with many others which depend upon the mine and the railway, would be prostrated or injured in order to give a victory to the furnace men. The trade-union method of dealing with the same grievance would be to order a strike of the furnace men, and, by means of their national organization, to prevent the furnace from getting other workmen to take their places. In an extreme case they would order strikes in all furnaces, but would not molest any other trade. The boycott would never be introduced as an auxiliary weapon by a single trade-union, but would be the natural and almost necessary weapon of the Knights of Labor.

The trade-union idea is not only the correct one, but is the only one which has any chance of lasting influence in the social and industrial life of the nation. Every trade pays out the great bulk of its receipts in wages, directly or indirectly. Our friend John Roach, in one of his tariff speeches, said that 90 per cent. of the cost of an iron ship in the United States was paid for labor—labor in the ship-yard, in the rolling-mill, in the iron mine, the coal mine, the forest, the saw-mill, etc. The statement was undoubtedly true as to Mr. Roach's yard, and is probably true as to all yards, both here and abroad. It is not necessary to make a parade of statistics in order to show that what is true of the ship-building trade is true of industry in general, namely, that all but a very small part of the price that anything sells for is paid for the labor of producing it. It follows that when the Knights of Labor seek to bring all trades into one organization in order to get the better of capital, they are fighting capital only to the extent of 10 per cent., while they are fighting labor to the extent of 90 per cent. Mr. Arthur understands this thing better than Mr. Powderly. He says in substance: "Our business is to see that locomotive engineers get their rights. The cigar-makers, the silk dyers, the jute weavers, etc., have our sympathy, but we have no mission to take care of them and ourselves too. They will get on better without us, and we shall get on better without them." This is the American idea, and it will carry the day.

A bricklayers' union in Washington has fixed upon $4 a day as the rate which should be paid to all workmen, whether good or poor, and, a number of men having found employers who are ready to pay them $6 a day, it is authoritatively announced that these men must refuse to earn over $4, and that "the Union will punish any member, by imposing a heavy fine, who shall accept anything in excess of $4." Hitherto in the history of the human race it has been held that the ambition to rise in the world, to make one's labor more valuable to one's employer, and thus to earn higher wages than the lazy and the shiftless, was a very proper and laudable ambition. But the union changes all this The fundamental principle

of the union is that all workmen shall fare alike; that the same wages shall be paid to the slow-going and inefficient laborer as to the active and capable one. The union holds that it is as great an offence for a member to earn more than the union rate as for him to take less, and the severest penalties are ready to be visited upon any man who makes the slightest effort to better his condition in the world and rise a little above the mass of his fellows.

The Oleomargarine Bill afforded the House as much merriment on Thursday as any circus clown or band of burnt-cork minstrels could supply. All "bogus" articles of food and drink were sought to be added to the list of things to be taxed, such as artificial eggs, motherless chickens, watered milk, sanded sugar, glucose syrup and honey, mixed liquors, and wooden nutmegs. The several amendments were voted down amid roars of laughter, and the bill was "progressed" toward final passage with an evident concurrence of opinion that while members must vote for it, they nevertheless held it to be a supremely foolish measure. The performance was not editying, but it serves to fix in the public mind the true character of the bill. There is one aspect of the measure and its consequences which may not prove to be so funny. If the price of butter be raised about ten cents a pound after the bill becomes a law—and if this effect be not produced, the only purpose of the bill will have been defeated—there will probably be a general inquiry as to the reasons for the sudden scarcity of an article of such prime necessity. It will then be discerned that although Congress has pretended to give us a free breakfast-table by removing the duties from tea and coffee, it has turned and put a tax on butter, not for revenue, but avowedly in order to make the article bring a higher price in the market. As an experiment upon the forbearance of the American people, the Oleomargarine Bill may have some value as showing how much "protection" the public will put up with. The passage the other day of a bill to prevent mackerel-fishing south of Cape Cod was an experiment in the same line. There is evident need of a bill to stop the manufacture of cotton-seed oil. This article has superseded lard and tallow to a considerable extent. If allowed to run wild in the markets of the country, there is no knowing how many people may find their profits curtailed. Why not pass a bill authorizing the Commissioner of Internal Revenue to collect taxes in his discretion on any new trade which seems to be getting the advantage of any old trade?

The Chicago *Tribune* reads a severe lecture to its New York namesake on the subject of South American trade, steamship subsidies, and the tariff. If American goods could be laid down in South American markets without any charge for transportation, says the Chicago paper, we should still be unable to compete with British manufacturers who get their raw materials free, while our manufacturers are taxed 40 to 50 per cent. on corresponding articles. "This country," it continues, "will never be able to secure the South American markets for her manufacturers until she pulls down the commercial non-intercourse, high-tariff wall which, by a back-action operation in shutting foreign goods out of our market, excludes our wares from foreign markets. This adamantine fact the New York *Tribune* must first learn to comprehend before it can intelligently discuss the subsidy question, or comprehend the reason that American goods are not exported and sold abroad." Which signifies, apparently, that the Chicago *Tribune* is not in the Blaine boom this year.

Just as the public has concluded, after a thorough study of the question of Federal aid to Southern schools, that the subsidy scheme would do more harm than good, Mr. Rutherford B. Hayes appears in an obscure magazine with a plea for such a scheme as the Blair bill, based upon the same old vague assertions of which the fallacy has been so thoroughly exposed. "Four millions of people in the South," Mr. Hayes says, "are unable to read and write," but he apparently does not understand that three-fourths of these people are too old to get any benefit from the most liberal system of schools. "Almost three millions of the young people of the South are growing up without the means of education," says Mr. Hayes. This is the same as saying that half the children of the South have no chance to go to school, whereas the reports of Southern school superintendents show that even in States like South Carolina and Mississippi, where the negroes are most numerous, the proportion of children of the school age who attend school is as large as in New Hampshire. The only bit of evidence which Mr. Hayes cites in support of his theory, is a statement made in a speech "a few years ago" by Dr. Ruffner, then School Superintendent of Virginia, that in his State they were not able to educate the people "in any tolerable sense," as he (Ruffner) had shown by statistics "a few years" before this speech. Regarding this, it is sufficient to say that Virginia has increased the amount of her school expenditures from $946,109 in 1880 to $1,428,678 in 1885, and now keeps her schools open 118 days in the year, against only 104 in Maine, and but 100 in New Hampshire. There might, perhaps, be an excuse for somebody else who should write an article upon so important a question without making the most elementary examination of the facts; but we do not quite see how an ex-President of the United States, leading a life of leisure, can reconcile such carelessness with his conscience.

The time has at last come when the task of answering the people who want to run future Republican campaigns upon a bloody-shirt platform can be left to Republican papers. Frederick Douglass made a speech to a Boston club the other day, in which he declared his belief that Mr. Blaine's ill-natured sectional speech at Augusta, after his defeat for the Presidency in 1884, would be "the key-note in the next campaign," and "carry the Republican party triumphantly to victory." A Republican paper in Mr. Blaine's State, the Portland *Advertiser*, discusses this proposition with great good sense. It says that under the reconstruction policy the negroes became the prey of demagogues, and "misgoverned the Southern States beyond all endurance," and it declares that "no New England State would submit for a month to such rapine as was perpetrated by the carpet-bag governments." The revolution which followed was inevitable, and it cannot be reversed, since "no act of Congress can organize and establish permanent anarchy and injustice." The *Advertiser* considers Mr. Douglass a man whose public utterances always deserve attention, but it assures him that "when he advocates the re-establishment of the color line and the carpet-bag governments, he talks of wild impossibilities." When a Maine Republican paper talks in such a strain as this, even Mr. Blaine must begin to perceive how far the country has got beyond his Bourbon ideas.

There are in this city at the present time 8,557 licensed liquor-saloons, or 1 for every 23 voters. This is the proportion for the whole city. If it were possible to get the number of saloons in each ward, we should find that the proportion varied in different localities. In Philadelphia, according to an interesting calculation published by the *Public Ledger* of that city, there are about 6,000 saloons, an average of 1 saloon for every 29 voters, the proportion ranging from 1 saloon to every 8 voters in the worst ward to 1 for every 50 voters in the most respectable ward. There are wards in this city in which the casual observer would say that there must be a liquor saloon for at most every half-dozen voters, for more than half the stores appear to be devoted to that business. But taking the general average of 1 saloon for every 23 voters, what an alarming condition of affairs that discloses! It is no wonder that the liquor-saloon and the liquor-dealer have come to be the controlling forces in municipal politics. Under the present system of mixing politics with liquor, there can be no other result than to multiply constantly the number of saloons. With an Excise Board composed of three men who represent as many different "halls" or factions, and who are all unscrupulous politicians, put there for the express purpose of making the position "pay" all that it possibly can for the benefit of the party, there can be no other outcome. Each Commissioner vies with his fellows to get the largest possible number of saloons which will yield a revenue to him.

The Rhode Island Republicans have carried out their plan, and have completed their alliance with the liquor interest by electing to the office of Chief of the State Police a defaulter, of whom the *Providence Journal*, the Republican organ of the State, speaks as follows:

"Who and what kind of a man Charles R. Brayton is and has been, is known to every citizen of Rhode Island, and to the members of the General Assembly who cast their ballots for him. There can be no plea of ignorance. Every one knows that when Postmaster of the city of Providence he was a defaulter in a sum exceeding $30,000, that he resigned to avoid dismissal, and that this defalcation had to be made good from the pockets of those who, in friendship and trust, gave bonds for his honesty and good behavior. For years before and after the discovery of his crime he has been notorious as the agent of corruption in politics. He has received the money and he has paid the money for 'Machine' politics. He has manipulated caucuses and conventions, and

been the acknowledged head and chief captain of the Swiss mercenaries of Rhode Island politics, with his fingers upon the keys of intrigue in both political parties, and with instruments in every town and ward in the State."

The *Journal* adds that this performance has excited great public indignation, and predicts that the men who have carried it through will be driven from the public service; if they are not, it says, "then the days of the Republican party in Rhode Island are over, and will deserve to be over." A letter from Newport to *The Evening Post* throws interesting light upon the way in which the scheme was carried through the Legislature. It is no secret that among the prime movers of this plan to strengthen the party by connecting it, through a defaulter, with the rumsellers of the State, are a United States Senator and other Republicans high in the ranks of the party. These are the same men who recently took General Logan to Providence, to arouse the party of moral ideas to a sense of its duties and responsibilities.

A panic is said to have been produced among the Ministerialists in England by the unexpected strength of the "dissidents" displayed at the meeting called by Chamberlain on Monday, which, according to Chamberlain's "arithmetic man," promises a majority of fifty-one against the Home-Rule Bill on the second reading. Their theory is, that if they can muster a majority as large as this, the Queen will see in it evidence that the Opposition can form a cabinet, and will ask Lord Hartington to undertake it, instead of allowing Mr. Gladstone to dissolve Parliament. Should the majority against the bill be but small, however, that is to say, not over thirty, a dissolution is certain. But it is very clear from the wide difference between the estimates of the arithmetic men on each side, made doubtless after most careful canvassing, that there is a large number of members who have not made up and cannot fully make up their minds, and whose course at the final moment nobody, not even they themselves, can accurately foretell. The chances would seem to be at this moment that the bill will be beaten by a small majority, and that Mr. Gladstone will then at once dissolve and appeal to the constituencies; but as the division will take place in all probability before the end of the week, prophecy is of no great value.

Mr. Dicey's letters on English politics are always interesting and instructive, and we make it a rule to let him, as indeed all our correspondents, say his say without note or comment. The letter we print to-day seems, however, to suggest one or two brief observations, which he will not think out of place. The first is, that the absence of "genuine enthusiasm" for Irish home rule in England seems an odd thing for Mr. Dicey to deem worthy of serious consideration. The absence of all genuine interest in Irish questions on the part of Englishmen constitutes the strongest of the arguments for home rule. Now, without interest of some kind to begin with, enthusiasm there cannot be. There was no "genuine enthusiasm" in England for Catholic emancipation, for the abolition of the Protestant tithes, or for any of the land acts, or for the disestablishment of the Irish Church. We have read, we believe, every speech of importance on both sides, and have, on analyzing those of the anti-Gladstonians, found invariably that the whole argument rested on the assumption that the Irish would in some manner fail to keep faith or fulfil the obligations imposed by the bill, not through want of ability, but through want of will. If this assumption were taken away, the whole superstructure went to pieces. That is to say, the bill has been opposed mainly by means of appeals to prejudice, partly religious and partly racial, or, in other words, on purely sentimental grounds. Secondly, we take leave to dispute Mr. Dicey's first "consequence." The first Reform Bill was undoubtedly the triumph of numbers over wealth, vested interests, and "thoughtfulness," even although the numbers did not vote. At the same time we agree with Mr. Dicey in thinking this a great danger and misfortune. But it is the inevitable consequence of refusing too long the redress of a grievance not felt by the "educated class." That class in England found it easy to bear with the woes of the Irish peasants until that complete social and political separation of the tillers of the soil from the owners of it which we now witness in Ireland, took place. This state of things cannot be cured by further resistance on the part of the educated class, and yet it must be dealt with in some new way.

Of Mr. Dicey's fourth "consequence," we would say that the propositions that "the Gladstonian idolatry is degrading the tone of public life," and that the bona-fide supporters of home rule in the Liberal party do not constitute a "respectable minority"—that is, that the bulk of its supporters are hypocrites or cowards—are too serious to rest on such assumptions as "it is the universal belief"; "every one out of Parliament thinks"; "all over the country Liberal managers" are doing so and so; "men who always opposed home rule" "are being informed" of something very absurd; "rumors are current," etc., etc. We should say that these expressions rather indicate a state of panic and disgust among the "educated class," than describe a whole political situation. Finally, touching Mr. Dicey's fifth consequence, we would remind him that all concessions made by an established government to a revolutionary movement, whether it take the form of simple disorder or of organized armed resistance, involve at the outset "the condonation and, indeed, the reward of lawlessness and injustice" in some degree. This was true of the American Revolution. It began in "lawlessness," and was marked by "injustice toward thousands of men," who "trusted to the protection of the English Parliament," and were "ill-treated because they respected the law," and "attempted to exercise their legal rights." It was true, also, of the Canadian rebellion, and of the concessions to the Dutch Boers. In fact, it is a form of misfortune, or evil, with which Englishmen ought by this time to be very familiar.

The Italian Parliament was dissolved more than a year before the end of its term, and the electoral agitation has begun. That Parliament was the first convoked under the new electoral law passed in the beginning of 1882, which, by considerably reducing the property qualification, as well as the educational tests, raised the number of electors in the kingdom from about six hundred thousand to upwards of two millions and a half. The law, which also included a narrow *scrutin de liste*, was initiated by the Depretis Government, under pressure of the more radical fractions of the Liberal party. The apprehension that the vast extension of the suffrage would bring the constituencies under clerical sway was not realized, the clergy, at the direction of the Vatican, continuing its policy of abstention. The Depretis Cabinet disposed of a good working majority, though continually harassed by attacks of the so-called Pentarchists—that is, the groups led by, or rather supporting, the political fortunes of Cairoli, Crispi, Nicotera, Baccarini, and Zanardelli. It leaned, to a large degree, on the Conservatives, from whom the Left, under Depretis, had wrested the long-held reins of administration in 1876. Both its external policy and domestic management were fiercely denounced, in spite of obviously favorable results, as illiberal, and thus faithless to the programme enunciated by the Left on assuming power. It was accused of tyrannically persecuting Irredentists, Republicans, and Socialists, of fawning upon Bismarck's royal coalition, of cringing before the Pope, of neglecting the interests of Italy in the Balkan Peninsula, in Africa, in Italia Irredenta, and of numberless other wrongs of commission and omission.

A vast improvement in the finances, the abrogation of a forced currency, the electoral reform, the final settlement of the railway problem, peace maintained with France under grievous provocations, a firm and most salutary understanding with Austria-Hungary and Germany—these are the main achievements of which Depretis and his supporters not unjustly boast. The Pentarchist opposition they declare to be devoid of principle and factious, and its protection of Anarchist tendencies, and especially of Irredentism, to be fraught with danger to peace within and abroad. They have not deserted their banner by yielding to necessities arising from changed conditions: it is the Pentarchists who have deserted the common camp. The greatest humiliation suffered by Italy—when France treacherously seized Tunis—was incurred under the Premiership of Cairoli. They cling to the Central-European coalition under honorable conditions, placing a powerful naval and military contingent at the disposal of the peace league. The alliance with the more advanced wing of the Conservatives is a natural consequence of a political evolution demanding a recasting of parties. The reproach of "transformism" they willingly accept. Mancini's foreign policy is a successful continuation of Minghetti's. The fact is, the moderate Liberalism of Depretis suits the ruling classes of Italy so well that even his exceptionally long stay in office—at the head of various cabinets—is not likely to speed the agitation for his downfall. There is no chance for a Radical, Clerical, Socialist, or Anti-Austrian majority, or even strong minority, yet, and coalitions of the advanced opposition with Conservative groups are but transient and partially effective. Depretis holds the same position in Italy which Tisza holds in Hungary by similar methods.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 26, to TUESDAY, June 1, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE following official announcement was issued from the White House on Friday night: "President Cleveland will be married at the White House on Wednesday evening, June 2, to Miss Frances Folsom. The recent death of a relative of Miss Folsom has changed the original plans for the wedding, and the invitations will now be limited to a few of the near relatives and the members of the Cabinet and their wives. The Rev. Dr. Sunderland of the First Presbyterian Church of Washington will officiate. The ceremony will be followed by a collation, and the wedding in all of its details will be plain and unostentatious."

President Cleveland on Friday vetoed five more private pension bills. In closing one veto message he says: "It is not a pleasant thing to interfere in such a case, but we are dealing with pensions, not with gratuities."

President Cleveland spent Decoration Day in New York and Brooklyn, and reviewed the parades.

The conference report on the Shipping Bill was adopted by both houses of Congress on Thursday. The bill contains the Frye amendment authorizing the President to treat foreign vessels in American ports as American vessels are treated in foreign ports.

It is asserted on good authority that the Canadian fishermen are all anxious and ready to sell bait to American fishermen, as it is their main source of income.

The Canadian schooner *The Sisters*, Capt. Anderson, which had been detained by the United States Collector at Portland, Me., was on Saturday released by order of the Treasury Department. It is said the release was ordered on the ground that the Captain did not intend to evade the law.

The captain of a coaster which arrived at Halifax on Tuesday reported that the *L. Houlette* had seized an American mackerel fisherman off the Guysborough coast.

In the Canadian House of Commons on Thursday the Minister of Marine, in reply to a question, said that six steamers and six schooners are being fitted out to protect the Canadian fisheries. The instructions to the masters of these vessels are to cruise around the coasts to protect the in-shore fisheries from the encroachments of foreign fishing vessels, especially those of the United States. They are to do their work with as great caution, as much courtesy, and as much firmness as is possible

The American revenue cutter *Dix* arrived at Cedar Keys, Fla., on Sunday, with the Spanish fishing smack *Chlotilde* of Havana, which she captured off Anclote Key, Fla., for violating the fishery laws by fishing within three leagues of the American shore, and for irregularities in her papers. The *Chlotilde* is a small schooner-rigged vessel and has six thousand salt fish on board. The crew consists of ten men and officers, none of whom speak English.

Senator Sherman moved in the Senate on Wednesday the bill defining some of the phrases in the law restricting the landing of Chinese in American ports. He said the bill simply defined phrases which had been interpreted in different ways by different courts. Mr. Hoar protested against existing and proposed Chinese legislation as among the great blots on the history of the human race. It was, he said, aimed at men simply because they were laborers, and belonged to a certain race. He intimated that American skill, talent, and industry were afraid they should be beaten. Mr. Ingalls denounced the Chinese restrictive laws as a disgrace to civilization.

Republican Senators held a caucus on Tuesday morning. Among the measures which it was decided to consider in the near future were the bill to repeal the preëmption and timber-culture laws and the alien land bill.

At the meeting of the House Committee on Education on Friday, Representative Miller of Texas introduced a substitute for the Blair Educational Bill. It is in substance as follows: It appropriates $8,000,000 annually for ten years, to be distributed among the States and Territories according to the ratio of illiteracy as established by the census of 1880. The money shall be paid to the States on the first of each July beginning with July 1, 1887, and shall be expended by the States in the maintenance of public schools under the State laws. The provisions of the Blair bill requiring reports from the States regarding the disbursement of the money, and to which objections have been made on the ground of interference with States' rights, are eliminated from the bill. In States in which separate schools are maintained for white and colored children, the bill provides that the money given the States shall be apportioned between white and colored schools in the proportion that the total number of children of each race of school age bears to the total number of children of school age in the State as shown by the scholastic census. Mr. Miller says that while he regards all bills of this class as unconstitutional, he prefers that a bill similar to the one proposed by him should be reported rather than one containing the objectionable features embodied in the Blair bill.

The Postal Savings Bank Bill is making little progress in the House Committee on Post-offices. It has been referred to a sub-committee, consisting of Jones of Texas, Chairman, Wood of Indiana, and Burrows of Michigan. They are holding no meetings to consider it.

The Special Committee appointed to investigate the strike in the Southwest has not yet made its report, and ex-Gov. Curtin, the Chairman, who was recently asked when the report might be expected, said that he did not think any would be made at this session. He said that there was something to be gained by holding the subject open, and that he thought it would be well to "enlarge the scope" of the inquiry, and to investigate the labor troubles in Pennsylvania, and that authority would be asked to do that. The Republican members of the Committee think that the delay, if finally decided upon, will be for a political purpose, and that one of its immediate objects will be to aid in the organization of a movement to secure the nomination and election of Mr. Curtin as Governor of Pennsylvania. That, beyond question, is his own object. He is in close relations with Mr. Powderly, and he has doubtless convinced his Democratic colleagues on the Committee that it will be possible for him to secure the coöperation of the Knights of Labor in the advancement of his political plans. The fact that Mr. Powderly is said to insist that the Knights of Labor are not to be used as a political organization, does not seem to have been considered by Curtin.

The Committee on Legislation of the Knights of Labor presented to the General Assembly on Monday a report on the land question, which was unanimously adopted. They demand that all public land shall be held for settlers only; that all land which is held by individual proprietors in excess of 160 acres, and which is not under cultivation, shall be taxed on the full value of cultivated land in the same neighborhood; that all land which is now held by railroads or other corporations when the conditions under which it was granted have not been complied with, shall be declared forfeited and revert to the Government; that patents shall at once be issued for all non-forfeitable lands, and that the taxation of them on the basis of the value of cultivated land shall at once begin; that all fences on the public domain shall at once be removed at the expense of those who have put them up; that after 1890 all lands in the United States the titles to which are vested in aliens shall be taken possession of by the Government under the right of eminent domain, by purchase at a fair valuation, which shall be fixed by appraisement; that after 1886 no alien shall be permitted to acquire the title to land either by purchase or in any other way. In addition to this they demand that Congress shall pass a law abolishing all property qualifications for the exercise of the elective franchise. In all the States they demand the passage of an act providing for a graduated income tax. They protest against the reduction of the appropriation for the Labor Bureau. The passage of a bill is urged prohibiting the employment of minors for more than eight hours.

The Grand Lodge of the Brotherhood of Railway Brakemen recently in Illinois expelled twenty-six of its members for originating the strike on the Union Pacific Railroad, and has suspended thirty more for ninety days for participating. As the Brotherhood is one of the most powerful labor organizations in the country, and now embraces Canada, the above action has created a profound impression in railroad circles.

The Chicago Grand Jury is making inquiries which may lead to the indictment of Most for connection with the riot there. There is evidence that the bombs seized at Lingg's lodgings and distributed by that person were manufactured in accordance with the instructions of Most—that Most was in correspondence with Spies and had a conference with him shortly before the bomb throwing; and it is believed that it can be established that packages of dynamite were sent from New York by Most to Spies for work in Chicago. Twenty-two Anarchists were indicted by the Chicago Grand Jury on Thursday, a number of them for murder.

The Anarchists John Most, Adolph Schenck, and Richard Braunschweig, charged with unlawful assembly, etc., were found guilty in the Court of General Sessions late Friday afternoon, and were remanded for sentence. Schenck was recommended by the jury to the mercy of the Court. Under the conviction, Recorder Smyth can sentence the prisoners to the penitentiary for one year, and fine them $500 each.

Judges Pardee and Billings, in the United States Circuit Court, sitting in New Orleans, on Monday rendered a decision in the notable case of the American Bell Telephone Company against the International Improved Telephone Company. In concluding their opinion, which is in Bell's favor, the judges say: "From the evidence submitted in this case it seems clear that now, in the present state of the art, neither the Reiss instruments nor any reproduction of them can be made to transmit articulate speech except by changes of some form in the instruments themselves or by the employment of Bell's methods. We therefore conclude that neither Reiss nor his successors anticipated the invention of Bell as set forth in the fifth claim of his application and patent, and as illustrated by figure 7 described in his accompanying specification. The injunction against the defendant company is ordered to issue."

The New Jersey Prohibition State Convention on Friday nominated Gen. Clinton B. Fisk for Governor. They hope to poll about 22,000 votes in the campaign.

In the General Assembly of the Southern Presbyterian Church at Augusta, Ga., on Wednesday, a vote was taken on the case of Dr. Woodrow, charged with teaching evolution in a theological seminary. By a vote of 137 to 13, the majority report, which declares that "man was created by an immediate act of divine power, without animal parentage," was adopted.

Judge Marcus Lyon, as Surrogate of Tompkins County, N. Y., on Wednesday filed a decision in the famous McGraw-Fiske will case, decreeing the legacies of Jennie McGraw Fiske to Cornell University of $1,500,000 for library purposes in all respects valid, ratifying the payments heretofore made, and directing Executor Boardman to pay the balance of Mrs. Fiske's estate to Cornell University as residuary legatee. This celebrated case has been pending before Judge Lyon since July 20, 1883. The alleged invalidity of the legacies to the Uni-

versity was based on the fact that its charter limited its property holdings to a sum not exceeding $3,000,000. Judge Lyon holds that it has not been proved that at the time of Mrs. Fiske's death the property absolutely held by Cornell University exceeded $3,000,000. He decides that the University does not own in fee or absolutely the lands sold by the State to Ezra Cornell, but only the income from them or their proceeds.

Andrew Carnegie, the millionaire steel manufacturer, has given $250,000 to Alleghany City for establishing a free library and music hall. This is in addition to his gift of $500,000 to Pittsburgh.

Gen. W. T. Sherman has announced his intention of residing permanently in New York.

John Russell Bartlett died on Friday in Providence, at the age of eighty-one. He was for many years Secretary of State of Rhode Island. In 1850 he was appointed commissioner for the survey of the boundary line between the United States and Mexico. He made extensive explorations and scientific observations, which he embodied in valuable works. Among the books which he wrote were a 'Bibliography of Rhode Island,' 'Progress of Ethnology,' 'Dictionary of Americanisms,' 'Literature of the Rebellion,' and 'Primeval Man.' Of these the 'Americanisms' is by far the best known.

John Kelly, the noted Tammany leader of this city, died on Tuesday afternoon. He had been ill for more than a year, but at times seemed to partly recover his health. He was born in this city on April 20, 1822, of Irish parentage. His education was meagre, and he fought his way to power through ward politics. He became known as the representative of the Irish Roman Catholic interest in the Board of Aldermen and later in Congress. He redeemed the Tammany Hall organization from the Tweed ring in 1872, but in 1876 opposed Mr. Tilden, and led the revolt against him in the Democratic National Convention. After his nomination, however, he pledged him his support. In 1879 he carried his warfare further, and was the Tammany candidate for Governor of New York. The bolt elected Cornell. From 1876 to 1880 Mr. Kelly was Comptroller of New York city. In the last National Democratic Convention he opposed the nomination of Cleveland. Since that campaign his health has been broken.

FOREIGN.

It was authoritatively announced in London on Thursday that Mr. Chamberlain would not attend the Liberal meeting, on the ground that Mr. Gladstone's circular was so framed as to exclude a certain section of the party.

The general Liberal meeting assembled on Thursday afternoon. It was well attended by the Premier's supporters, but none of the known Hartington or Chamberlain dissidents was present. Mr. Gladstone was cheered when he entered. He at once proceeded to the business on hand, and announced that the Government had decided to modify the clause (No. 24) of the Home-Rule Bill excluding Irish representatives from Westminster, provided the bill passed its second reading and was referred to a select committee for action during the autumn session of Parliament. Mr. Gladstone declared that he would at the autumn session of Parliament introduce an amended Irish home-rule bill. The meeting cordially approved the position taken by Mr. Gladstone.

A number of the Liberal dissidents who did not care to risk compromising themselves by attending the meeting, hailed with undisguised satisfaction the attitude of apparent conciliation adopted by the Premier. These now openly proclaim their intention to return to their party allegiance and vote with the Government for the second reading. Among the first to announce their return were Mr. John Fletcher Moulton, Radical Member of Parliament for Clapham, and Mr. Samuel Whitbread, Liberal Member for Bedford. Mr. Whitbread's accession is perhaps the most influential that the Premier could have desired.

In his speech at the Liberal meeting Mr. Gladstone said that the Government was willing to submit to Parliament a plan entitling Irish representatives to be invited to attend the Imperial Parliament whenever proposals of taxation affecting Ireland were up for consideration. Moreover, if the House of Commons wished, the Government was ready to undertake the responsibility of entitling the Irish to be heard in the Imperial Parliament on imperial or reserved questions. Changes in the Home-Rule Bill to accomplish these results would, however, entail a reconstruction of the measure. The Government, therefore, thought that after the second reading of the bill it might be postponed until the autumn session of Parliament; or the Government might resummon Parliament to an early session in 1887, and then again submit the bill, with such necessary amendments as during the interval had been deemed advisable without prejudice to the principle of the bill. Mr. Gladstone himself thought the latter method the preferable one.

It is asserted that the proposed modifications in the Home-Rule Bill include provisions for a full representation of Ireland when the House has under discussion army and navy estimates, votes of credit for war purposes, foreign treaties, fiscal changes affecting the customs and excise of the United Kingdom, and votes for the maintenance of the royal family. The Parnellites, at an informal conference on Thursday, agreed to accept Mr. Gladstone's proposal to read the bill a second time and postpone the committee stage till autumn. They were all inclined to agree to the proposed modifications.

In the House of Commons on Friday night Mr. Gladstone said that the Government considered it to be its duty, after the second reading of the Home-Rule Bill, not to ask the House to go into Committee on the measure, but to adopt one of the methods which he described at the recent Liberal meeting. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, in view of the unsatisfactory statement of the Government, moved an adjournment. He was greeted with cheers by the Opposition, all the Conservatives rising to support the motion. Mr. Gladstone made a vigorous reply. He said that the Government had raised one of the greatest issues ever submitted to Parliament, and would endeavor to keep it clear of collateral issues. The Government had before it a conflict, and was prepared to go through the struggle to the end. It was perfectly confident as to the final issue. The Government was acting in accordance with precedent. It was because the course which the Government had taken was the best means of attaining the end sought that Sir Michael had moved an adjournment. Sir Michael asked to withdraw his motion, but the Parnellites insisted on a division, and the motion was lost by a vote of 405 to 1, the Opposition voting with the Government. The announcement was received with laughter and ironical cheers. The Government has decided to introduce a comprehensive registration bill in Parliament with a view to the holding of a general election in 1887. The Arms Bill passed its third reading by 156 to 65.

It was authoritatively announced in London on Saturday that Lord Hartington and his Whig followers have resolved to vote against the Home-Rule Bill when it comes up for second reading.

The aspect of the home-rule question was suddenly changed on Monday by a meeting of Mr. Chamberlain's party. Fifty-four members of Parliament attended it, and on a division forty-six decided to vote against the bill, five refused to pledge themselves, and three declared that they would support the bill. The news created intense excitement in the lobby of the House of Commons. Ministerialists admitted that defeat was inevitable, and there was a general rush of members to the telegraph offices to send orders to their election agents to prepare for an immediate dissolution of Parliament. The Conservative whips estimate the Conservative vote at 252, the vote of the Hartington and Chamberlain section at 96, the Liberal abstentions at 25, and the vote of the Gladstonians and Parnellites at 297, making a majority against the bill of 51.

The debate on the Home-Rule Bill in the House of Commons on Tuesday night was very exciting and acrimonious. Mr. Joseph Chamberlain made a long speech explaining his attitude of hostility to Mr. Gladstone. He was frequently interrupted by Parnellite howls and Conservative cheers. He explained at great length why he found Mr. Gladstone's concessions inadequate. In the course of his speech he said: If there had been any real element of finality in the bill, he would have voted for its second reading, but he failed to see any such element. The Irish people would not regard it as final. Had such a bill been offered to Scotland the people would have indignantly rejected it. Was there any man in the House who could maintain that the bill did not weaken the supremacy of the Imperial Parliament, or at least throw doubt upon it? He challenged the Irish supporters of the bill to get up in Ireland and say that they favored the continued existence of the real supremacy of the Imperial Parliament [Parnellite cheers] as it exists at present. [Parnellite cries of "No! No!"] Ah, now the House sees the view of its Nationalist members. They want to weaken that supremacy. [Opposition cheers.] They only support the bill because they believe it throws doubt upon it and leaves the supremacy a mere constitutional figment. We want a real and effective supremacy, and will not lower the powers of the British Parliament to the level of the suzerainty of the Porte over Cyprus. "There is not a man here," said Mr. Chamberlain in conclusion, "who does not know that every personal and political interest would have led me to cast my lot with Mr. Gladstone. Not a day passes that I do not receive scores of letters urging me for my own sake to vote for the bill and dish the Whigs. The temptation is no doubt great, but I am not base enough to gratify my personal ambition by betraying my country." Mr. Sexton replied to Mr. Chamberlain. A "whip" has been sent to the Government supporters, announcing a probable vote on the second reading of the Home-Rule Bill on June 3.

The Rev. Mr. Spurgeon publishes an attack on Mr. Gladstone's Home-Rule Bill. The preacher asks, "What has Ulster done to be cast off?" and adds: "The whole scheme is full of dangers and absurdities, as if conceived by a madman. Yet I am sure that Mr. Gladstone believes he is only doing justice and acting for the good of all. I consider that he is making one of those mistakes only made by great and well-meaning men."

The race for the Derby stakes at Epsom on Wednesday was won by the Duke of Westminster's bay colt Ormonde.

The French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday evening voted urgency for the Government's bill to expel the princes.

It is stated that Prince Jerome Napoleon will soon come to the United States. The ostensible object of the trip to America is said to be to meet his son, who is returning by way of San Francisco and New York from his trip around the world.

Advices from Samoa of May 22 state that a German man-of-war proceeded to the territory of King Tomasese, whom Germany upholds against King Malietoa. The British and American consuls at Apia drew up a formal protest against Germany's subversion of King Malietoa's authority, and, in response to that ruler's appeal for protection, the American Consul hoisted the Samoan under the American flag and immediately telegraphed to President Cleveland, notifying him of his action in establishing a protectorate over the disputed territory.

THE KNIGHTS AS AN EDUCATIONAL BODY.

We see that prominent among the delegates to the General Assembly of the Knights of Labor at Cleveland are Messrs. Caville, Graham, and Best, of whom the first-named is General Auditor of the order, and the other two members of the Executive Committee of the Empire Protective Association. All three are notorious for their connection with the railroad strikes in this city and in Brooklyn, in which they assumed the air of conquerors over the terrified companies. They not only ordered strikes on the slightest provocation, or entirely without any, as in Brooklyn in April, but have insisted on demands quite as outrageous as any that have been made since the trouble began. Caville, a Brooklyn man, ordered the first railway strike in that city, and, after that was settled by granting his demands, ordered the men out again on the pretext that Mr. Richardson had not discharged two or three men obnoxious to the Knights. On this occasion Caville addressed a very insolent note to the President of the Brooklyn City Railroad, saying that if he afforded the least assistance of any kind to the other companies, all of his cars would be "tied up." Various manifestoes from him in the *Eagle* during March show him to be as violent and unreasonable as poor Irons himself. Barry, a member of the Executive Board of the Knights of Labor, was a pot-house politician in Saginaw until the labor troubles broke out there last summer. These were fomented and encouraged by him, and he was the leader of the mob that went along the Saginaw River to the mills in July, and by threats of violence forced the men to quit work. His speeches before and during the strike were of the most incendiary and communistic character. He was arrested and tried at East Saginaw in January last. Threats of and incitements to violence were proved against him by a number of respectable witnesses, but they were sworn down by the Knights of Labor, who flatly contradicted everything charged, and Barry escaped. The strike he started lasted about two months, 20,000 men being idle, and great destitution and loss being the result. The men finally gave in and resumed work on the terms they were accepting before the strike.

Now, it is apparently very largely upon such men as these that the amiable Mr. Powderly is going to rely to enable him to convert the Knights of Labor into a social-science association, or, in other words, an association for mutual improvement, the members of which will discuss and read "papers" to each other at stated meetings. For this is what the Knights must be if, in accordance with Mr. Powderly's plan, they are going to discard strikes and boycotts. The object of his movement, he says in the preamble to his Constitution, is, in general terms, "to make industrial or moral worth, not wealth, the true standard of individual and national greatness," and "to secure to workers the full enjoyment of the wealth they create, sufficient leisure in which to develop their intellectual, moral, and social faculties—all of the benefits, recreation, and pleasures of association; in a word, to enable them to share in the gains and honors of advancing civilization." This is an official statement which we copy directly from the record. Now, it is obvious at a glance that these ends are also those of the Christian Church, of the public schools, of the Cooper Union, and various other educational and philanthropic associations throughout the country, including the Free Trade Club and the Social Science Association. If there be any difference, in fact, between Mr. Powderly's association, as he describes it, and that so ably managed by our friend Mr. F. B. Sanborn, it must be in the *modus operandi*. Their aims are identical. Mr. Sanborn invites every one to become a member who is willing to pay $5 a year subscription, while Mr. Powderly excludes bankers, stock-brokers, and professional gamblers, but is content with twenty-four cents a year, besides fixed but moderate prices for "charters" for local assemblies. The subjects to be discussed at Mr. Powderly's meetings are much the same as those discussed at Mr. Sanborn's meetings. They are: Labor statistics, the public lands, legislation affecting labor and capital arbitration, the incorporation of trades, the contract system in public works, factory and mining and convict labor, the income tax, the currency, the public credit, and so forth. We presume, too, that they are to be discussed by the Knights much in the same way in which the Social Science Association discusses them—that is, by reading papers and then debating the subject orally. Mr. Powderly has undoubtedly been far more successful in getting members than Mr. Sanborn has been, as he says he has got one million or thereabouts, while we doubt if Mr. Sanborn has one thousand.

But there are limits to the size of a Social Science Association, and we cannot help thinking that the Knights have grown far beyond the size at which such a body is manageable by even so great a man as we hear that Mr. Powderly is. The number of members who seek offices is already, according to all accounts, enormous, and the offices are sought largely because they are salaried, which is a bad feature; in Mr. Sanborn's Association nobody is paid anything, or at all events only the secretary and one or two clerks. Moreover, all the accounts show that the dependence of the organization on Mr. Powderly, and the reverence felt for him by the members, are alarming, considering that he is a delicate man. If he should die or become a helpless invalid, what would happen? The English Social Science Association has this year died quietly, by simply failing to meet, and hardly anybody has noticed its disappearance. But Mr. Powderly's association could not go out in this way. Such an organization as his when it falls must fall with a tremendous crash. Anything which undertakes the work of the Christian Church, of the schools and colleges and philanthropic and educational societies all in one, cannot go down without sending a tremor through society.

We say all this on the assumption that the Grahams, the Bests, the Barrys, and the Ironses have really fallen in with Mr. Powderly's idea of making the organization simply a debating society, and giving up strikes and boycotting. But, to be entirely frank, we do not think they have. They are concurring much as the Democratic politicians concurred before election with Mr. Cleveland's civil-service reform ideas. These men have no real faith in the power of discussion, or even comprehension of it. They still really rely for the elevation of the laborer on hitting people with clubs and bricks, tearing up tracks, killing engines, and burning freight depots. They are doubtless willing to humor the gentle Powderly for a while, but they are not going to let him convert them just yet into scholars and gentlemen.

GROWING POWER OF THE PROHIBITIONISTS.

It is evident to even the most careless political observer that the temperance movement, which has for several years played so important a part in the politics of certain Western States, is spreading with great rapidity to nearly all parts of the Union. Its growth in New York and New Jersey during the past winter has been especially noticeable, and it is safe to say that it is causing the Republican managers in both States more uneasiness than anything else. A State Convention of Prohibitionists has just met in New Jersey with an attendance of nearly 800 delegates, representing every section of the State. So alarmed were the New Jersey Republican managers about this convention, that they called a conference in advance to devise means for warding off the danger which it threatened to their organization. They agreed upon an address setting forth the party attitude upon the temperance issue, which was in brief a declaration in favor of local option as the most desirable method of settling the question. The address had a great deal of sounding rhetoric upon the glorious record of the Republican party as a party of moral ideas, and as an organization which had no sympathy with rum-sellers. Its most outspoken sentence was this: "It is neither wise, practical, nor necessary to insist that legislation on this subject should be restricted to the total prohibition of the liquor traffic."

The convention, nevertheless, adhered to its purpose of nominating a prohibition State ticket. The declaration in favor of local option might have had more influence had not the last New Jersey Legislature, with a Republican majority in both houses, defeated a Local Option Bill. This proceeding, combined with the declaration against prohibition, will confirm the delegates in their already strong belief that it is useless to depend longer upon the promises of sympathy and support which the Republicans have been so prolific in giving for several years past. They are able to see, from these two manifestations, that the Republican leaders are again making their familiar attempt to hold both the temperance vote and the German saloon vote by giving a sop to each.

There are many signs that elsewhere than in New Jersey the temperance advocates have lost faith in Republican promises. Indeed, it may be said that the recent rapid growth of the movement is due largely to this cause. In New York it certainly is. Our Republican Legislature not only refused to adopt a proposition to submit a prohibition amendment to the popular vote, but the power of the whole Re-

publican organization was brought to bear upon both houses to secure the passage of a bill confessedly drawn to protect "Republican saloon-keepers." The party managers were trying to get a portion of the rum vote in this city, while holding the temperance vote in the State at large. Sheridan Shook's famous telegram exposed the plot, and the consequence is that the Republican managers are now in great fright about the havoc which the prohibition vote is likely to play with their schemes for this fall and for 1888.

Aside from recent Republican legislation, there are two great causes which have led to the growth of the temperance party, and which seem destined to continue that growth far beyond its present limits. One is the utter absence of anything like a moral issue in the Republican party of to-day. The party represents nothing positive in government or morals. It is trying to live upon its past, and to regain power through the mistakes of its opponents. In the United States Senate, where it has control, it has done nothing notable during the present session except to pass a series of gigantic subsidy schemes, which were reckless enough in their folly to have been drawn by a Venerable Sage of the Knights of Labor. The party's leaders are either harping upon Jefferson Davis and the sectional issue, or attempting to make political capital against the Administration because the Secretary of State is conducting the fishery controversy in a dignified and proper manner. Instead of trying to put the party upon a basis of live issues, where it might command the support of intelligent men, the leaders are groping about for issues which will catch the Irish, the soldier, the labor, the liquor, and various other kinds of "votes." Not only are temperance advocates weary of a party thus led, but thousands of Republicans, who are not professed temperance men, are scarcely less weary, and would hail with delight an opportunity to vote for any candidate who represented a living and positive principle.

That the temperance question furnishes such a principle, nobody can deny. The increase of the liquor-selling evil is so alarming that no man who is interested in sobriety, and order, and good government can fail to be made serious by it. It confronts him on every street corner in all our cities, and makes him inclined to cast his vote with any party which will make an honest effort to mitigate or even to suppress it altogether. Therein lies the second and greatest cause of the present temperance movement. The truth, too, of the Prohibition party's charge, that neither of the regular parties can be trusted to grapple with this evil, cannot be gainsaid. The Democratic party, indeed, makes no pretensions of such purpose. The Republican pretensions are worthless, because there is no sincerity behind them. Their party leaders would like to have the temperance vote, and they would conduct the party so as to deserve it if they could only make up their minds that there were as many temperance voters as there are Irish and German Republican voters. That was the problem which confronted Mr. Blaine when he was called upon in Maine in 1884 to vote on the prohibition amendment, and he decided that the latter vote was the larger, and "dodged" accordingly. Every time the Republican party has been brought squarely to the same issue it has "dodged" in the same way, and it is small wonder that the temperance people have at last become tired of the game.

THE HOME-RULE MOVEMENT.—II.

ITS WEAKNESS.

OXFORD, May 18, 1886.

THE weakness of the home-rule movement arises at bottom wholly from two facts, which deserve the most serious consideration.

The first but not the most important of these facts is, that of genuine enthusiasm for home rule—of such faith in principle, for example, as prevailed among the advocates of Catholic Emancipation—there is in Great Britain no trace whatever. That, for one reason or another, the majority of the electorate may support Mr. Gladstone's policy, is to my mind within the range not only of possibility, but even of likelihood. But the very electors who vote for Mr. Gladstone's bill will, in general, vote for it because it is Mr. Gladstone's bill, and not because it is a measure for giving Ireland a Parliament. If the very scheme drafted by Mr. Gladstone had been propounded by Lord Salisbury, not one elector in a thousand would have looked at it; and if Mr. Gladstone had devoted his talents to opposing home rule, not a word would have been heard from any Liberal member in favor of conceding Mr. Parnell's demands. If the whole constitution of England is changed, a fundamental alteration in our polity will for the first time take place without being carried into effect by the force of popular enthusiasm.

The second and far more serious fact is, that on this matter of home rule the "educated classes"—the expression is not one I like, but it is the only term which conveys my meaning—are as nearly unanimous against Mr. Gladstone's proposals as it is possible for thousands of people to be on any one subject. Your readers may naturally think that, being on conviction myself an opponent of home rule, I am mistaken in my estimate of public feeling. Of course this may be so. All I can say is, that though not (I think) a person prone to feel too much confidence in my judgment as to the course of public affairs, I cannot feel the least doubt as to the truth of my assertion that the vast majority of educated men throughout England and Scotland are strenuously opposed to Mr. Gladstone's policy. It may well be doubted whether candid Gladstonians would maintain that I am on this point in error. The conduct of public men such as Lord Hartington and Mr. Chamberlain; the significant silence of John Bright, or rather his very unaccustomed restraint in utterance of his opinion at a great crisis; Mr. Gladstone's denunciation of "classes"; his son's wildly inaccurate version of history; the whole tone of the London press, and a score of other signs, seem to me to show, past a doubt, that not only rich men but thoughtful men are, in general, opponents of the new policy which Mr. Gladstone is attempting to make part of the Liberal creed.

Now, let any one take these two facts into consideration, and he will easily see the way in which they tell against the success of the home-rule movement. From the want of enthusiasm for it in England, combined with the opposition of the Liberal classes, flow the following (among other) consequences which I will attempt to enumerate, in the barest and clearest manner.

(1.) For the first time in modern English history an attempt is going to be made, and may very likely prove successful, to carry through a great constitutional change by force of numbers, as opposed to force of argument. Note that I do not assert (for this is a matter on which sensible persons may fairly differ, and my private opinions ought not to be thrust upon your readers) that Mr. Gladstone's policy is erroneous. All I do assert is, that at the present moment he is outargued. If (as is likely enough) he wins, he will win by virtue of an appeal to faith and sentiment, not to argument and to reason. Whoever will compare the utterances, say, of Mr. Goschen, of Lord Hartington, of Lord Selborne, of Sir Henry James on the Home-Rule Bill with the apologies for that measure put forward by Mr. Gladstone himself, Mr. John Morley, Mr. Bryce, and the other adherents of the Government, will admit that the opponents of the bill appeal to the understanding, while its supporters in the main appeal to the sentiment of the people.

(2.) Hence it follows that if Mr. Gladstone's policy meet with the approval of the electors, popular feeling will have triumphed over the convictions, be they right or wrong, of the educated part of the nation. This is in itself an immense evil. The best feature of the English democracy has been and still is the readiness of electors who can know little about public affairs to be guided by the experience and judgment of trained statesmen. Catholic Emancipation, the Reform of Parliament, the amendment of the Poor Law, the repeal of the Corn Laws, were all the carrying out by the people of measures some of which were opposed to popular feeling, but all of which had long been advocated by the best thinkers of the day. Break down the traditional deference paid in England by ignorance to knowledge, and you break down the one great security for the maintenance of wise government under democratic institutions.

(3.) The success of Mr. Gladstone's policy will inevitably be (though very likely against the wish of Mr. Gladstone himself) the inauguration of a system of personal government. Let a Minister obtain the confidence of the masses, and such a Minister can, it is already clear, persuade thousands of electors that the whole duty of a member of Parliament is to adhere not to such member's principles, but to his leader. The lesson is one easily enough taught, but it is one which is not easily unlearnt. Every one who knows the weak side of free institutions, dreads the advent of "providential men," of "saviors of society," of popular heroes; and Mr. Gladstone is undoubtedly at the present moment, in the eyes of his admirers among the electors, one of those heaven-sent guides whose wisdom can hardly be questioned without the sin of political blasphemy. The crowd have on this occasion singled out for worship a man who stands head and shoulders above the politicians around him; but the real glory with which an idol may be surrounded does not detract from the perniciousness of idolatry, and the condition of popular feeling with regard to Mr. Gladstone may be honestly deplored even by persons who believe that Mr. Gladstone's influence is being used for a good end.

(4.) Gladstonian idolatry is degrading the tone of public life. It is the universal belief that out of the members of the House of Commons who bona fide believe in the policy of home rule, the Ministry could not obtain, I will not say a majority, but even a respectable minority, in support of their proposals. Yet no one doubts that a great number of members, it may be a majority of the House, will support the second reading of the bill. Every one out of Parliament thinks (that is to say) that a large body of English gentlemen may, on a matter of supreme interest to their country, vote against their consciences. This idea may do gross injustice to our representatives, but there are certainly reasons enough for its existence. All over the country, Liberal

managers are urging on Liberal members the necessity of supporting a bill of which, as every one knows, many of these members do not approve. Men who always opposed home rule, and have recently denounced the Conservative alliance with Mr. Parnell, are being informed, with more or less plainness, that if Mr. Gladstone has become a Home-Ruler, followers of Mr. Gladstone must remember that a follower should follow; that it is for the Premier to find a policy, and for his supporters to find votes. Rumors are current that, to use the not very decent cant imputed to a leading politician, more than one member has "found salvation" by sudden conversion (under pressure) to the home-rule creed. Here, again, we see that the lesson is being taught to public men which, once learnt, will never be forgotten. Whatever be the end of the contest over home rule, it is certain that its incidents will lower the character of English statesmanship.

(5.) The home-rule policy, even if it be, as its advocates maintain, the wisest mode of dealing with Ireland, involves one admitted evil of which the magnitude may be exaggerated, but of which it is hard to deny the reality. It is a policy which must trouble instead of easing the national conscience. It involves at the outset the condonation, and indeed the reward, of lawlessness and injustice. It involves the desertion of men who, whatever their faults, have trusted to the protection of the English Parliament, and have been ill treated simply because they have respected the law and have attempted to exercise their legal rights. It involves in the future the surrender of all serious attempts to prevent the infliction of gross injustice on large bodies of men who are still citizens of the United Kingdom, and in any case will remain British subjects. This is and ought to be a most serious matter. A policy which may logically lead to the employment of British troops to enforce on Ulster obedience to a Parliament in Dublin, in cases where, in the opinion of Englishmen, the Irish Parliament is violating the rules of equity, may turn out wise and right; but it is a policy which rightly enough excites alarm, and disquiets the souls of men who think that the maintenance of justice between man and man is the main object for which the state exists.

I have purposely abstained from dwelling on what may be called the general arguments against the Home-Rule Bill. My aim has been rather to call attention to certain aspects of the present movement which may easily escape the notice of American observers, and which in my judgment render large bodies of Englishmen hostile to Mr. Gladstone's proposals, and, by stirring up such hostility, weaken the movement in favor of home rule. Let it, however, be carefully noted that I do not hazard any prophecy as to the relative power of the forces which favor, and of the forces which oppose, the success of Mr. Gladstone's attempt to place the relations between England and Ireland on an entirely new basis. We are in the midst of a revolution; it were the rashest and vainest of all things to endeavor to foretell what course that revolution may take. A great writer who remembered the first French revolution, has said somewhere that the worst of a revolutionary movement is that you begin it in company with all the honest men, and come out of it in company with all the knaves. This dictum is one of those sayings which impress on prudent men a possibly excessive dread of movements resting directly or indirectly on the encouragement of popular violence and the overthrow of law.

A. V. Dicey.

THE OPPOSITION IN IRELAND TO HOME RULE.

Dublin, May 18, 1886.

I have frequently drawn attention to the intensity of the opposition in Ireland to any plan of home rule, mainly among Protestants and the cultured classes. It is idle to ridicule or underrate the extent of this feeling. There it is, and it must be dealt with and allowed for. While 85 out of our 103 members are Nationalists; while the minority of 18 is confined to Ulster constituencies, except representatives elected by the close borough of Dublin University; while even Ulster has returned a majority on the National side, the opposition is nevertheless powerful and steady. If only as material for history, the intensity and persistency of this opposition are worth recording. On its reasonableness or unreasonableness the future alone can conclusively decide. The great meeting of the Irish Loyal and Patriotic Union, held at the Rotunda a few days ago, affords a good opportunity of estimating its strength. A careful perusal of the speeches at those meetings must make any Irish Protestant Nationalist feel what a responsibility he assumes in differing from such an earnest, sincere, and cultivated body of men, with whose views on other questions he so much more nearly coincides than with those of his Nationalist friends.

The Rotunda is the largest room in Dublin; it was thronged, and an overflow meeting occupied a large concert hall upon the same premises. Admission was by ticket. The attendance was eminently upper-class and "respectable"—very different in its appearance and bearing from that presented by an average assembly at Nationalist meetings. The *Freeman's Journal* remarked that the working-class element was scarcely represented—that the meeting consisted mainly of "dudes." The Conservative *Express* was on the whole more correct: "Peers of the realm, merchants, professional men, clerks, laboring men—all differences of rank disappearing for the nonce—here came together to pronounce the opinion of vast numbers of the Irish people." There was a larger sprinkling of Catholics than, since the inception of the Land League movement, there occurs of Protestants at Nationalist meetings. The chair was taken by the Provost of Trinity College, Mr. Jellett, a man of the highest character, who has been ready to show his sympathy with great moral reforms. Many of the speakers were merchants of high standing, entirely above the suspicion of narrow motives—men to whom the community would first turn for leadership or advice in any matter connected with trade or commerce. Prof. Dowden was there—the Shaksperian critic, the Shelleyist. It may be remarked that whereas the opposition of most speakers was based on distrust of their fellow-countrymen and dread of a general upturning and commercial depression likely to ensue from Irish legislation, the opposition of Prof. Dowden arose rather from his belief that the exclusion of the Irish members from the Imperial Parliament would be derogatory to Ireland and lowering to the character of its people. He termed the bill one "for the disruption of the Liberal party, the disfranchisement of Ireland, and the dismemberment of the empire." Under the proposed change, "the wealth of England would be no longer at our back." "The only reason that could be conceived for honest Englishmen supporting the bill was that it got rid of Ireland, and left England free to work her will on the world." Resolutions were enthusiastically passed condemning Mr. Gladstone's bill, and calling upon "our fellow-subjects to maintain, by every legitimate means in their power, the unity of these kingdoms, and we tender our best thanks to our many friends at home and abroad who came forward to assist us in maintaining the integrity of the empire."

This meeting only expressed the vehement convictions of a section of Irish society even more strongly declared in private than in public—except that in private the opposition to home rule is more admittedly based upon a dread of Catholicism *per se* than it is considered polite or expedient to confess in public. A thoughtful bank manager said to me, as Mr. Gladstone's exposition of his bill was coming in by telegraph, "You have *now* every step of the French Revolution unfolding before you: you now see the two orders debating together; the work will be crowned by the guillotine taking the place of King William in College Green." One of the first stock-brokers in Dublin declared: "If this bill becomes law, economic disasters will ensue, and before many years are over you will see men falling dead of starvation in the streets of Dublin." The librarian of a public library remarked: "You will yet see an auto-da-fé in Dublin, and you [Protestants who side with the Nationalists] will be the first victims"! "Every respectable person will leave the country" is the mildest prediction of most such individuals. Now that Gladstone and Spencer have spoken, it is certainly not utterly disreputable to be a Nationalist, as it used to be, but the lines are perhaps more sharply drawn; the battle is more closely knit than ever before. Men who could discuss the question together six months ago, now find it best to avoid the subject, if they desire to conserve their friendship for more settled times. We hear much of armed preparation in the north to oppose the measure if it pass, and to resist the authority of a Dublin Parliament. The mouthpiece of this party, William Johnston "of Ballykilbeg," is a man of sterling character. He figures on temperance, women's-suffrage, and other social-reform platforms—a man of small means, whose family have to make their way in the world, and who lately relinquished a Government situation of £700 a year rather than stifle the public expression of his convictions. The yearly meeting of the Society of Friends in Ireland is just over. Several of the northern Friends present said they would refuse to pay taxes if the measure passed. It is true that a motion to include condemnation of home rule in the Epistle to the London yearly meeting was defeated, on account of the strong protest of a few Friends; but were matters decided, as in other assemblies, by vote, it would have been carried by an overwhelming majority.

The opposition shown to home rule is by many said to be no greater than that exhibited on previous occasions by the same classes in Ireland to Catholic Emancipation and Church Disestablishment. This is scarcely correct. Those measures were dreaded by certain classes almost as much as is the present; but upon the whole the opposition was not so determined and clearly defined. Many Protestants advocated Emancipation; fewer, Church Disestablishment; though there are more Protestants sympathizing with home rule than show in public or on platforms, their number is certainly small. Fiery passages regarding Disestablishment, such as the following by the Hon. David Plunket, now M. P. for Dublin University, are quoted on Nationalist platforms as showing that the present talk is all bunkum: At a meeting in 1869, Plunket

"appealed to our brother Protestants in England, Scotland, and Wales to stand by us in this last awful hour of our fortunes. . . . We call upon them not to drive us again to that old kind of material, physical resistance which accompanied the first protesting of our forefathers three centuries ago; which accompanied the second protest in this kingdom by our forefathers two hundred years ago; which accompanied the glorious struggle for liberty

and Protestantism of our predecessors, and was a protest in act and word which they were willing to seal with their blood in martyrdom and battle, if need be, to protest against the oppression and the slavery of a system which they could not, and should not, and which their descendants never will submit to."

I might quote many similar passages, such as the famous declaration (cheered) of a reverend gentleman at a meeting about the same time as above, that if the Irish Church were disestablished, "Irish Protestants would kick the Queen's crown into the Boyne"; but I am bound to say that, in looking over the records of such past agitations, I cannot perceive as high a level of strong protest as we have at present. Separation is declared to be preferable to the proposed arrangement, because "under separation our hands would not be tied by England, and we should be fully able to reconquer the island from the Catholics."

It is remarkable that some, once apparently on the side of Irish self-government, now that the dream is likely to become reality, have joined the opposition. Among these are Goldwin Smith, William H. Lecky, whose 'Leaders of Public Opinion' drew many Protestants into the National ranks; Prof. Dowden, who was supposed by many to be National; also the author of "Who fears to speak of '98?" who was on the platform of the Rotunda; and, perhaps the most striking case, Boyd Kinnear, a Scotch advocate, the author of several papers on the National side, and who declared shortly before the murder of the Secretaries that, "if Scotland were governed as is Ireland, the life of no English official would be safe outside the radius of a policeman's baton."

The ascendency or coercion party are certainly standing to their guns. There is no seeking to make friends with the mammon of unrighteousness. They mean to show fight to the last. They appear entirely unable to recognize what in some form or other is inevitable. They profess themselves prepared for a continuance of the history of the past eighty-three years, with its sixty or seventy coercion acts. They must see some way of working in Parliament against eighty-five Irish members banded together like one man. If continued agitation be, as it is, so destructive of the best interests of the country, have they any better remedy to suggest than Mr. Gladstone's scheme? They seem blind to its checks and safeguards; also to the fact that it is frankly accepted by the Irish party—even by such "extremists" as John Dillon and William O'Brien—men who, whatever may have been their action in the past, are above all suspicion by those who really know them, men of transparent honor and honesty. Nothing could be stronger than the declaration of both these gentlemen, who, with Mr. Parnell, hold in their hands the feelings of the Irish people to a degree almost unprecedented in the past. The attitude of the Opposition as expressed in the Irish Loyal and Patriotic Union can arise only from complete ignorance of the real character and intentions of such men—of the real effect of concession upon them.

"What has happened in the case of Earl Spencer?" said Mr. O'Brien. "One touch of kindliness in one speech at Newcastle has effaced and obliterated years of bitter memories from the hearts of Irishmen [Irish cheers], and the speeches of the Prime Minister in this house and the kindly English feeling shown in this house, and, I am glad to say, out of it, sir—these things have done more than fifty coercion acts could do—have done more to bring about a union, a real union, a union of sympathy and of generosity and respect between the two countries. Well, sir, I ask you, Is that a people so hopeless to conciliate?"

The action and speech of men under antagonism and coercion are no measure of their action and speech under trust and responsibility. If the bitter feeling of opponents is best ascertained in private intercourse, so in private intercourse is that of the leading Nationalists most correctly gauged. And they show themselves to be steadied and altered men, impressed by a sense of the responsibilities likely to devolve upon them, and without the suspicion of a desire to act otherwise than fairly by their fellow-countrymen. A member of the party lately said, in private conversation, that he did not desire the modification of any one of the checks and safeguards in Mr. Gladstone's bill, believing all would be necessary, and would rather assist those who sought to pacify the country and to govern wisely and well.

These are the great difficulties before us: (1) The disappointments inevitable among the mass of the people at the results of home rule. The definite and absurd anticipations put forward by Nationalists to spur on the people to contend for autonomy, impossible as they will be of realization, will cause the greatest difficulty to be encountered in working home rule. This has been long acknowledged. "I know well what will ensue," remarked one of the leading Irish Nationalists some years ago: "the first home-rule Ministry will be assassinated." (2) The second great difficulty will arise from the present attitude and action of the upper classes. Those who at first will be best fitted to lead in thought, in economics, in manufactures, in the practical affairs of life, are those who have most resisted reform and the aspirations and desires of the mass of the Irish people. And it will be some time before the people learn to confide in that class as regards those matters in which, for the steady progress of the country, it ought to lead.

Seeing that the apprehensions of disaster from home rule are as great as they undoubtedly are at present, it is remarkable that Irish investments and property have not fallen even lower than they have fallen in value. Bank of Ireland stock is much depressed, but that is due less to the political outlook than to the realization, consequent on the failure of the Munster Bank, that for years it stood at an abnormal figure. The stocks of the three other principal banks, the Royal, the Provincial, and the National, have fallen within the year from 28 to 22, 29 to 20, 24 to 19; part of this decrease may be attributed to the failure of the Munster Bank, part to the state of the country. The stocks of the three principal railways, the Great Southern, Midland, and Northern, have in the same period fallen from 112 to 92, 71 to 62, 113 to 95. In the same period the stocks of some of the principal English lines, the North-Western, the North-Eastern, and the Great Western, have fallen from 162 to 152, 153 to 143, 135 to 127. The value of land as an agricultural investment has depreciated here as much as in England. Land let to tenants is, of course, here almost unsalable. The better class of mansion houses near Dublin have very much decreased in value; this has arisen from many other causes than those connected with politics. The residences of the better class trading and the rank and file of the professional classes, say those at about £100 a year in ordinary localities, have depreciated little, if at all. I was to-day speaking with a representative of one of our largest wholesale houses, that has connections all over the country. He is a cool observer, and insists that the commercial depression over Ireland is very much exaggerated, and that in any case it is little, if at all, due to the agitation. Be this as it may, the indefinite postponement of radical reform in the direction of self-government is not likely to benefit Ireland. Probably before very long many will declare publicly, what they now privately acknowledge, that anything would be better than a continuance of the present unsettlement.

D. B.

THE DUC DE BROGLIE'S RECOLLECTIONS.—II.

PARIS, May 17, 1886.

As soon as Mme. de Staël heard the news of the arrival of Napoleon at Cannes, she saw at once the consequences—the army in revolt, the country resigned to a new change, the King obliged to return into exile, and the Emperor at the Tuileries. She left Paris, the Duc de Broglie remained. The country offered a miserable spectacle. Treason was everywhere; the same people who had made great royalist demonstrations, prepared themselves for the new order of things. Benjamin Constant wrote a flaming article against the usurper, and the ink was not yet dry when he repented having written it. Louis XVIII. went to the Chambers, and announced solemnly that he had resolved to die on the throne, and to defend his people. The Duc de Broglie compares this scene to that of a play: "The curtain once fallen, the old King rolled away in his chair, and it was all over." When the fatal moment arrived, the Duc de Broglie did not feel for the persons any great regret. He did not go to the Tuileries; he knew that he was considered by the Legitimists there a secret enemy. He saw everything from the outside, as a mere witness. "It was easy," says he, "to see through the windows the movements, the precipitation, the trouble of people who feared to hear, from moment to moment, the quick step of the imperial grenadiers. In seeing this little man, exalted by a hundred victories, with a handful of old soldiers throw down with a movement of his hand this castle of cards, I remembered involuntarily the scene in the novel of Cervantes where the hero of La Mancha enters a puppet theatre, and, seeing a princess chained to a pasteboard giant, draws his great sword and cuts in two the prison and the prisoners."

The day after the departure of Louis XVIII. Paris was lugubrious. All the cafés were shut, the passers-by avoided each other. Nobody was in the streets but a few drunken soldiers, singing the "Marseillaise." Towards night "the master arrived. He came like a thief, to use the Scriptural expression. He went up the great staircase of the Tuileries, in the arms of his generals, of his former ministers, of all the past and present servitors of his fortunes, who bore as much anxiety as joy on their faces." The order of the day was a Constitution: the Empire proclaimed itself this time liberal and constitutional. The Duc de Broglie did not believe much in all these demonstrations; he recalls an ironical saying of the times: "How could I fail to be a Liberal? I served in the Mamelukes." We come here upon a curious incident. At a reunion of journalists of some eminence, the Duc de Broglie said openly that he did not for his part believe in this new constitutionalism; "that all hope of dressing the Emperor Napoleon in the garb of a constitutional king was folly; that the expectation of hindering him from attempting new adventures, and from bringing the Allies back a second time to Paris, was another folly. There was but one thing to do, which was to take advantage of this constitutional *coup de vent*, in order to organize a government to disembarrass France of the Emperor, and to prevent a second invasion. The oldest branch of the house of Bourbon had fallen, and not without reason, into great contempt. I pointed to the cadet branch as the only hope of good people and of men of good sense. I was not, however, initiated in any plot; I was not even in intimate relations with the Duc d'Orléans. I had been presented to him, he had received me affably, but I saw him rarely. His position marked him naturally in the circumstances in which we were."

It is singular to see the Duc de Broglie antici-

pating the Revolution of 1830 in the year 1814. He was probably not the only person who, at this time, desired to substitute the younger branch of the Bourbons for the eldest. Louis Philippe has left a curious volume of memoirs relating to this part of his life, and to his journey to Ghent. It is not difficult to see in it that he was suspected by the King. He had disapproved some of the measures of the Restoration, and was looked upon almost as a Jacobin.

Benjamin Constant, who had written violent articles against Napoleon when the news came of his departure from Elba, had fled to Angers. Since Tacitus and Juvenal, nothing more elo quent had been said against tyrants. Napoleon, who understood the man, instead of proscribing him, sent for him, asked his advice about the new Constitution, made of him a sort of political Egeria, and appointed him Councillor of State. When the Duc de Broglie saw him again, he was in his gilded uniform. There was no explanation; they jumped at once into the discussion of the articles of a new Constitution. Humboldt was present, and in high good-humor. The Duc de Broglie insisted upon the necessity of accepting the hereditary principle in a house of peers.

The Constitution appeared under the name of "Acte additionnel," and was submitted to the docile sanction of the people. It was adopted, as all preceding Constitutions had been. The Duc de Broglie took it seriously, and offered himself as a candidate for the new Chamber of Deputies; but he was not thought, he says, sufficiently Bonapartist, and he was not elected. When he returned to Paris he saw the grand review of the army—the Emperor, surrounded by his splendid staff; the Guard, the regiments who passed before Napoleon: "Cæsar, morituri te salutant." The whole of Europe was preparing to fall again on France; everybody felt that the end was approaching.

The Duc de Broglie remained in Paris till Waterloo. He speaks severely of some of the men who came back with Louis XVIII.: "His Excellency the Duc d'Otrante, the ex-Oratorian Fouché of Nantes, a monster running over with blood, with gall, and with mud, was enacting his latest treason (the smallest, surely, of his peccadilloes), in taking the oath from the hands of the son of Saint-Louis, the brother of Louis XVI., amid the acclamations of good royalists." His patron on this expedition was the ancient Bishop of Autun, who, after having successively thrown away his priest's gown on the fall of the monarchy, his toga on the fall of the Directory, his little crown of Benevento on the fall of the empire, had merely become now the Prince de Talleyrand, first minister of his most Christian King. What figure his most Christian King cut between these two *défroqués* I cannot imagine, but I have been told that when they remounted their carriage, Pozzo di Borgo laughed and said to his neighbor: "I should like to hear what these lambs have to say."

Blücher entered the Tuileries first with his Prussians. The doors of the two chambers were shut. The royalist reaction began all over France. The Duc de Broglie passes rapidly over the return of the King to Paris and the events which followed. The King struck from the House of Peers the members who had consented to sit in the Imperial House of Peers, and replaced them by noted royalists. He exiled thirty-eight persons more or less known, Carnot among the number, who, when he saw himself on the list, went to Fouché and asked him: "Where do you wish me to go, traitor?" "Wherever you like, imbecile," answered his ex-colleague of the Committee of Public Safety. The traitor soon followed the imbecile. The Government first offered Fouché the mission to the United States, he refused it; he accepted the mission to Dresden and finally retired to Grätz.

The Duc de Broglie is very severe on the House of Peers of 1815, of which he was a member. "I do not exaggerate," he says, "when I say that the violence of the dominant party, in the Chamber and out of the Chamber, recalled the worst days of the National Convention." The escape of M. de la Valette from his prison divided Paris into two camps: on one side the men whom the Duc de Broglie calls the Jacobins of the monarchy, and on the other side the moderate men of all shades of opinions and of all ranks. M. de la Valette had been arrested on the 16th of August and condemned to death on the 20th of November. Marshal Ney, arrested on the 6th of August, was condemned to death on the 6th of December. Three peers only were adverse to the condemnation, the Duc de Broglie, Lanjuinais, and Porcher de Richebourg. The Duke gives interesting details of the discussions which took place between them. The vote was nominal, and each peer had to answer these questions: Did Marshal Ney read this proclamation to the troops? In so doing, did the Marshal commit the crime of high treason? The facts were so clear that Lanjuinais said yes, though he added that, in his opinion, Ney was covered by the articles of the Capitulation of Paris. M. Porcher said yes, and begged the Chamber to be generous in the application of the law. The Duc de Broglie spoke among the last, and said boldly *no* to the second question: "There is," said he, "no crime without any criminal intention; no treason without premeditation. I see, in the facts with which Marshal Ney is justly reproached, no premeditation, no intention of treason. He left with the intention of remaining faithful. At the last moment, he succumbed to a current which seemed to him general, and which unfortunately was so. It was a weakness which will be severely characterized by history, but which does not fall under the definitions of the law. There are, besides, events which, by their nature and their consequences, are out of the pale of human justice." The Duke says that after having spoken thus, "he owes it to the Chamber to say that the temerity and, he might even say, considering the times and the circumstances, the scandal of his first vote excited no exclamation nor murmur; and that, at the exit from the session, nobody avoided him, or showed him any ill will."

This memorable sitting of the House of Peers ended very late. The Duc de Broglie returned to his house, but could not sleep. He opened his window in the early morning, and saw an English battalion marching, with drums and music. "It was at this moment that Marshal Ney, whom the fire and the sword of the enemy had always spared, fell under twelve French balls. The general of these Englishmen, the true commander of Paris, at this lugubrious epoch, Wellington, could have hindered this sacrifice with one single word. It would have been better for his glory to have even forced the text of the Capitulation in favor of Ney, than to have done violence to the conscience of Louis XVIII. by imposing on him as minister a regicide Terrorist."

Mme. de Staël had meanwhile established herself at Pisa with her daughter, with Schlegel, and with M. Rocca, whose health was rapidly sinking. At the beginning of 1816 the Duc de Broglie left for Italy with the son of Mme. de Staël. His marriage with Mlle. de Staël was celebrated in February. There were two religious ceremonies; the Protestant service was read by an Irish clergyman named De Lacy, and one of the witnesses was an Englishman, familiarly called Bob Smith, the brother of Sydney Smith, who was staying in Pisa for the health of a daughter. Robert Smith had been the friend of Mr. Canning from childhood, and was deemed his superior. When he entered Parliament, it was thought that he would be a great Parliamentarian. When he rose for the first time he could not speak; he sat down, and never tried to speak again.

During his stay in Italy the Duc de Broglie became well acquainted with Sismondi. He saw the Countess of Albany, and Gonfalonieri, the hope and ornament of the Liberals in Italy, who afterwards paid for this honor by a long captivity in the prison of Spielberg. He stopped on his return at Coppet, on the Lake of Geneva, and took as much interest in the politics of the Canton of Geneva as if he had been a Swiss. He often saw at Coppet Lord Byron, then a voluntary exile, who was living on the lake with an Italian doctor named Polidori. He also became acquainted with the famous Stein, and with Gen. La Harpe, with Lord Lansdowne and Lord Brougham. He gives very vivid portraits of these personages. On his return to Paris he took his place in the House of Peers, and his political career fairly began.

Correspondence.

JOHN HARVARD. — AUDI ALTERAM PARTEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have received a marked copy of No. 1084 of *The Nation*, containing an article contributed by "Z.," of Cambridge, Eng., entitled "John Harvard and his Ancestry: Notes on Mr. Waters," which seems to call for a reply. I will refer to its statements and criticisms in order.

If "Z." will take the pains to inquire of John T. Hassam, Esq., the Chairman of the Committee on English Research of the New England Historic Genealogical Society, he will learn that more than two years ago, or early in 1884, an attempt was made to examine the Records of St. Katharine's Hospital, with results similar to those which attended his own attempt.

As to the significance of the clause in the Probate Act of Thomas Harvard's will, reserving power of probate for his brother John "when he should come to seek it," let me say that I have seen too many Probate Acts with like clauses, not to be aware that it was a "set form," which, on the face of it, shows simply that "the other executor did not then prove." The fact, however, that, within a short time after the probate of this will, *our* John Harvard made his appearance in New England, seemed to me, and I think rightfully, to impart to the "set form," in this instance, a special significance, as furnishing the reason why "the other executor did not then prove," viz.: that he may have been crossing the ocean, or that, intending so to do, he knew that he could not properly attend to the business of settling the estate of his brother. At any rate, my notice of this clause and the explanation of the non-appearance of "the other executor," which suggested itself at once to my mind, led to the discovery of John Harvard. From the extract from the letter of the late Col. Chester, published in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* of 1882 (p. 319), we may draw the reasonable inference that he had made this problem a matter of study: an inference which I have had confirmed by the positive testimony of one of his intimate friends, the Rev. Frederick Brown, whose loss the antiquarian world has had so recently to deplore. I will venture to assert that if Col. Chester had chanced to see this will of Thomas Harvard (hidden from a special search by a faulty index), so keen an investigator would not have failed to be struck by the significance of the "set form" in this instance, and would never have rested until he had solved the problem. He would have zealously

sought for every reference to these Southwark Harvards. He would have reëxamined and scrutinized with especial care the will of the father. He would have noticed the intimate relation which Richard Yearwood bore to the family, and would have most assuredly hunted for the will of that trusted friend of the Harvards. Finding that, he would have noted the significance of one little sentence in the bequests of the testator to his wife Katherine: "And I do further give unto her all such household stuff and so much value in plate as she brought with her when I married her." A genealogist of his large experience would have noticed this almost "set form" instantly; and instantly these questions would have suggested themselves: Was not this Katherine the testator's second wife? Was she not a widow when he married her? If so, whose? May she not have been the widow of his old friend Robert Harvard? I do not know how much experience "Z." has had; but, for myself, I can say that I never read such a bequest as "I give my wife such household stuff as she brought with her on our marriage," that the second of the questions above does not arise in my mind. I fully believe, therefore, that Col. Chester would have tried to find the will of Katherine Yearwood, if she made one; and, finding it, would have settled the question of the parentage of John Harvard. It seems to me clear that the interest he took in the subject only needed such a stimulus as that clause of reservation in the probate of Thomas Harvard's will to hurry him forward to the discovery, perhaps years ago.

Reserving for the present the consideration of errors in the text, I come to the matter of the excerpt from the records of the Clothworkers' Company, for which "Z." is entitled to my thanks and the commendation of all interested in the history of the Harvard family. Crowded with work as I was, and pressed for time, I simply held it in reserve (the story of Harvard's family and ancestry is not yet finished by any means). I could guess beforehand the nature of the genealogical evidence it would furnish, and knew just where to lay my hand on it when it should be needed. If the mother's will had not turned up, "Z." may feel quite sure this would have been presented in my first contribution, and relied upon as evidence to show that Thomas and John Harvard were sons of Robert. The mother's will found, this was not so necessary. I suppose, however, it will yet appear (subject to the decision of the Committee); only "Z.," I trust, will not think it strange if my copy differs a little from his.

Then follow two rather singular criticisms. First, as to the induction of John Sadler, the father, at Ringmer, he says: "Mr. Waters appears here to be mixing up the two separate acts of induction and institution." I derived my first information on this point from the MSS. of the well-known Sussex antiquary, Sir William Burrell, who wrote "Ind.," which I ventured to "extend," to quote an expression used by "Z." Further research proved Burrell to be right.

Second, in regard to John Sadler, the son, Master of Magdalen College, Cambridge, my statement, gathered from a well-known book, to which I referred, is thus criticised: "This statement can only have been made in ignorance of the facts." It seems to me that the charge of ignorance applies to Le Neve and not to me.

My omission of *uno* (!) before *executorū* and the error (!) of *petitur* for *petitum* remain to be considered. For calling my attention to the former, "Z." has my thanks. I find, on looking back, that I had already noticed this omission. I hope "Z." will pardon me if I suggest that the omitted word, in the present instance, is *unius*, and not, as he suggests, *uno*. As to the error of *petitur* for *petitum*, I must very decidedly take issue with "Z." In my reading of some thousands of English wills I must have seen some scores (I may say hundreds) which contained in the Probate Acts the "set form" to which "Z." refers, and I do not believe I have ever seen *petitum* or anything but *petitur*. I do not feel called upon to enter the lists as champion for the clerks who chose to employ the future active participle rather than the supine in "um" after the verb of motion, to express intention. I simply note the fact that they did so choose and I but followed copy. I did not even "extend" the original into *petiturus*, as probably "Z." would have done; although I cannot say that I have any serious objections to make to that, provided that due care be taken, *e. g.*, if the character ꝑ is to be extended, the context should be carefully examined, and the sense should determine whether it be extended into "par" or "per." To give examples—ꝑtem would be *partem*, nuꝑ would be *nuper*, and ꝑ *octo annos* would be *per octo annos*.

HENRY F. WATERS.

LONDON, ENGLAND, May 8, 1886.

COLLEGIATE ALUMNÆ.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A recent number of the *Nation* contained the review of a work describing life in an Eastern college, and conclusions were drawn from the book regarding the progress made in the collegiate education of women. If these conclusions are based solely on the books that have as yet appeared intended to describe the college life of women, they are unfortunately correct—the opportunities presented for higher education have simply prolonged for four years the period of boarding-school life. But the great majority of college alumnæ have not been inclined to write novels and romances, and while they feel it is only natural that the general public should derive its impressions from the works of those who have, they also feel that these books present as unfaithful a picture of the aims and work of the average college woman as do the current newspaper comments on athletics at Harvard and Yale of the intellectual life of these institutions.

The time is yet too short for them to point to many great results to substantiate their position, but beginnings have been made which it is hoped will put their work before the public in a truer light. In 1882 an organization was perfected in Boston of the alumnæ resident in the East of the thirteen leading co-educational and women's colleges, and it now enrolls 450 members. In 1883 a similar association was formed in Chicago of Western alumnæ; its present membership being eighty. Branch organizations have been established in all the leading cities East and West, where local meetings are held in addition to the annual meetings of the parent organizations. It is believed that these two societies fairly represent the aims of the college women of this country.

One purpose of the associations has been to investigate all questions affecting the higher education of women, and by scientific methods to enforce the theories of those advocating such education. The two objections most frequently urged against the advanced training of women are, first, that they are physically incapable of it; and, second, that it will be detrimental to the best interests of society by withdrawing women from domestic life. The first subject undertaken by the Eastern Association was an inquiry into the effect of collegiate education upon the physical condition of women. Elaborate statistics were collected by the Association, and afterwards compiled by the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor. It was the wish of those engaged in the work that these facts should speak for themselves, and the general attention that has been called to them, and the conclusions derived from them by the thinking public, they feel have not been unfavorable to the cause.

A glance at the work already accomplished and at what has been begun will indicate the thought of the Association in regard to the second objection made. Among the first plans of the Eastern Association was the formation of a club for the study of the various phases of household sanitary science. Practical investigation was made of the subject of drainage, plumbing, ventilation, etc., a bibliography was prepared, the results of the studies made were put in circulation, and material aid given to others outside of the society on this important but neglected subject. Careful study has also been made of the opportunities for work open to women who have others dependent upon them for support, but who are prevented by domestic duties from seeking salaried positions. It is believed that important assistance has been given in the information collected and distributed concerning horticulture, silk culture, bread-making, fruit-canning, and other domestic professions. Again, it has been the aim of the Western Association to make inquiries concerning the training of women in household science. They have no desire to revolutionize society in any way, but they realize that hap-hazard ways often prevail in many households; that while much has been done to open new lines of work to woman, but little has been done to improve her work in those fields that have always been considered by the opponents of higher education for women legitimately hers. Plans have therefore been perfected to make extended inquiries into the advantages afforded for the industrial education of women, to consider the practical results of what has already been done, and to devise the ways and means for giving further help on this much-vexed question.

In the line of purely scholastic work, clubs have been formed among the members for the study of political science, art, local history, and kindred subjects. With the hope of still further stimulating the desire among women for sound scholarship, the Western Association has recently taken steps to secure the establishment of a fellowship open to women. But two colleges as yet offer such privileges, and it is earnestly believed that greater opportunities in that direction would be as productive of good results as has been the establishment of fellowships at Harvard and Johns Hopkins.

Other subjects have been considered by the associations, but it is hoped that the above will be considered indicative of an earnest desire on the part of college-trained women to prove "that the college course is not looked upon merely as an experience of the past, or as a means of securing a livelihood, but as a preliminary training which leads to a broad sympathy and ready co-operation with the interests of society."—Respectfully, M.

May 27, 1886.

NATIONAL DIFFERENCES OF LANGUAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The unpretending little volume on French-English Pseudo-Synonyms, which you mentioned the other day in your Notes, is interesting not only in itself, but from the avenues of thought it leads into, but does not itself pursue. One of these is of the difficulties of translation and its frequent errors, to the consideration of which you have lately given so much space; and Mr. Attwell's illustrations of the subject are excellently to the point—both his quotation from an English newspaper to the effect that Père Hyacinthe had remarked that the cross had been *brutally* ("brutalement") removed from the Pantheon, and his reference to a mistake in an English

translation of a French sketch of peasant life in Russia, where "the sacred images in his humble room" were spoken of. This is a perfect example of how inaccurate a literal translation may be. "Image" in French may be *image* in English; but it is also *picture*, and that must be its meaning in such a connection, since sacred images are not permitted by the Greek Church. Mr. Attwell's personal reminiscence is amusing, of "hearing a well-informed man state as a grave fact, that it was the custom of the faithful, and even of Protestant visitors, to kiss the Pope's mule [slipper] while the Holy Father gave his blessing seated on the docile animal." His delusion might well have been supported by the Provençal "dicton," of which Daudet has made so diverting a story—"Cet homme-là, méfiez-vous! il est comme la mule du pape, qui garde sept ans son coup de pied."

But another class of thoughts which this book suggests is of the qualities of national character evidenced by the presence or absence of certain words in a language. Do not glance on at my next sentence, fearing lest the everlasting old "home" and "chez soi" is about to flow from my pen! No; my few trifling illustrations—most of them drawn from Mr. Attwell—are connected with political or legal rather than social phraseology.

"No French word," says Mr. Attwell, "renders at all closely the sense of the English noun 'bribe'": *présent à corrompre*, one must say clumsily, or use *appât*, which is far away. For our verb they have *suborner*, *corrompre*, *gagner*, *acheter*, not conveying precisely the same idea. Yet one would suppose it difficult to write history intelligibly—whether Roman, English, or French (we will not speak of American)—without a word expressing "bribery" as well as "corruption." I am reminded of a conversation between Dr. Whateley and M. De Beaumont, which is reported in one of Sir Charles Lyell's letters, when De Beaumont said: "Then you have another word, 'job,' which we cannot translate; it is a sublime word that—God knows we have the *thing*." It is curious that the English "bribe" is derived directly from the French *bribe*, and acquired its own meaning probably from the fact that the French word, meaning originally a "hunk" of bread, came to mean a piece of bread given to a beggar. For the last hundred and fifty years and more (through the signification of "broken victuals," "scraps") it has been used, in the plural, almost as a synonym of "citations," quotations; or, more exactly, for fragments of conversation or of books.

Again: "No French word represents *trespass*, in the sense of unlawful passing over a boundary of land; this offence is expressed by the phrase *violation de propriété*." *Trépasser* (from which trespass is derived) retains, from the Latin *transpassare*, only the figurative meaning 'to pass from life to death,' 'to die,' and the noun *trépas* is never made use of save in a highly poetic style; though in legal phrase "the deceased" may be *le trépassé*. It is evident that Frenchmen do not allow "trespassing on my grounds," and consequently have no word for it.

A word the signification of which we might do well to adopt from the French is *dilapidation*, used for "squandering of public revenues." Our "dilapidation" is in French *délabrement*; but we could easily retain our present use, and add to it the figurative use, which is in accordance with the Latin derivation and is as admirably suggestive.

These remarks might be indefinitely extended; but I have said enough to show the interest that attaches to such observations. * *

Notes.

We have received advance sheets of Gen. J. C. Frémont's 'Memoirs of My Life,' an elaborate work in which "the Pathfinder" will dwell particularly on his Western explorations and the seizure of California; the Presidental campaign of 1856; and his war experience—the last two divisions being in the nature of a vindication. Mrs. Frémont contributes a sketch of the life of her father, Senator Benton, in connection with Western expansion. The full-page steel engravings are a pleasant reversion to an almost obsolete style of illustration. The narrative cannot fail to command a high degree of interest, and may not improbably revive old controversies while rectifying current errors. The publishers are Belford, Clarke & Co., Chicago and New York.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce an entirely new and complete edition (in two sizes of paper) of the writings of Longfellow, including his translation of Dante, in eleven volumes. The various readings of the poems will be recorded in footnotes, as well as the dates of composition and publication, for which the recently published biography affords invaluable data. Indexes will be given where convenient. There will be several portraits on steel. The large-paper edition will be limited to 500 copies. Delivery will begin in September.

Upon the completion of Mr. Lodge's edition of Hamilton's works, now near at hand, G. P. Putnam's Sons will undertake a new and complete but limited edition of the works of Benjamin Franklin, edited by Mr. John Bigelow, in ten volumes, uniform with the Hamilton. The Autobiography will be printed from the original MS. now in possession of Mr. Bigelow, who will also avail himself of the Stevens collection recently acquired by our Government. It is hoped to make this an *édition définitive*.

D. Appleton & Co. announce a 'Centennial History of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the Diocese of New York, 1785–1885,' prepared by General Wilson, and freely illustrated; 'Earthquakes and Other Earth Movements,' by Prof. John Milne, of the Tokio College of Engineering; and two volumes in a new "International Education Series," viz.: 'The Philosophy of Education,' by Dr. J. K. F. Rosenkranz, of Königsberg; and 'A History of Education,' by Prof. F. V. N. Painter, of Roanoke College, Va. Dr. Wm. T. Harris edits the series.

An educational novelty is promised in July by Ginn & Co., 'A Beginner's Book in French,' by Sophie Doriot, "with comic illustrations."

A new and enlarged edition of Prof. W. O. Crosby's 'Common Minerals and Rocks' is promised by D. C. Heath & Co.

Roberts Bros. have brought out a fresh edition of Miss M. F. Rossetti's 'Shadow of Dante,' first published in 1872. Time has not, we believe, impaired the value of this guide and key to the 'Divine Comedy.' The same publishers have added 'Eugénie Grandet' to their series of translations from Balzac.

Mr. F. M. Crawford's 'Mr. Isaacs,' as the first issue in Macmillan's Summer Reading Series, in paper covers, makes a very attractive appearance.

To their "Traveller's Series" G. P. Putnam's Sons have added Hood's 'Up the Rhine,' with the author's illustrations.

It is evident from the third edition of Mr. Charles Eyre Pascoe's 'London of To-Day' (Boston: Roberts Bros.) that this unconventional guide-book is not to be fettered in improvement by stereotype plates. The changes from last year's issue are very numerous: there are forty-three chapters in place of forty-seven, filling, however, the same number of pages; the arrangement of topics as of cuts has been freely altered; many of the illustrations are new; everywhere one sees fresh matter, as, under Theatres, the visit of Mr. Daly's company from New York. Mr. Pascoe, introducing the tourist to shops and hotels, does not always seem disinterested, but we are not prepared to say that any one will suffer by being biassed by him. His next improvement ought to be an index.

'Through the Yellowstone Park on Horseback,' by George W. Wingate (O. Judd Co.), is the story of a party of ladies and gentlemen who made a most enjoyable trip through the National Park by wagon and saddle, camping along the roadside. Those contemplating a journey to the Yellowstone, and knowing no more about the country than they do about Africa, as was the case with our author before leaving home, may find this book entertaining reading. As a guide-book, however, it cannot be highly recommended. The party were in the Park only ten days, and managed to pick up a good deal of misinformation from stage-drivers and self-appointed guides who, apparently, were also making for the first time a trip through Wonderland. A chapter on the Mammoth Springs is singularly faulty in its statements. Yellowstone and Shoshone Lakes, Mount Washburn, the Gallatin Mountains, the Fossil Forest, and the charming country between the Mammoth Springs and Yancey's were unvisited. That it is possible to make such excursions without too great expenditure of time and money is clearly shown by the author.

We have received Rowell's 'American Newspaper Directory' for 1886, a volume of nearly 2,000 pages which is not unwieldy, and is, as usual, a very handsome specimen of typography. Of the many works of its class it stands incontestably at the head. So far as our observation extends, it has always been free from traces of axe-grinding, and has endeavored in good faith to obtain and publish the exact truth concerning the newspapers which it catalogues, with exhaustive details. This spirit is not met half way by all newspaper proprietors—for reasons not far to seek.

Our readers have already made the acquaintance of the *Southern Bivouac* by our occasional comments upon its monthly bill of fare. It is a literary and historical magazine published at Louisville (B. F. Avery & Sons), and if on its literary side it is relatively weak, its historical articles (principally in connection with our civil war) have had and still have a very considerable value, and can by no means be neglected in the mass of military reminiscence now so much in vogue in our Northern periodicals. Maps, portraits, and other illustrations of good quality have been liberally employed by the editors, Messrs. Basil W. Duke and R. W. Knott. These remarks have been suggested by the completed and bound volume, No. 1 of the new series, now before us. The page is comely and the print excellent. We speak under correction, which we do not anticipate, when we say that the *Southern Bivouac* represents the high-water mark of Southern periodical literature in our day. This volume was worth a fuller index.

Mr. John Oldcastle's record of the life of 'The Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster' (Catholic Publication Society) from the time of the Gorham judgment in 1850, which determined Manning to join the Catholic Church, has an iconographic value that may be pointed out here. There are no fewer than five portraits of Manning, from early childhood to the present year.

The reprinting from the Report of the Michigan State Board of Health for 1885 of Mr. Erwin F. Smith's paper upon the 'Influence of Sewerage and Water Supply on the Death-rate in Cities,' read before the Sanitary Convention at Ypsi-

lanti last July, gives the opportunity for wider circulation of a very elaborate, careful, and valuable document. The author disclaims presenting anything new. In the sense of bringing to light some new ultimate fact, that may be true; but he has correlated so much, and has done it so well, that his work has a much greater value than the mere setting forth of something not before known. The paper, which is supported by more than thirty tables and is illustrated by several graphic charts, discusses especially the association of cholera, typhoid fever, and diphtheria with good and bad sewerage; the rates of sickness and mortality; the economic value of men sick and well, and the possibility of increasing the world's wealth-making power and of diminishing its ill-health and suffering by engineering agencies. The mere money waste by typhoid fever alone the author fixes, using a very low estimate, at $25,000,000 for the United States year by year. Diphtheria he does not regard as especially related to sewers.

The amiable if not very strong features of General Master Workman Powderly seem to have been well caught in the life-size lithographic profile sent us by J. H. Bufford's Sons, 293 Broadway.

No. 21 of the *Bibliographical Contributions* of the Library of Harvard University is a quinquennial continuation of a corresponding list published in 1881, which covered the publications of the University and its officers for the decade 1870-1880. We now have in sixty-two pages the publications for 1880-1885, together with the chief publications relating to the University. The fecundity of Mr. C. F. Adams, jr.'s "College Fetish" is shown in the large number of pamphlets and articles which it evoked; and the student of the question will find in these lists a pretty exhaustive guide to the current literature of the controversy over Greek (and the classics generally) in education. We may notice also the bibliography and phyllography—to coin a word signifying lists of newspaper and periodical articles—of John Harvard, and of the Elective System and College Discipline.

Sotheby, Wilkinson & Hodge, London, will sell on July 1 the second portion of the late Henry Stevens's Historical Collections relating to America. Copies of the catalogues can be obtained of the *Bookmart* Publishing Co., Pittsburgh, Pa., and of C. C. Soule, 26 Pemberton Square, Boston. It contains an index to 603 numbers, good as far as it goes, but with a geographical classification mainly. Mr. Stevens's own works are embraced in Nos. 491-521, the last being his 'Recollections of Mr. James Lenox,' just from the press.

Our American periodical indexes are beginning to have foreign imitators. Last year in Russia was issued a systematic table of articles contained in twelve leading reviews from 1830 to 1884; and Italy has just published a 'Catalogo metodico degli Scritti contenuti nelle Publicazioni periodiche italiane e straniere,' of which the first part, "Scritti biografici e critiche," has 534 pages, and 17,209 entries taken from 241 reviews. At the end is an index of authors.

The unfortunate Count Porro and his junior associate, Prof. Licata, slain in Harrar, are commemorated with portraits in *L'Illustrazione Italiana* for May 9, as is also the late Dr. Agostino Bertani, the eminent friend of Garibaldi and his companion in the field. Noteworthy, too, are numerous engravings from photographs of Mandalay, furnished by the Italian physician to King Theebaw.

Mr. Wm. R. Jenkins has begun his promised series of "Novelle Italiane" with the 'Alberto' of Edmondo De Amicis. English notes have been added by Prof. T. E. Comba. The eighth of Mr. Jenkins's "Contes Choisis" is 'Les Fiancés de Grinderwald' and 'Les Amoureux de Catherine,' by Erckmann-Chatrian.

The second volume of M. G. Vapereau's 'Eléments d'histoire de la littérature française' (Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof) makes a very good text-book of elementary literary history, biographical notices, and well-chosen extracts from the principal French writers of the seventeenth century. The author has in many cases merely reproduced parts of his very useful 'Dictionnaire des Littératures,' taking care, however, to present his subject in a more didactic manner, and omitting all that would tend to lessen the value of the work as a manual in the schoolroom. There is, for such an elementary work, rather a display of erudition, in the long lists of "works to be consulted" appended to every biographical and literary notice; but in this M. Vapereau seems only to be following the fashion which makes of many school-books works fitted rather for teachers' guides than for scholars' manuals.

The more important papers in M. Octave Uzanne's 'Nos Amis les Livres: causeries sur la littérature curieuse et la librairie' (Paris: Quantin) are those recording his personal recollections of the late Paul Lacroix, those indicating the hitherto uncollected writings of Baudelaire, and those describing the strange career of Jules Vallès. The tenth chapter is a lively study of "Le Livre à Paris." The seventh is a discussion of the many books which the police have seized, generally for good reason. It is to be noted that, although M. Uzanne himself writes cleanly and without offence, he betrays a certain hankering for the books which every gentleman's library should be without. 'Nos Amis les Livres' is beautifully printed in a limited edition of 1,065 copies only, and is illustrated with an inexpensive frontispiece—an etching by M. H. Manesse. There is an outline of an index, if we may so call it, altogether insufficient.

As M. Jules Claretie, now the manager of the Comédie-Française, has had to resign his position on the *Temps*, the 'Vie à Paris, 1885' is the last volume of his collected *chroniques* which we are likely to have for a long time. In the six volumes to which the series extends, the historian of the future will find a clever, brilliant, and honest record of life in Paris in the years 1880-5, much good criticism, many neatly turned anecdotes, an abundance of personal reminiscence, and a great variety of odds and ends of amusing information. Of especial interest in this volume are recollections of Edmond About and Victor Hugo.

The *Bulletin* of the Cercle Saint-Simon gives the programme of a forthcoming "audition de musique et chant de l'époque révolutionnaire" before the members of this active historical society—we believe, the second concert of its kind, the first having been folk-songs. The words of three of the choruses are printed in advance, ladies participating in these, as well as singing some of the solos.

Fifty years ago saw the beginning, under the auspices of Heinrich Berghaus, of physical atlases of the globe, and the name, of good right, remains at the head of the wholly new edition just begun by Justus Perthes (New York: Westermann)—'Berghaus' Physikalischer Atlas,' edited, with the aid of six eminent specialists, by Prof. Dr. Hermann Berghaus. The three maps of the first instalment are a pleasure to the eye and to the understanding. They represent the Mediterranean and Black Sea, with upwards of twenty side-maps; the isothermal lines; the flora of Europe—all in lively and harmonious coloring.

It will be remembered that Prof. Otto Keller's theory of the construction of the Saturnian verse ('Der Saturn. Vers als rhythmisch erwiesen,' Leipzig, 1883) was attacked with bitterness by Lucian Müller ('Der Saturn. Vers und seine Denkmäler,' Leipzig, 1885), whose apparently crushing arguments hinted at the danger in presuming to enter a field which he considered his own. Others, as well as Prof. Müller, still stoutly maintain that

"Dabunt malum Metelli Naeuio poetae"

was the metrical prototype of such a line as

"The queen was in her parlor, eating bread and honey."

Prof. Keller has, however, lately published a second essay (Prague, 1886) in rejoinder to Müller. His examination of this difficult subject is rather too technical for anything short of a philological journal; but to students of the classics we commend his most interesting and scholarly answer.

The University of Pennsylvania has recently established a limited number of unendowed post-graduate fellowships in political science and history. Graduates of any American college, either in arts or science, are eligible. Opportunities for advanced study will be open free of charge to the holders of these fellowships. Applications and testimonials should be sent to Prof. E. J. James, University of Pennsylvania, West Philadelphia.

—It became evident to the friends of the reciprocity copyright bill, upon the first day of the hearing before the Senate Committee on Patents, that Mr. Hawley had determined to abandon the bill, which, though introduced by him, he was careful to explain was really drawn up by the Authors' International Copyright League. The Senator's sensitiveness concerning the application of the term "pirates" to persons who make a business of republishing foreign books without paying the authors—who in doing so, according to Mr. Hawley, only "publish what they have a perfect legal right to publish"; his reading of selections from the tariff law showing what protection book-manufacturers now enjoy, only to admit that he favored a legislative enactment requiring that foreign books, in order to be copyrighted here, must be printed in this country; and his defence of the prohibition of importation, together with his anxiety to say something to promote a harmonious support of some bill "satisfactory to all," could not fail to convince his hearers that, from a defender of the simple *right* of authors, he had been converted into the anxious champion of *protection* for paper-makers, binders, compositors, stereotypers, printers—every one (but the author) employed in the production of a book. It was therefore no surprise when the Committee reported, not the "Hawley" bill, but Senator Chace's bill, which also had been referred to it, January 21. The amendments in the reported bill (many of them mere verbal corrections) are not such as change the intent of the measure; the most important being the striking out of the clause in the original bill which enacted that the copyright upon a foreign work should be void in case the American manufacturer abandoned the publication of it—in other words, that the very tort suffered by the author in his publisher's breach of contract should give occasion to the legal confiscation of his entire property!

—The bill as now presented to the Senate provides for such amendment of the chapter of the Revised Statutes relating to copyrights as will extend all its provisions to the works of foreign authors, provided the name of each book or other article copyrighted shall be recorded in the office of the Librarian of Congress not later than the day of publication in the country of origin, and that two copies of the best edition printed in the United States shall be deposited in the same office within three months after recording the title; from which date, until the expiration of the copyright, the importation of other editions is prohibited, and collectors of customs and postmasters are authorized to seize all copies received at the custom-houses or post-offices. But the copyright obtained for a translation does not

give the right to exclude the original work for which no American copyright has been secured. The fee for recording the title is one dollar, and is to defray the expenses of lists of articles copyrighted to be prepared by the Librarian of Congress (who is authorized to employ an additional clerk for this purpose), and to be printed by the Secretary of the Treasury, at intervals of not more than a week, for distribution to collectors of customs and postmasters, and also to such persons as may subscribe for them at a sum not exceeding five dollars per annum. Each number of a periodical is considered an independent publication, subject to separate copyright, and so, also, each volume of a book, provided the volumes are published at different times and "the first one shall not have been issued before this act shall take effect"; and it seems intended, too, to provide that *revised editions* of books heretofore published, if issued after the act goes into force, may obtain a copyright, "unless they form part of a series in course of publication at the time this act shall take effect." But the wording of section 4 is not quite plain. The two clauses which we have quoted are amendments, and seem to have been interpolated for the express purpose of preventing the proprietors of the 'Encylopedia Britannica,' and consequently all the authors concerned in its production, from availing themselves of the benefits which it is the purport of the bill to grant to English authors—a most unjust discrimination. The final section enacts that the bill shall go into effect July 1, 1887.

—One of the most curious perversions of history of which the late Henry C. Carey was guilty—and he was guilty of a good many—was in his notion that the decay of Ireland was to be traced to "British free trade." This idea of the high-priest of the protectionists has been cherished by his disciples, and turns up frequently in their denunciations of the unutterable greed and duplicity of Great Britain. Its basis, of course, is in the vicious policy of protection and mercantilism which Great Britain followed in the eighteenth century in regard not only to Ireland, but to the American colonies and all the rest of the world. No one defends that policy nowadays, and it has about as much pertinence to the protective controversy of the present day as the war of the Revolution has to our present relations with Great Britain. Nevertheless, our friends the protectionists very often hurl it in our teeth; and very naturally the Irish home-rulers charge it up in their list of the oppressions of the British. There is consequently some interest, over and above the purely historical interest, in finding out exactly what it is all about. Mr. W. Cunningham makes a valuable and interesting contribution to our knowledge of the subject in his article in the April number of the *English Historical Review*, on the Repression of the Woollen Manufacture in Ireland. He shows that the manufacture which was repressed by Parliament in 1698 and 1699, was a manufacture of cloths, chiefly broadcloths, called "draperies." It was carried on by the Protestants in Ireland, and had barely begun. A much more important and long-established industry, that of making friezes, was carried on by the Catholics. This was not interfered with at all; in fact, it was expressly excepted from the statutes. The Protestant cloth manufacture was repressed much more for political reasons than from any desire to check the economic development of Ireland. In any case, the industry was as yet insignificant, and its repression could have had but very slight effect. Of course no one can tell whether the industry, even if let alone, would have grown to any importance; probably it would not. The oppression, such as it was, was by the English in England on the English in Ireland. Thereby vanishes one of the grievances of Irish agitators; but as they have a good supply of others, the loss will not cause them much anxiety. Our protectionist anglers for the Irish vote might be more embarrassed by having one of their pet illustrations of the wickedness of Great Britain's commercial policy thus subjected to serious correction; for their stock of arguments is running low. But they will doubtless get over the difficulty by simply disregarding the results of a dry and prosaic historical investigation.

—M. Eugène Pellissier has put together a book of more than 400 pages, designed "for schools and candidates for public examinations," on 'French Roots and their Families' (Macmillan & Co.). The getting up of the book as to size, type, paper, binding, and general disposition does honor to its publishers; as to its practical utility there may be some question. There is just enough of etymology to make the learner wish for more if he is curious in such things, not enough to fix any scientific principles of derivations, and too much for one who only looks for a practical knowledge of words. There may be a certain utility in grouping together words of undoubted origin which mutually shed light on each other, but what advantage is it to the learner to put under *gueule*, on account of the Sanskrit *gar*, such words as *gargoter*, fr. root *garg=gorg; gargote, gargouille, gargouillis, gargamelle, gargariser, gargarisme*, etc.? And, besides, it may be doubted whether these words are all of the same family. Nor are the etymologies given always to be fully relied on. The writer has a tenderness for Greek and Sanskrit roots, and in this direction he may be misleading. Thus, for *nantir* he gives Low Latin *namium*, Greek *νέμω*, and there are many such etymologies given, with generally a Sanskrit root added, which ought to be verified by turning even to such elementary books as Scheler and Brachet. Even when the derivation may be relied on, it sometimes looks puzzling as given by M. Pellissier, thus: "*Tôt* (soon, early), L. *tostus* for *torstus*, fr. *torrere*, Scr. *tarsh*=to be dry." Evidently such criticism of the book as this could be carried on almost indefinitely, as the words given above were taken almost at haphazard. In spite of all this, 'French Roots and their Families' is not a useless book. It may, carefully controlled, be of real service in furnishing material to a teacher of French.

—The May number of the *Deutsche Rundschau* contains the conclusion of the notable series of articles on "Contemporary American Fiction," by Anton E. Schönbach. He devotes this chapter to the "realistic" school, as distinguished from the "analytical" discussed previously, and expends on the works of F. Marion Crawford and the politico-social novels 'Democracy,' 'Through One Administration,' 'The Breadwinners,' etc., a wealth of scholarly criticism hardly justified by their intrinsic importance, but in refreshing contrast to the ignorant flippancy displayed by so many foreign critics of things American. Judge Tourgée opens, somewhat strangely, the chapter on Southern novelists. Even his 'Fool's Errand,' Herr Schönbach says, shows the politician rather than the artist, and his other novels are severely dealt with. Cable naturally claims considerable space, and the description of the varied aspects of Southern life is steeped in colors as rich as Cable's own. Full justice is likewise done to "Uncle Remus," to whose stories the writer assigns not only a high literary but a distinct ethnographic value. He is scarcely less lavish in his praise of "Charles Egbert Craddock." Many delicate touches reveal Herr Schönbach's thorough familiarity with the lesser literary lights of the past and present, the allusion to Edmund Quincy as "the American Steub" being a case in point. That his fondness for our literature has not disturbed the clearness of his critical vision is evinced by his comparison between American and German novelists, from which we transcribe a few sentences: "As a rule, American novelists give us too many interesting and too few simple characters. But in one respect they show their superiority, especially to us Germans—in their high technical finish. Such sins against the most elementary rules of novel writing as our principal story-tellers commit every day — defective exposition, failure to maintain the level, purposeless motives and episodes — are rare with them. Therefore the average American novel is superior to the average German one, and an intelligent reader may enjoy an English or American novel of fair quality without a sense of irritation, whereas one equally good by a native writer will excite his ire. This accounts for the fact that America, while possessing no novelist of the first rank, has several who are very near it."

—The May *Rundschau* contains still another article on an American subject, "The Californian Plain," by E. Reyer, the fourth of a series. Among the other contributions a particular interest attaches to Julian Schmidt's posthumous essay on "Leopold von Ranke," sent to the editor only twelve hours before the writer's death, and hardly published before Ranke, too, is taken away. Paul Heyse's one-act tragedy "Zwischen Lipp' und Bechersrand" ('Twixt the Cup and the Lip) is a painful surprise to those who have learned to associate the grace of Heyse's execution with good taste in the choice of subjects. The idea of a bride discovering on her wedding night that her husband had seduced her mother and killed her father, would have been spurned by at least the æsthetic sense of a Feuillet or a Dumas. Dr. von Gizycki, in "Letters on Modern Philosophical Literature," disposes of about thirty philosophical works, in a manner exemplified in his "review" of John Fiske's 'Outlines of Cosmic Philosophy': "The best-known representative of evolutionism in America is John Fiske, whose principal work, 'Cosmic Philosophy,' however, I have not yet read."

—Leopold von Ranke died on the 21st of May. On the 21st of last December he celebrated (or, rather, all Germany celebrated) the ninetieth anniversary of his birth. According to a discovery made by one of his relatives, a quarter of a century ago, in the church book of his native Thuringian village, that celebration ought to have taken place twenty-four hours earlier, but the historian ascribed greater authenticity to the traditions of his family than to the ecclesiastical record. Religious earnestness and love of truth and accuracy seem, in fact, to have been with Ranke family heirlooms, nor did they abandon him to his death. He was endowed with great strength both of body and mind, and what he achieved as a close student at the Gymnasium of Pforta was hardly less surprising than his efforts between the ages of eighty and ninety. Greek literature powerfully attracted him, but, after finishing his university studies at Leipzig, he devoted himself to historical research, combining with it theological, philological, and classical inquiry. Thucydides, Luther, Niebuhr, and Fichte he subsequently declared to have been his principal masters. In 1818 he was appointed professor at the Gymnasium of Frankfort-on-the-Oder, and after publishing the first (and only) volume of his 'Geschichte der romanischen und germanischen Völkerschaften von 1494–1535' (1824) and 'Zur Kritik neuerer Geschichtschreiber,' he became, in 1825, professor of history at the Univer-

sity of Berlin. This position he held till his death, though interrupting his earlier professorial activity by years of research in the libraries and archives of Vienna, Venice, Florence, and Rome, preceded by discoveries of extraordinary interest in the collections of Berlin. Historiography from the original documentary sources, carried out with absolute objectiveness, with precision and clearness, though not without artistic grouping and due regard for relief and individuality, now became the task of his life and the ideal of a school of historians of which he is justly deemed the founder, though himself a disciple of Niebuhr, and in part also of Dahlmann. Giesebrecht, Sybel, Duncker, and Waitz (who died a few days after him) may be mentioned as his foremost followers. Dahlmann's friend, Gervinus, trod a different path, in which subjective and dogmatic illumination was a guiding consideration. Ranke at first concentrated his labors upon the history of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, producing successively 'Fürsten und Völker von Südeuropa im 16. und 17. Jahrhundert' (1827), 'Die römischen Päpste, ihre Kirche und ihr Staat im 16. und 17. Jahrhundert'—his masterwork—(1834-36), and 'Deutsche Geschichte im Zeitalter der Reformation' (1839-40). To this field belong his later voluminous works, 'Französiche Geschichte,' etc., and 'Englische Geschichte,' etc., the 'Geschichte Wallenstein's,' and other writings. The history of the Prussian state, of which he was appointed historiographer by Frederic William IV., shortly after his accession to the throne, he treated in 'Neun Bücher preussischer Geschichte,' 'Zwölf Bücher preussischer Geschichte,' and 'Der Ursprung des Siebenjährigen Kriegs'; in biographies of Frederic the Great and Frederic William IV.; in 'Hardenberg und die Geschichte des preussischen Staats von 1793-1813' (1880-81), and several other publications. One of his early and most popular productions was his sketch of the Servian rising for independence, which he reissued in a revised form in 1879. Of his 'Weltgeschichte,' which he began as an octogenarian, and planned to embrace nine volumes, about one-half has appeared. He had, however, long ceased to work with his own hand and eyes, though continuing active, wide awake, and indefatigable to the last. In politics he was conservative. King William ennobled him and made him Chancellor of the order "*Pour le mérite*," as successor to Böckh.

—The difficulties of archæology and the uncertainty of its chronology were well shown by some fragments of a vase that was last autumn laid before the Academy of Inscriptions. Every French antiquary would have pronounced it prehistoric if it had been found alone, and yet it contained, when unearthed, coins struck as late as 181. Either the vase itself was a survival, or else vases of that type continued in use as cheap utensils long after the age in which they are supposed to have originated. M. Robert, who brought the matter before the Academy, mentioned a similar discovery, made in the Crimea during the war, of a house containing bronze coins of the ninth and tenth centuries, and among the domestic utensils various cutting instruments of polished stone, which, found alone, would surely be referred to the stone age. The fact is, as we have before insisted, that different states of civilization coexist. The poor continued to make use of primitive furniture and tools long after the rich could indulge in articles of art of a much higher civilization. It was not till machinery to make things cheaply arose that there came to be anything like uniformity in such matters. Now the rich are separated in the style (not of course in the material) of dress and furniture by only a few years, sometimes by only a few months. Formerly they were centuries apart.

NETTLESHIP'S ESSAYS.

Lectures and Essays on Subjects Connected with Latin Literature and Scholarship. By Henry Nettleship, M.A. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

A GOODLY sheaf of papers, most of them published before in various forms, now gathered and dedicated to the memory of Mark Pattison. The volume shows nothing of the spirit of bold search for striking conclusions, but all the more for that it is a volume of solid merit, likely to guide the ambitious student in right directions, and likely to win the cordial respect of older scholars, who will often find that Prof. Nettleship has put with singular clearness and neat felicity of statement some well-ripened principle of criticism.

The range of fruitful studies in Latin scholarship to which these papers bear witness is very wide. A fitting keynote is struck in the opening tribute to the character and influence of Moritz Haupt. Nettleship, then already a mature student himself, heard lectures on the Epistles of Horace from this remarkable teacher in 1865. Many a foreigner at German universities must have had an experience analogous to his, which he thus describes:

"I may say without exaggeration that these lectures introduced me to a method of teaching which was wholly unknown at the time in Oxford, and perhaps in England. We learned in Oxford to read the classics, to translate them on paper, to think and talk about them, to write essays on them; but of the higher philology, of the principles and methods of textual criticism—in other words, of the way to find out what the classical writers really said—we were taught next to nothing. At least I can only say, speaking for myself, that although I was then beginning to write a commentary on parts of Vergil for Conington's edition, I had to instruct myself, with Conington's assistance, as it were piecemeal, and was without any general knowledge as to the kind of problems which might be expected to meet an editor in dealing with a classical author."

But Nettleship is perfectly aware that whatever of reproach there may be in these words, cannot fairly fall entirely to the charge of Oxford teachers—he doubts whether it can be said "that our average social and intellectual tone is seriously favorable to anything but the vigorous performance of tutorial duties, the preparation of candidates for examination." We fear there are not yet many teachers in America who find abundance of pupils willing to be taught the way to the sources for their information about the peoples and the literatures of antiquity. It is so much easier to commit to memory the teacher's opinion, to assume an air of modest submission to the higher competence of some great scholar. Nettleship treats Haupt's failings very gently, as indeed he ought; but he finds that he "must own to having experienced a feeling of weariness and repulsion at witnessing this castigation of the defenceless Orelli carried on for four days in the week during a period of three months."

Papers on "Early Italian Civilization" and on the "Earliest Italian Literature" treat of the linguistic and literary palæontology of the peninsula. They show abundant learning, candor, and caution, and are readable withal. The author decidedly rejects the notion of a Græco-Italian period, and seems to adopt Schmidt's view of the primitive relationships of the Indo-Germanic peoples. He declares that "to speak of the early Italians as having no original gift for literary creation is wholly misleading; as if the imaginative impulse could be implanted where it did not exist, or the gift of the Muses be borrowed like money." It can hardly be denied that there is justice in this protest, though the critic might perhaps fairly prefer to see the force with which it is put somewhat tempered.

Views original with our author are to be found, we believe, especially in the etymological notes to the two papers just mentioned; in the "Critical Miscellanies" at the end of the book; in the explanation of points which arise in Cicero's 'Pro Cluentio'; and in a series of discussions of which Verrius Flaccus is the principal subject, though Gellius, Nonius Marcellus, and Servius are also named in the titles. But such matters must be passed over lightly in these columns. One detail of etymology may be offered as an interesting specimen: the name Mars is connected with *marcus*, a hammer.

The three lectures on Horace treat of the Life and Poems, the 'De Arte Poetica,' and the Text in general. The author begins by admitting that "to attempt to say anything new about Horace may seem absurd." The critic is fairly bound to reply that these lectures prove abundantly that it is still possible to say things worth saying about Horace—things all the better worth saying because the only great novelty about them is in the skill with which they are put. The problem of the first lecture is to explain how it came that Horace won his place among the classics—to point out in him that earnestness of character which must in some way be the foundation of his greatness. The temptation here to quote freely is very strong—especially because, in the old controversy over the relative worth of Horace and Catullus, most lovers of poetry must find themselves vastly willing to be of both parties. We think the lovers of poetry are bound in the end, however, to accept this statement of the general verdict:

"Take two poets of equal powers of imagination and command of language, and let the one devote himself to the tale of his own loves and hatreds, while the other never loses sight of 'the wider scope,' of the great movement of events, of the larger interests of his fellow-men; and the style of the one, however luminous and intense, however great its command over the music of human passion, will be imperfect and fitful, while that of the other will rise to the height of his conception and become a beacon in literature. There is a moral element in the power which forms a great style; there is not only love of beauty and breadth of sympathy, but keenness of vision, ardor, courage, purity."

This, we take it, goes very near to the root of the matter. And yet—and yet, how true is the admission which follows in the next line, that the "Miser Catulle, desinas ineptire" would have been quite beyond the reach of Horace. But, after all, there must always be something of unfairness about any form of praise given to one poet at the expense of another who has in some different sort excelled. And—to quote this time from the shorter and much slighter essay on Catullus—"For all who can weep with those that weep, his poems are the transparent revelation of a pure, impassioned soul, of deep natural sincerity in love and hate, of commanding genius in expression."

Perhaps the very best of the book is to be found in the "Suggestions Introductory to a Study of the Æneid," first printed at the Clarendon Press in 1875. These suggestions are mainly devoted to the elaboration of an idea more sound than new, but surprisingly little prominent in the writings of many of those who write criticisms of Latin poetry—the idea that the mind and plan of Virgil had been profoundly influenced by the Greek tragedies. It would be well if the young reader who has been confused and persuaded into a gentle contempt for Virgil by all the talk about Apollonios Rhodios and about departures from Homer or borrowings from Homer, might always have at hand a sane monitor like Nettleship to clarify the confusion a little by suggesting the name of Sophocles. For we take it there will be little contempt for Virgil left

when once the nature of his debt to the Greek drama has been fairly apprehended. But this is a book which deserves to be allowed to speak for itself, and with one more quotation we must leave it:

"The episode of Dido is worked out very much in the spirit of the Greek tragedy, the confused moral conflicts of which it thoroughly recalls. It is the struggle of individual passion against the will of Heaven that Vergil intends to represent; the kind of struggle represented in the 'Ajax' and the 'Trachiniæ' of Sophocles, where the loser loses and the winner wins without any end being served except the assertion of superior power. The real difficulty which a modern reader finds in realizing such situations is, that we are accustomed and expect to see the right prevail and the wrong beaten; but this is not the spirit of the Greek tragedy, where it seems as if the natural moral feelings were playing blindly around undiscovered centres, where the powers at work are not commensurate with our ideas of the powers of right and the reverse, and where the righteous issue, as we understand it, is only dimly discerned, if discerned at all, by the straining eye. Dido falls, like Ajax or Heracles, for no offence commensurate in our eyes with the punishment which comes upon her. Yet I think it is clear that Vergil has no intention of exciting such a sympathy with her fate as a modern reader necessarily feels, and as a modern writer, were he handling the story, would wish to excite. Æneas sins, not by leaving her, but by staying with her; the will of the gods once clear, he has, according to ancient ideas, no alternative."

GUATEMALA, PAST AND PRESENT.

Guatemala. Reisen und Schilderungen aus den Jahren 1878–1882. Von Otto Stoll, Dr. Med. und Docent an der Universität Zürich. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus. 1886.

THE largest and most populous of the five republics which formerly made up the Central American Confederation is so far out of the ordinary line of travel that less is known of it than of any of the others. It is therefore satisfactory to have a thoroughly trustworthy account of this secluded land from a well-informed writer, who spent nearly five years as a resident and traveller in the country, and who is able to bring down his narrative of political events to the death of the late Dictator, Barrios. Dr. Stoll is favorably known by his previous work on the Ethnography of Guatemala ('Zur Ethnographie der Republik Guatemala,' Zürich, 1884), which was welcomed by ethnologists as furnishing the most complete and satisfactory account that had yet been given of the native tribes of that region. The present volume dwells to some extent on the same subject, and repeats with a few useful additions the excellent ethnographic map of the former work. But its scope is far more general. It comprises a narrative of travel; a history of the author's residence in different cities and towns; descriptions of the country and the various classes of inhabitants; sketches of society in all ranks; notes on education; reports and statistics relative to agriculture and commerce; and an account of the most important events in the recent history of the republic. Dr. Stoll is one of those thoroughly equipped observers of the well-known German stamp, of whom Alexander von Humboldt is the illustrious exemplar. He is a naturalist, an antiquarian, a student of sociology and political economy, and enough, but not too much, of a politician. His descriptions of men and places are evidently impartial, and are animated with a genial humor and cheerfulness which make him an agreeable travelling companion. His work well deserves translation, though for general reading some of the particulars, which would be valuable in a medical treatise, would need to be omitted.

Of the many topics treated in his work, two will particularly engage attention. These are the description of the population and the account of General Barrios. The two subjects are closely connected, the career of the Dictator being made possible solely by the character of the people. Of the 1,230,000 inhabitants enumerated by the census of 1880, about 850,000 were returned as belonging to the Indian race, and only 380,000 as of the Latin race. But the latter—the Ladinos, as they are styled—are nearly all of mixed origin. Of pure whites there are not more than 1,500 in the country, most of whom are emigrants from Europe and North America. There is a dash of negro blood among the Ladinos, but in the main they are the offspring of unions between the early Spanish settlers and the Indians. The Spanish invaders brought few women with them. It was an honor to the rude Spanish soldiery to mingle their blood with that of the ancient lords of the land. Thus there grew up a people of mixed race, noticeable for their slender but strong build, dark but clear complexion, full lips, black or brown eyes, and lustrous black hair. Of the natural capacity of this race the author expresses a high opinion.

"At present," he writes, "the Ladinos are the rulers of the country. The more numerous Indians are subject to them, and in their presence the pure white element disappears altogether. From the President to the stable-boy we find the Ladinos in all positions of life, as artisans, agriculturists, clergy, physicians, and lawyers; and it is certain that from this mingling of races there has sprung a most prolific and promising element: full of vitality and vigor, for which only the iron spur of necessity—a harder struggle for the means of subsistence—is needed to make it compete successfully with other races in the most widely varied pursuits. The young Ladino child is wonderfully quick-witted; but the school of life in that thinly-peopled land is not yet severe enough to bring this good talent to its full maturity."

On the other hand, Dr. Stoll found the Indians decidedly superior in moral qualities to the Ladinos, and especially much more faithful and trustworthy. According to his personal experience—and few can have had better opportunities of judging—"the Indian of Guatemala is in point of character a man of far better stamp than the Ladino." This testimony of an impartial observer need not surprise us if we recall to mind the fact that these Indians are mostly of that fine Maya race whose social organization and artistic endowments were displayed in the splendid cities and the many carved and lettered monuments which their rude Spanish conquerors destroyed or left to perish. Between these two races there is a great gulf, with opposing walls of language, tradition, custom, and sentiment, which nothing as yet, not even religion or patriotism, has been able to bridge over. The Indians, in their confidential intercourse with the author, did not disguise their confident hope of rising some day to overthrow the Ladinos and the foreigners, and regain the government of the country. It was to this feeling that the Indian President, Carrera, by whom the Central American Confederation was broken up, owed his success. And, strange to say, his latest successor in the Dictatorship, Barrios, though belonging to the opposite political party, was indebted to the same sentiment and partisanship for his exaltation and maintenance in power. He had been lucky enough in early life to secure the adhesion of the Indians, who looked upon him as their destined deliverer, and clung to his fortunes to the last—much as the peasantry of France clung to those of the first Napoleon.

The portrait of this remarkable man, which is given in the volume, shows a decidedly Napoleonic cast; and the like stamp was exhibited in his character and career, so far as the very different theatre of action would allow. Beginning as a military leader of the humblest grade, and seizing his opportunities during the civil wars which disturbed the country, he worked his way up to a position which enabled him to grasp the supreme power. He then displayed all the qualities which we are accustomed to contemplate in the biography of his great prototype. A boundless ambition, intense activity, a crafty diplomacy, utter disregard of all rights that interfered with his plans, unrelenting severity toward his opponents, a lavish hand for his followers, a love of flattery and a cynical contempt for his flatterers, were notable traits in his character. Coarse, hard, licentious, domineering, and vindictive, he yet had certain qualities which extorted admiration and even respect. Though a tyrant, he never forgot or disowned the principles of that Liberal party of which he had in early life been the champion. He kept up the forms of free government, with the evident idea that at some future time they would become realities. He was ardently patriotic, and eager for the improvement of his country. His favorite project, which he had partly accomplished, was the completion of a railway extending from the Pacific, through his capital, to the Bay of Honduras; and to carry this out he resorted, after his fashion, to the most arbitrary exactions, which could have been of no personal benefit to himself. His purpose of restoring the old confederation, if dictated partly by personal ambition, had in it a large grasp of statesmanship. With his restless and persistent energy, he might have succeeded in the end. Yet his death in the first battle of the war could not, on that account, be deemed a public misfortune. His faults of character made him utterly unfit for the difficult position of a chief of a confederacy; nor were the States which he sought to reunite yet ripe for the measure. While the majority of their people are Indians, belonging to many different tribes, utterly alien to one another, and speaking more than twenty distinct languages, no permanent union can be hoped for. The time will come when the Spanish language and Spanish-American customs and habits of thought, which are steadily extending, will prevail throughout those States, and will prove an irresistible force of mutual attraction. The same force will draw all these smaller provinces toward the Mexican Republic; and probably the next half century will see one great confederation extending from the southern border of the United States to the Isthmus, under a firm constitutional government. The work of Dr. Stoll, careful in its statements and unflattering in its pictures of the present condition of affairs, gives yet, in its clear and faithful descriptions of the country and the people, ample warrant for previsions of a better future.

Triumphant Democracy: or Fifty Years' March of the Republic. By Andrew Carnegie. Scribner & Sons.

IF any one has been reading Sir Henry Maine on 'Popular Government,' and feels depressed by the somewhat gloomy forebodings of that distinguished *laudator temporis acti*, we recommend to him the present work, to see if he cannot imbibe something of its exuberant joy. Judging from internal evidence, we should say that the writer, a Scotchman, had passed his life up to manhood under narrow circumstances at home, and then, coming to this country, had stepped at once into success, found his way smooth and prosperous, with the prospect of abundant provision for his declining years, and for his children; and all this, in the intoxicating atmosphere of equality, producing effects similar to the physical ones which foreigners on their first visit ascribe to our climate. Without doubt there are many thousands of such instances, and it is to be hoped that they all share, in some degree at least, the

feeling expressed in the following, which is the key-note of the book:

"To the Beloved Republic I dedicate this Book, with an intensity of Gratitude and Admiration which the native-born citizen can neither feel nor understand."

It is to be feared that Mr. Matthew Arnold would regard the author as an unmitigated Philistine. He is an undisguised worshipper of material success, and delights in big figures. He loves to tell how small things were fifty years ago, and into what splendor they have since blazed out. For his flights of imagination take this as a sample: "Last year she (Chicago) received nearly two million cattle, a million sheep, and five million hogs—more than twenty-five thousand animals per day. So that there marches into Chicago every day in the year—Sundays and Saturdays included—a procession of victims two miles and a-half long, ten animals abreast." "Spread-eagleism" used to be considered as a specialty of the native American, but here is a foreigner who out-Herods Herod. And yet, so far as the material side is concerned, there is perhaps hardly a word which passes the truth. It is only when it is placed before us in this vivid way that we realize the stupendous development. There certainly never has been anything like it in the history of the world. So far from wondering at the tide of immigration, the only wonder is that all Europe, or at least the poorer half of it, with its crowded population, its military burdens, and its caste distinctions, does not empty itself into such a land of promise. Such a book as this must read in Europe like the 'Arabian Nights.' It would probably pay well for one of the great land-grant railways, say the Northern Pacific, to have it reprinted by the million copies in a cheap form, with its own advertisements attached, and distributed broadcast throughout Great Britain.

After reading such a flourish of trumpets over material success, one becomes rather curious to know how the author will face problems much more open to question, such as art, literature, and politics. He is not a whit daunted. As to pictures, "The American is recognized now in the European markets as one of the shrewdest, as well as one of the most liberal, buyers"; while "the United States now possess more and finer examples of the modern French and German schools of painting than are to be found in Europe," and have, besides, an excellent school of their own. Under architecture, he observes that "one block in Chicago has thirteen stories, the highest hardly less elaborate in decoration or less perfect in its appointments than the lowest"; while in music he thinks there should be an international contest, the Thomas and Richter orchestras playing in competition on alternate nights, first in London and then in New York. "It is estimated that there are twenty-three thousand school libraries in America, containing forty-five million books—*twelve million more than all the public libraries of Europe combined*"; while it is further noted that the public schools of the United States cost in 1880 over sixteen millions sterling.

In political matters we should say that the author's zeal decidedly outruns his discretion. He approves, not only of elected officials, but of elected judges. "Who are so deeply interested in the able and pure administration of justice as the masses of the people, the poorer classes of the people, who may be trusted to elect the men least likely to lean unduly to the side of the rich, the powerful, and the strong?"—a proposition beautifully illustrated by the existing labor troubles. Speaking of British colonial wars, he says: "All this will change, however, when the Democracy rules their country. The parent land will become in Europe what the Republic is upon the American continent—the unselfish counsellor, the guide, the true and trusted friend of its less powerful and less advanced nations"—for example, of the Indian tribes. Again: "And upon my British readers let me once more impress the truth that in all that goes to make up a strong government, a power competent to maintain justice and to defeat attacks upon the rights or property of others, the American system is infinitely beyond the monarchical." One healthy sentiment, at all events, is very well expressed: "And for all the just and good measures by which the Republic has won my love, next to that by which she has made me her own citizen, and hence the peer of any man, kaiser, pope, or king—next to that, for which I will fight for her, if need be, die for her, and must adore her forever—I thank the Republic for her position in regard to international murder, which still passes by the name of war." The thoughtful American cannot but wince a little when he reads—"An important work done by the United States army is the improvement of rivers and harbors. Upward of a hundred million dollars have been spent by the engineer corps on rivers and harbors since the beginning of the Government, and the present annual appropriation for this purpose is very large." If the United States Government "is the largest printer and publisher in the world," the reflection unavoidably presents itself whether the quality (as, for instance, in the *Congressional Record*) is equal to the quantity. It is refreshing, again, to hear—"In none of the departments named in this chapter have politics the slightest influence. No politician could be found willing to apply any test but the suitability of the man for the work to be performed." Evidently the writer was not acquainted with Mr. Flanagan of Texas. When we read the summing up, in "the record of one century's harvest of Democracy" set forth in thirteen propositions, we are tempted, in view of Mr. Carnegie's unflinching optimism, to suggest to him that in the next edition of his book (and we hope there may be a great many) he should adopt the motto which he has proposed for the city of Chicago: "The Whole Hog."

Progressive Orthodoxy. A Contribution to the Christian Interpretation of Christian Doctrines. By the Editors of the *Andover Review*, Professors in Andover Theological Seminary. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

WITH the exception of parts of the introductory and closing articles, these papers have already had some currency in the *Andover Review*. The authors do not affix their names to the particular articles, but jointly assume the responsibility involved in their publication. The introduction is apparently by the same hand as the first article, "The Incarnation." It is written in the same astonishing manner, as it were out of time and space, and with so much obscurity that a man of good average intelligence, unused to this way of writing, might almost as well read it backward as forward for any profit it might be to him. The various writers evidently think themselves possessed of a method and results that have considerable advantages over the orthodoxy which they consider unprogressive. There is something quite pathetic in their sense of being in "the way that some call heresy." They insist, however, that their progress is entirely within orthodox limits as defined by Holy Scripture and the Œcumenical Councils of the early Church. And certainly the claim will not be disallowed by any who are not well versed in theological disputes. It will seem to them that the positions taken here ought to be orthodox enough for any one. The rationalist and the free-thinker will find a little satisfaction in the later chapters, but in the earlier much to convince them that their occupation is not gone.

The first four chapters deal with the Incarnation, the Atonement, the fate of the impenitent, and the work of the Holy Spirit. The real animus of the book discloses itself in the third of these chapters, which is called "Eschatology." It is certainly humane, for it is bent on the relief of orthodoxy from the doctrine that the heathen world and those of Christendom whose lives have been conspicuously noble, but without Christian profession, are destined to eternal misery. The case of Sir Moses Montefiore is made the starting-point of the discussion. Dr. Hodge, of Princeton, is as little disposed as the Andover professors to send Sir Moses to perdition, but his way of saving him is not theirs. It is that he was an unconscious Christian; that the merits of Christ's sacrifice were applied to him without his knowledge. But the Andover professors say that this is salvation by magic. What they contend for is that Sir Moses will have a post-mortem opportunity to save himself by a conscious acceptance of Christ as his personal Saviour. A like opportunity will be accorded all the ignorant heathen. But without conscious relation to Christ, no salvation. The speculative basis for these conclusions is laid in the other three of the first four chapters already named. One might go far and not find another such example of modern scholasticism as they afford. Their exaltation of the person of Christ is equal to the most exacting demands. To develop "a Christocentric theology" is their purpose, and they would make Christ not only central to humanity, but to the universe. In these discussions every trace of the concrete humanity of Jesus, as we find it in the Synoptic Gospels, disappears. We are in the same region of speculation as that which the Gnostics of the early Christian centuries found so congenial to their minds.

The chapters on "The Christian," and "Christianity and Missions" are further applications of the ideas in the preceding chapters; the first insisting on the consciousness of personal relationship with Christ as essential to Christian character and salvation, the second insisting that the heathen world will have a chance beyond the grave. A chapter on the Scriptures fights an obscure antagonist. If what is really meant had been expressed as clearly as possible, rather than as vaguely, it would probably be far from the traditional doctrine of the Bible's inspiration. The suggestion that Christ was not omniscient while upon the earth (p. 227), and therefore may have been mistaken in his estimate of the Old Testament, is perhaps the most "progressive" opinion in the book. What is everywhere noticeable is a use of the Bible that assumes its absolute authority. But in justifying this the writers assume a conception of Jesus that depends for its validity upon the authority which it is made to justify, and so the argument of the book moves in a continual circle. The closing chapter, "Christianity Universal," is a résumé of the preceding chapters that will give a busy man the gist of them in half an hour. We can conceive that the concessions of the book will be welcome to many gentle spirits in the Christian church, while they will be particularly offensive to the co-religionists of Sir Moses Montefiore and some others.

Memoirs of General W. T. Sherman. By himself. 2d ed. D. Appleton & Co. 2 vols. 1886.

THIS new edition of Sherman's memoirs is enlarged by preliminary and supplementary chapters, and by an appendix made up in the main of letters from officers who served under the General, containing corroboration or criticism of the opinions expressed in the first edition of the book.

The preliminary chapter gives the pedigree and the early life and military service of the author, filling out the narrative to greater completeness as an autobiography by this account of his lineage and his youth. The supplementary chapter has an independent historical value of much importance. In it General Sherman gives the facts relating to the quarrel between President Johnson and Secretary Stanton, with some very interesting evidence touching the relations of General Grant to the President. This strongly tends to prove that Grant sympathized with Johnson in his view of the right of the Executive to insist upon having Cabinet officers in harmony with himself, and of the improper character of the Tenure-of-Office Act as applied to Stanton's case. The difference between them, it is intimated, arose when Grant had to choose between taking an aggressive part in opposing the operation of the law so as to make a test of its constitutionality, and a passive line of conduct which should avoid collision with either party. Then the General, though believing that Stanton was wrong in "sticking," and the President was right in asserting a power to remove, still naturally declined to be an active participant in the quarrel, and offended Johnson, who had reckoned upon his vigorous support. That Grant was already a candidate for the Presidency, though unavowed, counted for something in his determination of his line of conduct, as it fairly might. The statements of General Sherman on this subject are among the most conclusive and authoritative possible. His frankness and courage of opinion are indisputable, and his means of knowing the secret history of the time second to nobody's. It may fairly be said that he makes final disposition of the romance about Johnson's revolutionary purposes, and brings the whole chain of events within the ordinary purposes and motives of party intrigue or finesse; Johnson, Stanton, and Grant all being more or less openly in the field for the Presidential canvass of 1868.

Another topic of some importance, on which General Sherman's testimony is weighty, is that of the relations between the Secretary of War and the commandant of the army in ordinary administration. He gives very conclusive evidence that Grant, when General of the Army and at the beginning of his Presidency, was fully committed to the view that the military and disciplinary administration of the army should be conducted through the General in command. He carefully draws the line so as to show that this does not include or imply any diminution of the importance of the Secretary, who is the authoritative mouthpiece of the President. It is simply that, by making the General the channel through whom the business must be done, his judgment and knowledge are made available to give system and energy to the work. Sherman shows that under the influence of Rawlins, when the latter became Secretary of War, Grant reversed his own previous policy and fell into line with the custom of civilian Presidents, which has pretty uniformly resulted in making the position of the nominal commandant of the army a most uncomfortable and unsatisfactory one. The legitimate conclusion seems to be that the course originally proposed by Grant and advocated now by Sherman should be pursued, or that the office of commandant of the army should be abolished, and the affairs of the army be conducted by the Secretary of War through the generals in command of departments.

The ten years which have passed since General Sherman published these memoirs have not diminished the authority of the book or of the author. The correspondence in the appendix to the present edition is good proof that the criticisms to be fairly made upon it are neither very numerous nor important. In two or three instances only are there matters of real moment in controversy between him and other men, and the instances are rare in which he has found it proper to revise the expressions he formerly used. In some instances he has softened the form while preserving the substance; in others he has supplied omissions; in a few he has corrected errors. It may safely be said that, for purposes of military instruction and for giving a clear and fair view of the events described, it takes, and probably will continue to take, the first rank among the personal memoirs of the war period.

Madame Roland. By Mathilde Blind. [Famous Women Series.] Boston: Roberts Brothers.

THE first hundred pages of this little volume are on the whole satisfactory; but it then becomes, instead of a biography of Madame Roland, a history of the Girondins, and a history written not by an historian. The somewhat rash generalizations and assumptions of the authoress could be better pardoned were they connected with absolute accuracy of historical statement; but when we find Mirabeau compared to Samson, with the assertion, "the Delilah who shore [*sic*] him of his strength being the Queen, by whom he was bribed," one not only remembers his own proud exculpation of himself, "Je suis payé, mais je ne suis pas vendu," but one would be glad to assure Miss Blind's readers that the opinion she entertains is not the generally received opinion of the relations between Mirabeau and Marie Antoinette. And again—though a much more unimportant point—she entirely misrepresents the character of poor Lanthenas, and mingles truth and error in this statement: "His name, having been included in the list of the proscribed, was struck out by Marat, who declared him to be a mean-spirited creature (*pauvre d'esprit*)." The fact is, Marat, his ex-confrère in medicine, had some kindliness for him, and declared to the Convention (to save his life): "As for Dr. Lanthenas, everybody knows *que c'est un simple d'esprit* [that he is not quite right in his head]." Why a man should be spared because he was "a mean-spirited creature," Miss Blind does not explain. "Le bon Lanthenas méritait de mieux finir," as Sainte-Beuve says.

Miss Blind is not felicitous in her translations. In an enchanting *rural* letter of Mme. Roland's, redolent of the deliciousness of the country, Miss Blind gives us this somewhat startlingly incongruous phrase: "I am growing asinine by dint of attending to the little cares of a piggish country life." The original is, "Je m'asine à force, et m'occupe de tous les petits soins de la vie cochonne de la campagne." Sainte-Beuve, quoting this same letter, explains to the reader that the word "asiner" is here employed because Mme. Roland was then drinking asses' milk; and it would have been well if Miss Blind had at least perceived that "et m'occupe" has not the force of "de m'occuper." And if she had remembered that "cochonner" means to bungle, to botch, she might perhaps have spoken of the "clumsy" rather than the "piggish" country life, and relegated to brackets containing the original humorous words the untranslatable and merely suggested ass and pig of the sentence, conveying to the English reader only Mme. Roland's sense of the welcome casting off of the weight of human customs of thinking and doing.

We have not at hand the original of the passage quoted on page 158, but we have every reason to believe that Miss Blind has there mistaken *citrouille* for *citron*—pumpkin for lemon—and translated *plaisant* (humorous), by 'pleasing.' "I saw . . . little Barnave, . . . cold as a lemon fricasseed in snow, to use the pleasing expression of a woman of another century." This was Ninon de l'Enclos, who said of the young Marquis de Sévigné (as quoted by his mother): "C'est une âme de bouillie; c'est un corps de papier mouillé; c'est un cœur de citrouille fricassé dans de la neige." Lemon sherbet is not despicable; squash sherbet one conceives would be.

In calling the Duc de Saint-Simon "Henri Saint-Simon" (what would he have said to the omission of the *de*? and his name was Louis!) Miss Blind confuses him with his collateral descendant, the founder of Saint-Simonism; and also errs in placing a letter of his she quotes, "in the first quarter of the eighteenth century," since it is addressed to Cardinal Fleury as minister, who only came into power in 1726.

These are trivial indications of a sort of blunderingness which pervades the book and colors the thought, and is not redeemed by charm of expression. But the personal narrative, as we have already said, is agreeable. Any sympathetic picturing of the studious youth of Manon Phlipon, and the cheerful domesticity of the first years of her married life, of the early bloom and later fruitage of her noble and ardent uprightness of soul, has, of necessity, a peculiar delightfulness.

Review of the New York Musical Season, 1885-1886. By H. E. Krehbiel. Novello, Ewer & Co. Pp. 233.

THEATRICAL and musical year-books have been issued heretofore, but seldom in so elegantly printed and conveniently arranged a volume as Mr. Krehbiel's. The carefully prepared index occupies as many as fifteen pages in small type, which gives an idea of the extraordinary activity of the past musical season. Beyond a doubt, it was the busiest ever known to musicians in this city, and we suspect that, so far at least as quantity is concerned, no foreign city has ever surpassed this record. For this reason, and also because the season marked the beginning of several new and important enterprises, the volume before us is very timely. It offers so many conveniences that it is to be hoped the sale will be sufficiently large to insure its continuance in future years; but even should this not be the case, the volume will remain a valuable historic record of the most important year in the history of music in America hitherto.

The plan of the book is strictly chronological. It begins with the production of the "Mikado" on August 19, and ends on April 18, the day after the close of the American opera season. All the important concerts and operatic performances under each date are mentioned, with the names of conductor, artists, and principal works on the programme. All the novelties and many other important works are described and critically discussed at considerable length. Two tables, given in the introduction, give a list of forty-four new orchestral and vocal compositions heard for the first time this year, and a list of ten new operas and operettas, including "Die Meistersinger," "Taming of the Shrew," "Queen of Sheba," "Lakmé," "Sylvia," "Manon Lescaut," "Trompeter von Säckingen," "Gypsy Baron," "Amorita," and "Mikado." To these should be added "Don Cæsar," given a few weeks ago. The introductory chapter also includes a brief review of the three Metropolitan Opera-house seasons, with statistics of the operas produced.

The number of operatic performances given at our two houses this winter was 127, of which 19 were sung in Italian, 52 in German, and 56 in English. Of first-class orchestral concerts there were 84. The Thomas popular concerts and the American Opera, as the two most important new enterprises, receive their full share of attention. No fewer than eleven pages are devoted to an

erudite analysis of Beethoven's Ninth Symphony, and "Die Meistersinger" comes in for an article almost as long, at the end of which is reprinted, from Wagenseil, one of the original songs of the mastersingers which candidates had to sing, and which Wagner parodied in *Beckmesser's* music. The volume is handsomely bound, and should be in every musician's library.

The Great Conspiracy: Its Origin and History. By John A. Logan. New York: A. R. Hart & Co.

We have no idea of reviewing this volume. It is not a history, although it purports to be one. It is rather what might be called a narrative stump speech, with no limitation as to time of delivery except the orator's good pleasure or fatigue. Gen. Logan's thesis is, that the rebellion was the result of a combined pro-slavery and free-trade conspiracy for the control of the nation; that the Republican party "successfully solved" "the difficult and perplexing problems involved in the Reconstruction of the Union," and yet was credulously and good-naturedly led into taking back States and citizens bent on renewing the old conspiracy; and that these desperadoes got "on top," at the last Presidential election, "and they MEAN TO KEEP THERE—IF THEY CAN." With this shriek the book ends (so far as the main text is concerned) on p. 674. An appendix of 80 pages condenses the Lincoln-Douglas debates in 1858, which had already been summarized in chapter iv ("Popular Sovereignty") in 36 pages. In other words, this topic occupies a seventh of the book. On the other hand, the "Growth of the Slavery Question," chap. iii, is despatched in 16 pages, in which there is no allusion to the rise of abolitionism, and but one to the existence of abolitionists. They are then confounded with the party that voted for "John Birney" (as the index calls him) in 1844. That is all we learn about them in the entire "history." Gen. Logan is careful to avoid giving signs of original research or original ideas. His political judgments are uncontrolled by any innate or acquired moral consistency. He blames (by implication) the Liberty party for defeating the election of Clay, as if this were playing into the hands of the slave power; but he is proud of his own part in trying to gain acceptance for the peace propositions before the outbreak of the civil war—a compromise in the interest of slavery which we should have expected of Clay had he been alive.

Although Gen. Logan fills but a modest space in the index, he allows himself enough room in his narrative to smooth over his pro-slavery record, and to repudiate once more the imputations cast on his loyalty to the Union. In so doing he quotes with evident satisfaction a specimen of his florid oratory, which will bear framing along with a precious sentence near the very close (pp. 672-674), only one and two-thirds pages long. His opinion of Fitz-John Porter could hardly have been kept out of his military chapters. In other respects it cannot be said that he obtrudes his personality on his readers, or that he specifically recommends himself to the electors of 1888. His evident plan is to go before them as a protectionist, a soldiers' friend, and a waver of the bloody shirt. Unlike the historian Blaine, he has no calculated flattery of the South, no apology for repudiation, no distribution of compliments for his colleagues in the Republican party. Indeed, his living contemporaries are scarcely mentioned, and we regret to observe that Mr. Blaine is relegated to the footnotes, where he figures simply among the yeas and nays on three Congressional occasions. Since the late candidate for the Vice-Presidency passes over the Reconstruction period entirely, courtesy to his old chief might have prompted a reference to the latest source of sound Republican views on this subject. But, then, Gen. Logan can plead that he is habitually sparing of references to authorities.

The volume is illustrated with a few maps, and with numerous portraits, rather oddly selected and cheaply executed.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Balzac, H. de. Eugénie Grandet. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.50.
Bates, C. The Law of Limited Partnership. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Broglie, Duc de. Souvenirs: 1785-1870. T. 1. Boston: Schoennof.
Campbell-Abbott. Sophocles for the Use of Schools. New and revised edition. In 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $2.75.
Clerke, Agnes M. A Popular History of Astronomy during the 19th Century. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Craik, Mrs. D. M. King Arthur. Not a Love Story. Harper & Brothers.
De Amicis, E. Alberto. No. 1. W. R. Jenkins. 35 cents.
Erckmann-Chatrian. Les Fiancés de Grinderwald. W. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Face to Face. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Hardy, A. S. The Wind of Destiny. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Harris, Miriam Cowles. A Perfect Adonis. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Jevons, W. S. Letters and Journal. Edited by his Wife. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Kennard, Mrs. Edward. Killed in the Open: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
King, Capt. C. Marian's Faith. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Krehbiel, H. E. Review of the New York Musical Season, 1885-86. Novello, Ewer & Co.
Laugel, A. Fragments d'histoire. Paris: Calmann Lévy.
Laveleye, E. de. La Péninsule des Balkans. 2 vols. Brussels: Merzbach & Falk; New York: F. W. Christern.
Lubomirsky, Prince J. Tzar, Archiduchesse et Burgraves. F. W. Christern.
Lucy, H. W. A Diary of Two Parliaments. The Gladstone Parliament. 1880-1885. Cassell & Co. $4.
Nourisson. Pascal: physicien et philosophe. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
Oberholtzer, Mrs. S. L. Daisies of Verse. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Oldcastle, J. The Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster. Catholic Publication Society.
Perez-Bonalde, J. A. Enrique Heine: El Cancionero (Das Buch der Lieder). New York: F. W. Christern.
Quinet, E. Lettres d'Exil. T. III. Boston: Schoenhof.
Rand, E. A. The Camp at Surf Bluff. Phillips & Hunt. $1.25.
Scruples. Cassell & Co. 25 cents.
Stanton, Evan. Ruhainah: A Story of Afghan Life. Cassell & Co. $1.
The Familiar Letters of Peppermint Perkins. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.
Theuriet, A. Bigarreau. Boston: Schoenhof.
Tidball, Mary Langdon. Barbara's Vagaries. Harper & Brothers.
Tommy's First Speaker for Little Boys and Girls. Edited by Tommy Himself. Chicago: W. H. Harrison, jr. 50 cents.
Wilson-Fowler. The Principles of Morals. (Introductory Chapters.) Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Winter, W. The Stage Life of Mary Anderson. George J. Coombes.
Wolff, A. La Gloire à Paris. Boston: Schoenhof.
Woolf, Dr. P. Who is Guilty? Cassell & Co. $1.
Woolner, T. Tiresias: A Poem. London: G. Bell & Sons.
Woolson, Constance Fenimore. East Angels: A Novel. Harper & Brothers.
Woolson, Mrs. Abba G. George Eliot and Her Heroines. Harper & Brothers.
Zeuthen, H. G. Die Lehre von den Kegelschnitten in Altertum. Erster Halbband. Kopenhagen: A. F. Höst & Sohn.
Zola, E. L'Œuvre. Paris: Charpentier; New York: Christern.

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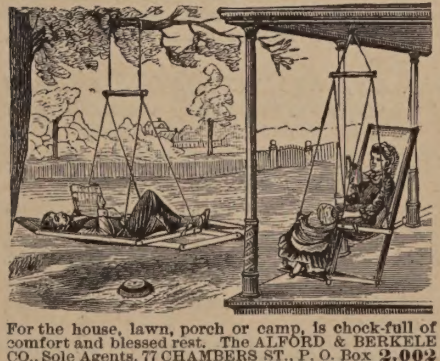

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 10, 1886.

The Week.

THE House on Thursday, by a vote of 177 to 101, passed the Oleomargarine Bill, after adopting sundry amendments which do not affect the principle upon which it is based. That principle is simply that Congress possesses the power to pass an act discriminating in favor of one domestic industry as against another, and the adoption of such a principle is an unprecedented step in Federal legislation. The same theory upon which a majority now votes to favor butter at the expense of oleomargarine, would justify the next Congress in passing a bill favoring oleomargarine at the expense of butter—if the oleomargarine vote seemed better worth bidding for than the butter vote. The act covers "all substances made of oleomargarine, oleo, oleomargarine oil, butterine, lardine, suine, and neutral; all mixtures and compounds of oleomargarine, oleo, oleomargarine oil, butterine, lardine, suine, and neutral; all lard extracts and tallow extracts; and all mixtures and compounds of tallow, beef fat, suet, lard, lard oil, vegetable oil, annotto, and other coloring matter, intestinal fat and offal fat made in imitation or semblance of butter, or, when so made, calculated or intended to be sold as butter or for butter." It makes no distinction between any filthy compound made in imitation of butter and those substitutes for the dairy product which are pronounced by chemists not only harmless, but wholesome. It imposes a tax of $600 on the manufacturer, $480 on the wholesale dealer, and $48 on the retail dealer, and a tax of five cents a pound on all oleomargarine manufactured and sold, provision being made for the proper stamping and labelling of every package, and a penalty being prescribed for the purchase or reception for sale of any oleomargarine not so stamped.

The measure is a plain violation of the spirit of the Constitution, and the passage of the bill is simply a bid for "the farmer vote," just as the passage of the Blair Pension Bill by the Senate the other day was simply a bid for "the soldier vote." It is only fair to point out that in the House, as in the Senate, the Democrats have made a far better showing than the Republicans in standing their ground against demagogism. The Blair Pension Bill received the solid Republican vote in the Senate, and the Oleomargarine Bill secured almost the solid vote of the Republicans in the House (107 to 15), while a good majority of the Democrats (86 to 70) voted against the scheme. Mr. Gibson of West Virginia only told the notorious truth when he said that, if he were allowed to give the names of members of Congress who had told him on the floor of the House that they knew the bill was an infamous and monstrous one, but that they were afraid to vote against it, he would make a revelation which would startle the country and show what a mockery this legislation was.

Mr. Weaver's resolution in the House calling for an investigation of the consolidation of the Kansas Pacific and Denver Pacific with the Union Pacific Railway is an entirely proper proceeding in itself, but its bearings upon the proposed Union Pacific Funding Bill may be overestimated. The law authorized and practically required the consolidation of the two roads. By making the western half of the Union Pacific Road a part of the "continuous line" of the Kansas Pacific and Denver Pacific, and by requiring that the three sections should be operated together without discrimination of any kind, a joint ownership became necessary, and for this the law also provided. But the terms of consolidation were not prescribed in the act. The joint ownership was brought about under the presiding genius of Jay Gould, who bought the stock of the Kansas and Denver Pacific Roads at a very low figure and amalgamated it with the Union Pacific stock at par, letting his co-directors have their share of the "swag" pro rata. There was nothing in this transaction that impaired the Government's lien on the several properties. The real losers were the Union Pacific shareholders, whose stock was watered. It may be that the directors of the Union Pacific at the time when this "deal" was made are legally liable to the company for the profits of the transaction. It is to be hoped that they are. The courts are very strict in interpreting the duties of trustees to their *cestuis que trust*. It is not unlikely, therefore, that the investigation which Mr. Weaver's resolution calls for would lead to the paying of a large sum of money into the Union Pacific treasury; and that would be incidentally helpful to the Government as the holder of the second mortgage. But the pendency of such an investigation is not a good reason for postponing the Fund ing Bill if that measure is right in itself. The Funding Bill proposes to extend the time of maturity of the second mortgage, and give the company the advantage of the low rate of interest which the Government credit commands. Nobody is injured by this, but if any better and more certain way to secure the Government's claim can be devised, now is the proper time to bring it forward.

The Springfield *Republican* refreshes the recollections of the New England fishermen on the subject of the worthlessness of all the privileges accorded to them by the Treaty of Washington. The privileges Canada could give them were counted as of no importance when the whole pack had opened on Secretary Bayard, charging him with betrayal of his country, and declaring that he had been guilty of an impeachable offence in negotiating for a six months' extension of these despised privileges. Now they are calling for ships of war to enable them to buy bait. The whole squabble results from an attempt on both sides to apply the principles of "protection" to the catching of fish. Our people want to protect their catch by shutting out the Canadians from our market. The Canadians want to protect their catch by controlling the bait, of which they have a monopoly. Each wants something that the other side has. Both think that they can secure an advantage for themselves by putting restrictions on trade. The Canadian Constitution permits export duties. If the British Government should require the Canadian authorities to open their ports to trade in bait, it would still be legal to put so heavy an export duty on bait that it would not pay any foreigner to buy it. The racket began on our side, and we must not expect to hush it up in a moment, as Mr. Blaine would do if he were President.

The spiteful people who have been circulating the report for the last two or three months that Mr. Blaine was opposed to Irish home rule, and favored the Salisbury plan of coercion and emigration as a remedy for Irish wrongs, were rudely undeceived on Tuesday week by his speech at Portland. We ourselves, we may as well say, have never doubted that when he came out he would come out on the Irish side. In fact, it is the merest pretence to allege that his opinions on the Irish question were not already known. He has never made any attempt to conceal them, except through the reticence which characterizes every modest and unassuming man, and which was, perhaps, increased in Mr. Blaine's case by his unwillingness to have it supposed that he was angling for the Irish vote. Among his friends in private we believe he has made no secret of the fact that he would liberate Ireland if he could, and take shares in any enterprise got up for the development of her magnificent natural resources.

Of course, it must be admitted, Mr. Blaine's bold attitude on the Irish question is made easy by the absence of any considerable body of voters here who can be offended by it. We do not say that if there was a large number of citizens opposed to home rule, like those who are opposed to Chinese immigration, Mr. Blaine would advocate home rule with the fervor he now displays. He is a man of far too much tact and breeding for that. He would in that case look into the *Tribune* Almanac, and find out if possible how the numbers on both sides stood, and he would then talk and write so as to hurt the feelings of as few persons as possible. He would, in fact, deal with home rule as the French candidate did, who had a good many Anarchists among his constituents, and was told he must placate them. "My friends," said this gentleman, "there is much that is good in anarchy—no one knows this better than I; but we must not abuse it. We must not go to extremes in anarchy any more than in anything else."

We are pained to see Mr. Blaine engaged in another "conflict of veracity," this time with a stenographer, and a well-known stenographer to boot. As the stenographer reported his great home-rule speech, he abused Lord Salisbury very savagely; but he now says he did not abuse Lord Salisbury at all, but only Lord

Salisbury's acts. But the stenographer says he reported the speech correctly, and that the abuse of Lord Salisbury stands now, and must for ever stand, among the verities. The affair bears a striking likeness to the trouble with Mulligan about the famous interview in which Mulligan said that Mr. Blaine almost went on his knees. Here again Mr. Blaine said he had been misreported, and made numerous corrections in the Mulligan version, showing that he had acted throughout as a Christian gentleman. What the object of making the corrections in the Portland speech is, it is hard to see. We think the speech is, on the whole, more effective—from Mr. Blaine's point of view—with the Salisbury vituperation than without it. But we presume the habit of taking things back and explaining and denying is now so deeply rooted that he cannot miss a chance.

The Rev. Heber Newton, in a sermon on the "Labor Problem" on Sunday, mentioned a number of "agents" whose business it is to solve it. These are the labor organizations, the great manufacturing and commercial associations, the Church, and the State—or, in fact, the whole community. We are sorry to say that we think one of the great hindrances to the solution of "the labor problem" is to be found in the vagueness with which clergymen and philanthropists talk about it. The labor problem is primarily a problem for each individual man, and it consists in how to wring a living from mother earth. In so far as any individual is unable or unwilling to solve it for himself, he increases the labor of some of his fellows, they being, in the vast majority of cases, just as sorely beset in the effort to make ends meet as he is. Now this disposition to make A solve not only his own labor problem, but B's as well, which is at the bottom of much of our labor troubles, is much encouraged by such sermons as Mr. Newton's. Their tendency is to belittle the industrial value of individual skill, industry, prudence, and self-reliance, and exalt the value of unions, and congresses, and councils, and rules, and grips, and signs, and charity, and philanthropy, and legislation, and all sorts of other contrivances to save men from the natural consequences assigned by the moral government of the world to laziness and stupidity and envy. In these times nobody should demand solutions of the labor problem from anybody without working them out in detail himself. Whenever we mention the wrongs or rights of labor, for instance, we ought to describe them. Whenever we say "capital," we ought also to say what we mean by capital. We ought not to leave the impression that Jay Gould owns, or any 100 or 1,000 rich men own, all the capital of the country, when the fact is that ninety-nine-hundredths of it consists of the savings of poor men, who have already solved the labor problem, as far as they are concerned, and really have no duty whatever, legal or moral, towards lazy or turbulent and childish fellows like the Southwestern or Third Avenue strikers, except to help to lock them up when they riot and assault.

The Knights of Labor Convention has adhered to its original plan of organization as opposed to the trade-union system. In the general address issued to the public it says: "This organization embraces within its folds all branches of honorable toil and conditions of men, without respect to trade, occupation, sex, creed, color, or nationality." It recognizes the importance of trade-unions and their services in the past, but believes that the time has come when all laborers should be enrolled under one banner, and should receive protection from one common authority, to the end that "a uniform standard of wages and hours of labor should be adopted." Precisely what is meant by this it is difficult to understand, unless it be that the skilled and the unskilled laborer, the hod-carrier and the bricklayer, the coal-heaver and the engineer, should receive the same pay. Perhaps, however, it means merely that all men in similar occupations should receive the same pay, and that one organization, embracing all the people of the United States, without distinction of trade, occupation, sex, creed, color, or nationality, is better calculated to secure uniform wages for bricklayers, for instance, than a bricklayers' union would be. If this is what is meant —and this is the only alternative—we must respectfully take the side of the trade-unions, believing that the bricklayers' union will accomplish anything advantageous to bricklayers more speedily and certainly than a society composed of all the people of the United States. To take a familiar and often-used illustration, we have not the slightest doubt that the interests of silk operatives will be advanced more satisfactorily by their own Union than by a Walking Delegate chosen by the cigarmakers. The silk-dyers will undoubtedly have more money in their pockets at the end of the year by attending strictly to their own business than by joining in boycotts and paying occasional assessments to support switchmen and brakemen far and near. Enlightened selfishness requires that each trade should pursue the same line of action that the individual would pursue in a primitive state of society. Solidarity of interests, in any other sense than through the organization of justice, does not exist. It is for the interest of coal-miners that coal should bring a high price, but it is not for the interest of anybody else. To bring about a solidarity of interests *ad hoc* between coal-miners, and iron-puddlers, and engine-stokers, and housekeepers, is impossible.

It is unnecessary to speculate upon the motives which led the Knights to reject the platform of the trade-unions and adhere to their own. The most obvious one is that every organization, political, industrial, or what not, seeks first to perpetuate itself. To accede to the demand of the trade-unions that the Knights keep hands off from every trade that has a national or international union, would be an act of suicide, because most of the trades have such unions now and all may have them by and by. To revoke the charters of all assemblies which have a union of their own, would so greatly curtail the importance of the Order and so lower it in the estimation of those whose imagination is impressed by numbers, that it would soon disappear, and with it all the Master Workmen, Executive Boards, Venerable Sages, and Inside and Outside Esquires.

The newspapers have surpassed all their previous efforts in that line in "working up" the details of the President's wedding. Nothing has been too silly, or too trivial, or too vulgar to be printed, and the result is a mass of balderdash such as probably has never before been laid before a civilized community as a product of the human mind. And it must be remembered that, as we see it, it is nothing to what it would have been but for the precautions taken against the admission of reporters to witness the ceremony, or overhaul the White House during the preparations. Read this, as a sample of what editors think the American people demand on such occasions:

"Drawing up near the favored car, the occupant of the carriage, Miss Rose Cleveland, alighted and entered the car. She was out of sight only a moment. Miss Folsom, clad in a dark gray jacket over her silk dress, and with the bleak and white trimmings of her peaked chip hat stirred gently by the wooing air, came close behind Miss Cleveland on her reappearance. Her cheeks were tinged with soft color, and so far from showing any trace of the cares of state, she looked as though she had gone to bed early, like a sensible young woman, and had had a good night's rest. The reach was long enough from the lower step of the car to the walk to display to the fraction of the score of spectators gathered about who were not all eyes for Miss Folsom rather more of the anatomy of the President's sister than is usually to be seen in public. This misstep did not escape the quick eye of the bride, and with a dainty kick she gathered her skirts about her, and jumped to the walk with only her boot tips protruding."

And here is the way in which the journalistic profession sought to promote the comfort and consult the taste of the Chief Magistrate on his wedding day:

"It was expected that the President would try and slip away unobserved, and in order to prevent this a number of newspaper men stationed themselves near the southwest entrance to the grounds with carriages convenient to follow the President in case he should make his exit by that gate. This was reported to the President, so he instructed his driver to go out of the grounds by another and almost unused route, and in that way he avoided the reporters altogether."

And finally, let us call the attention of the American people to this:

"The train moved off at once towards Deer Park, where the couple hope to pass their honeymoon in quiet. . . . The Chicago Limited, which followed the President's special, carried a number of special correspondents, who will reach Oakland about sunrise. None of the hotels open at this season, and the question of providing the journalistic pilgrims with food and shelter will have to resolve itself when the unexpected colony invade the mountain precincts of the President's retreat."

The truth is that both he and his bride have been hunted down by the newspapers with no more mercy or consideration than if they were wild animals, whose sole function was to amuse the public by their struggles to escape.

The Boston *Record*, in some sensible remarks on the sad stuff the "reportorial" labors have produced in this case, observes:

"But what are the faithful managing editor and his obedient reporters to do, we repeat, if people call for and insist upon buying columns of matter about Miss Folsom and the President, when there is nothing to tell about except that a quiet girl, stopping at a quiet hotel in New York, goes quietly to Washington to marry the man of her choice in the quietest possible manner?"

But do the people insist on buying columns of this "matter about Miss Folsom and the President"? Where is the proof of it? Has any paper with, say, 20,000 circulation sold 1,000 additional copies on account of its re-

porters' sickening twaddle and inventions about the wedding? We doubt it very much. We doubt if any paper has by lying and embellishing increased its circulation 500 copies over what would have been obtained by telling the plain truth in a simple, gentlemanly way. Moreover, is it possible that journalism is really a calling in which men are called upon to do or say *anything* which will increase sales? If this be true, it is the lowest occupation, not absolutely criminal, known to modern society — in some respects, worse than keeping a brothel or gambling house, because there is no pretence or humbug about the conductors of such establishments as these. They do not preach, or give moral advice, or set up to be guides in manners. They admit frankly that their sole aim is to make money.

The poverty of ammunition on the Republican side in the Maine campaign was strikingly shown by the speech in which Congressman Reed of the Portland district accepted his renomination the other day. Two years ago Mr. Reed waxed eloquent over the dangers to the business interests of the country involved in the "clean sweep" of the office-holders which would be inevitable in case of Cleveland's election. Now, in the hope of teasing Democratic office-seekers, he says that "after fifteen months of power, the great majority of Republican office-holders remain in their places"—which is, of course, the strongest evidence that could possibly be given of the Administration's fidelity to its reform pledges. Two years ago Mr. Reed charged that the Civil-Service Law would not be observed if the Democrats carried the election. Now he seeks to exasperate Democratic "workers" by declaring that, where offices are filled with Democrats, they are given only to Democrats who have passed examinations—apparently not perceiving that he is thus bearing valuable testimony to the honesty with which the competitive system is maintained. Indeed, this speech of Mr. Reed's is about as high a tribute to the Administration at Washington as it has received from any source.

The mass meeting in Providence on Wednesday, to protest against the election of a defaulter by the Republican Legislature of Rhode Island to the important post of Chief of State Police, was very largely attended. The largest hall in the city was crowded with an audience which represented the intelligence and morality of the city. The President of Brown University presided, and in a terse and vigorous speech against the conduct of the Legislature said: "If the Republican party legislates in this way, the quicker it is placed under ground the better." As the Legislature has since refused to reconsider its action, the burying process cannot be begun too soon. The simple truth about the matter is, that the performance is precisely similar in character to many which the same party managers have for years been carrying through without exposure. Heretofore they have had not only the sympathy but the support of the Providence *Journal*, which, under the old management, was in the "ring" which the Anthony influence had built up. The new managers of the paper refuse to have anything to do with such politics, and the result is the present disturbance, which is likely to break up the old Republican organization and put an honest one in its place.

The report on the Field case made by the Committee of the Massachusetts Legislature is producing all the dissatisfaction that so lame and impotent a conclusion could yield. It is perceived that to exonerate Mr. Field without blaming anybody else and without explaining the loss of $90,000 to the State which resulted from the acceptance of the lower bid of the Boston parties for the second-mortgage bonds, is a gross and cowardly *non-sequitur*. If the facts are such as the Committee reported, viz., that Mr. Field and his syndicate had no pecuniary interest to be served by "wrecking the road," but that their interests were the other way, then the Committee were bound to state the facts and accept all the consequences, not tacitly, but openly and boldly. It follows from such a conclusion that the Governor was deceived, and that he was deceived by somebody. It may be that he acted too hastily. Somebody has been to blame. Somebody ought to pay the State $90,000. It is scarcely possible that the matter can be allowed to rest where it is. The suggestion of the Boston *Transcript*, that the Legislature should amend the report "so as to register the prevalent opinion that the Committee was incapacitated from forming a definite opinion upon the highly important subject committed to it," would be a fitting rebuke to the inconsequential character of the report, but would still fall short of the demands of the occasion. What is required is to know whether there has been any lying and false swearing, and if so by whom, and who is accountable for the $90,000.

The public mind in Boston is excited, and justly, by a proposal to pull down the present State House and build a greater on the same site. It is still the *new* State House in distinction from the Old (now the most precious public monument the city can show); and it caps the rising outlines of the ancient Trimountain in a way which has made it dear to the heart of every genuine Bostonian. It is also a good and even noble design in itself, and it is not at all likely that those who desire to see it replaced by a building that will ape the capitols at Hartford or Albany, will succeed in rearing anything so excellent or so fit, to say nothing of the associations connected with a pile of which Paul Revere laid the corner-stone ninety-one years ago. We remember when the project to put in the present underpinning, and again to enlarge the cupola to its present size, caused an outcry in Boston—proof of the hold that the State House had on the popular affection. Certainly nothing should be rashly done to weaken the feeling of historic continuity in a State, and we do not believe there is any occasion for it in this instance. The appropriation of closely adjoining buildings would secure the necessary room for archives and for other purposes at a trifling cost, and Massachusetts would not exhibit the spectacle, common elsewhere, of Legislatures more luxuriously housed as they descended lower in the scale of honesty and intelligence.

It is a refreshing novelty to find a California politician giving the people of the Pacific Coast a good dose of sound doctrine on the Chinese question, such as Senator Stanford administers in his letter replying to a resolution of an anti-Chinese organization. The Senator owns large farms on which Chinamen are employed, and he tells the League that the reason he employs them is simply because he cannot get good workmen of other races, although overrun by tramps. In conclusion the Senator lays down some elementary if forgotten principles, which it will do the Californians an immense amount of good to hear from a Californian of standing and influence, as this: "Let me say to you in general terms that the theory of our Government is founded upon the inalienable rights of man"—not excluding even the Chinaman—"which the poor, of all others, are most interested in maintaining."

The *Christian Union* lately published a characteristically ridiculous letter from Senator Blair, charging that the remarkable revolution in the sentiment of the nation regarding his "bill to promote mendicancy" during the last few months has been due to the Jesuits, who have been "subsidizing the press" "with the money of the Vatican." Last week it called attention to the fact that "no one authorized to speak either for the Jesuit Order or the Vatican denies the statement," and it declared that "in the absence of such a denial the statement must be taken as true"! The *Christian Union* is not ostensibly published as a "funny paper," but anything so humorous as this was never dreamed of by *Puck*.

In the debate in the House of Lords preceding another defeat of the bill legalizing marriage with a deceased wife's sister, the Duke of Argyll was the principal opponent of the bill. He maintained that the only sound principle to act on was that a man must not marry any woman whom if as nearly related to him as to his wife he could not marry, and he urged the House successfully to "stand firm in the ancient ways." But the *Daily News* shows that the ancient ways are only forty years old. Up to that date these marriages were legal, until somebody chose to impugn them in the lifetime of the parties. They were then made absolutely illegal as a condition of the passage of a bill legitimizing the offspring of a duke who had contracted such a marriage. Some of the bishops are so satisfied, however, of their wickedness, that they fear divine vengeance on the whole country in case the bill ever gets through. In fact, the hold which the dread of these marriages has on the Conservative mind in England is one of the most curious phenomena of the day. In the *Saturday Review* the supporters of the bill usually figure as licentious Dissenters, each animated by an unholy affection for his sister-in-law.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 2, to TUESDAY, June 8, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND was married to Miss Frances Folsom in the White House at seven o'clock on Wednesday evening, by the Rev. Dr. Sunderland. Those present were: Mrs. Folsom, mother of the bride; the Rev. W. N. Cleveland, the President's brother; Miss Cleveland and Mrs. Hoyt, the President's sisters; Secretary Bayard and Miss Bayard, Secretary and Mrs. Manning, Secretary and Mrs. Endicott, Secretary and Mrs. Whitney, Postmaster-General and Mrs. Vilas, Secretary Lamar, Daniel S. Lamont and Mrs. Lamont, Benjamin Folsom of Buffalo, Mr. and Mrs. Rogers of Seneca Falls, Mrs. Cadman and Miss Huddleston of Detroit, Mr. and Mrs. Harmon of Boston, relatives of the bride; Miss Nelson of New York, Mr. W. S. Bissell of Buffalo, the President's former law partner; Dr. and Mrs. Byron Sunderland. The ceremony was very simple and included the use of a ring. The party then passed into the dining-room, where an elegant supper was served. Soon after nine P. M. the bride and groom left Washington by a special train for Deer Park, where they are spending their honeymoon. Queen Victoria sent the following cable message to President Cleveland: "Pray accept my sincere congratulations on your marriage, and my best wishes for your happiness."

The last official act which Grover Cleveland did as bachelor President was to sign the bill for the payment of the awards of the *Alabama* claims.

Letters were published on Saturday from Secretary Manning resigning his office on account of the state of his health, and from President Cleveland declining to accept the resignation, and asking that the Secretary take a leave of absence till October 1, when the question of his remaining can again be considered. It is understood that Secretary Manning will never resume his office. The President is not ready to appoint a new Secretary just now, and if he needs the time will have some months to think over the matter. His desire is to find some man to take the place who will be able properly to fill it.

Senator Cullom (Rep., Ill.) introduced a joint resolution on Wednesday proposing the following amendment to the Constitution: Article xvi., sec. 1. The only institution or contract of marriage within the United States or any place subject to their jurisdiction shall be that of the union in marriage of one man with one woman; and bigamy or polygamy is for ever prohibited, any law, custom, form, or ceremony, civil or religious, to the contrary notwithstanding. Sec. 2. No State shall pass any law or allow any custom, form, or ceremony of marriage, except in obedience to and conformably to the institution of marriage as herein defined and established; but otherwise the regulation within each State of marriage and divorce and civil and criminal jurisdiction over these subjects, shall belong to the several States as heretofore. Sec. 3. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Mr. Dawes inquired in the Senate on Thursday afternoon whether the Foreign Affairs Committee had done anything in the matter of the fishery resolution introduced some time ago. Mr. Hale said that if the reports as to the recent action of the Ottawa Government are correct, more serious mischief is intended than had been supposed. He considered it important that the Administration should speedily discover and make known the fundamental principles of the Ottawa Government. Mr. Hale said as to the attitude of the Secretary of State: "He has disclosed a disposition to learn at once, and under every method in his power and at his command, the ulterior purposes of the Canadian authorities."

The bill providing for the taxation of railroad-grant lands was passed by the Senate on Thursday. It provides that no lands granted to any railroad company by act of Congress shall be exempt from taxation by States, Territories, or municipal corporations on account of the lien of the United States on such lands for costs of surveying, selecting, and conveying, or because no patent had been issued on the lands; this provision not to apply, however, to lands unsurveyed. All such lands sold for taxes shall be bought subject to the lien for those costs, and to all liens, mortgages, and rights of the United States. This act is made to apply only to lands situated opposite to, and coterminous with, completed portions of the roads and in organized counties. At any sale of lands under the act the United States may become a preferred purchaser, and in such cases the lands shall be restored to the public domain. If any railroad company required by law to pay the costs of surveying, etc., neglects for thirty days to pay such costs after demand by the Secretary of the Interior, the Attorney-General shall proceed at law to make the collection, and in cases where a purchaser has already paid such costs, they shall be refunded to him. It is further provided that the act shall not affect the right of the Government to declare or enforce a forfeiture of any lands granted by Congress, and all the rights of the United States to such lands are to remain as if this act had not been passed.

The Senate on Friday passed the Chinese Indemnity Bill by a vote of 31 yeas to 9 nays, the latter being Beck, Berry, Coke, Eustis, Harris, Maxey, Mitchell of Oregon, and Vest —all Democrats except Mr. Mitchell.

The Oleomargarine Bill passed the House on Thursday by 177 to 101. The negative vote was larger than expected.

Oleomargarine had the floor in the Senate on Monday morning. The contest was between the Committee on Agriculture and the Committee on Finance as to the question of jurisdiction. Messrs. Van Wyck, Miller of New York, and Blair earnestly contended that the bill should go to the Committee on Agriculture. Messrs. Aldrich, McPherson, Beck, Vest, and Butler insisted that it should go to the Finance Committee as a revenue bill. Senator Beck says the bill will raise $10,000,000 of revenue. The bill was finally referred to the Agricultural Committee by a vote of 22 to 21.

The House of Representatives on Friday, by a vote of 140 to 67, rejected the report of the Committee on Reform in the Civil Service recommending the expulsion of Luther F. Warder from the office of Assistant Doorkeeper of the House, and adopted a substitute resolution of censure for the offence of using money to secure an appropriation of $50,000 for the Jeffersonville (Ind.) levee. It is said that ex-Senator McDonald's influence saved Warder.

In Judge Kelley's speech in the House on Tuesday afternoon, in support of his motion to strike from the *Record* the speech of Representative Wheeler of Alabama, which attacked ex-Secretary Stanton, he read an unpublished letter of Mr. Stanton to the Rev. Hammond Dyer of New York, the preceptor of Mr. Stanton, in which a full and confidential explanation is made of Stanton's relations to McClellan and Lincoln during the civil war In this remarkable letter, dated May 18, 1862, Mr. Stanton says: "The official records will at the proper time fully prove: (1.) That I have employed the whole power of the Government unsparingly to support Gen. McClellan's operations. (2.) That I have not interfered with or thwarted them in any particular. (3.) That the force retained from his expedition was not needed and could not have been employed by him; that it was retained by express orders of the President, upon military investigation and upon the best military advice in the country; that its retention was required to *save* the capital from the danger to which it was exposed by a disregard of the President's positive orders of the 6th of March. (4.) That between the President and myself there has never been the slightest shadow of difference upon any point save the detachment of Franklin's force, and that was a point of no significance."

The House on Monday passed the Arthur Kill Bridge Bill without opposition. The House also passed, by a vote of 183 to 40, a bill repealing the preëmption, timber culture, and desert-land laws, and so modifying the homestead law that the settler is not entitled to a patent until thirty months after the filing of his claim, and six months after the presentation of proof of settlement and cultivation.

The House Appropriations Committee is determined to annoy the Civil-Service Commission to the last degree possible. The Committee well understands that the amendment which it has reported to the Legislative Bill, the intended effect of which is to destroy the Commission, cannot become a law. It has, therefore, been decided to pursue the Commission in another direction. The latest scheme is to endeavor to make the Commission houseless. The Commission since its organization has occupied, by the courtesy of the Agricultural Bureau, rooms in an annex to that Bureau. But these rooms are needed by the Bureau, and the Civil-Service Commission has received notice to seek quarters elsewhere after July 1. The Secretary of the Interior engaged suitable rooms; but Mr. Randall of the Appropriations Committee says that there shall be no appropriation for the rooms which Secretary Lamar has rented.

The state of business in Congress is as follows: In the House there have been 9,125 bills and 178 joint resolutions introduced—a larger number of bills than has ever been introduced at any previous session. Of this number the House has passed 72 public and 384 private bills. In the Senate there have been 2,580 bills and 68 joint resolutions introduced, of which 157 public and 323 private bills have been passed. The House has passed 36 public and 87 private bills which have passed the Senate. Altogether in the two houses there have been introduced 11,951 bills and resolutions, of which 108 public and 471 private bills have passed the two houses.

Mr. Winston, the new United States Minister to Persia, has tired of his place and resigned.

The United States Grand Jury at Seattle, Washington Territory, has found indictments against ten leaders of the recent anti-Chinese riots in that city. The jury's report alleges that evidence has been laid before the jury sufficient to convince them that there exists throughout the country a treasonable organization known as the "Red American International Workingmen's Association." This organization is described at great length. Among other things the report says: "This Association, with all its branches, is essentially anarchical in theory and practice. The main articles of its creed are arson, robbery, and murder. Its proclaimed purpose is the overthrow of our Government and the erection upon its ruins of a so-called Socialist commonwealth. The policy pursued by this Association is to secure control of all labor organizations, and particularly of the Knights of Labor. The scientific Socialists of the Red American International Workingmen's Association are, as shown by unmistakable documentary evidence before us, secretly instructing their deluded, ignorant, and brutalized followers in the means of practically applying dynamite; how to seize armories and military stores; how to prevent the departure of troops from concentrating points; how to preserve order in centres of insurrections; how to imprison and destroy men of property and influence. To accomplish this end this Association instructs its members to be particularly active in labor organizations."

The Grand Jury having found indictments against many prominent Knights of Labor and other trades-unionists in Milwaukee, the making of arrests began on Wednesday. Among the persons indicted, all in connection with the labor riots in that city, are Chairman McNally

of the District Executive Board, and Robert Schilling, the organizer of the Knights of Labor in the eastern part of the State. There is great excitement among the union men.

John Most, the Anarchist, was on Wednesday sentenced in this city, for inciting to riot, to one year in the Penitentiary and $500 fine. Braunschweig was sentenced to the Penitentiary for nine months and fined $250, and Schenck was sent to the Penitentiary for nine months, but not fined.

There was a general tie-up of all the horse-car lines in this city and Brooklyn on Saturday. The Third Avenue line, which employs non-union men, continued to run, as did the Bleecker, Twenty-third, and Eighteenth Street lines. The strike was ordered by the Executive Board of the Empire Protective Association. They said they had done this to force the Third Avenue Road, through the intervention of other companies, to come to terms, and declared that the fight would be forced all along the line. The old story of a combination between the car-companies was alleged again as one of the causes of the strike. The curious feature about the tie-up was that no proclamation or explanation accompanied the order to tie up.

The strike utterly collapsed on Sunday morning, the men going back to work without orders from the Association. They did not know what they had struck for; they knew nothing of the contemplated tie-up until early on the morning it took place, and when they found that they stood a chance of losing their employment without any adequate object other than, as they supposed, an attempt to revive a dead issue by trying to coerce the Third Avenue Road, they very wisely concluded to return to work at the earliest possible moment, whether an order to resume work was issued by the District Assembly or not, and the result was a general "bolt" from union authority.

W. L. Maxwell was on Saturday found guilty of the murder of C. Arthur Preller. This is the end of the St. Louis trunk mystery.

The Rev. John Williamson Nevin, D.D., LL.D., died at his home near Lancaster, Pa., on Sunday, at the age of eighty-three. He was born in Franklin County, Pa., February 20, 1803, of a Scotch-Irish family which has long been prominent in Pennsylvania affairs, and especially in the Presbyterian and Reformed Churches. Dr. Nevin was for many years President of Franklin and Marshall College, and a distinguished theologian in the Reformed Church. He was the author of many religious works.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone, replying to a letter from Thomas Henry Bolton, Liberal Member for North St. Pancras, writes: "I hold it to be indisputable, indeed elementary, that the voting of the second reading of the Home-Rule Bill affirms only the principle of the establishment of an Irish legislative body to transact business concerning purely Irish as distinct from imperial affairs. The Government consider and hold themselves free to accept any proposals which may be submitted to them previous to the autumn session consistent with the five main conditions which they consider essential to the solution of the question, including Irish representatives at Westminster to take part in the discussion and settlement of imperial business. The Government are not only at liberty, but they are in duty bound, to consider any such amendments."

Mr. Labouchere asking him if Mr. Gladstone's letter to Mr. Moulton would not enable him, if not to support the Home-Rule Bill, at least to abstain from voting, Mr. Chamberlain replied on Sunday that Mr. Gladstone had given no indication that the autumn bill would materially differ from the present bill. He continued: "On the contrary, Mr. Gladstone has distinctly stated that he will not depart from the main outlines. To those outlines myself and my friends are opposed. It appears to me that we should stultify ourselves if we should abstain at the last moment from giving effect to our conscientious convictions."

In the home-rule debate in the House of Commons on Thursday night Mr. John Morley made a speech in which he said that this bill might be regarded as the last will and testament of the present Government. The division about to be taken would not be the end. Even an electoral campaign might not be the end. Let not opponents of the bill imagine that by driving the Government from the stage the curtain would fall on the last scene of the fifth and final act of the Irish question. If the House refused to accept the solution now offered, it might rest assured that no other measure, unless based upon the lines of this measure, would be carried a single effective stage further.

The London *Standard* joined in the attack on Mr. Blaine for his attack on the Marquis of Salisbury in his Portland speech. It said: "We must try to believe that it was a false version of Lord Salisbury's speech which was adopted without inquiry by this American politician, who for personal reasons cultivates the Irish vote." The London *News* (Ministerial), commenting on the same topic, says: "We have nothing to do with Mr. Blaine. He belongs to a far from admirable class of American politicians. We can do very well without his opinion of this country. His advice is not required in the management of our concerns. Whether he misrepresented the Marquis of Salisbury or not, we do not know and do not care."

The London *Times*, in its turn, said: "Mr. Blaine may or may not catch the Irish vote by performances such as that of Tuesday's speech, and so win the prize which, fully as much on personal as on political grounds, has been snatched from him once and again; but we refuse to believe that his ignorant and presumptuous rant represents the honest and independent opinion and reflection of the Americans. It is peculiarly absurd that he should pose as the advocate of a plan which he supposes, quite wrongly, of course, would place Ireland in the position of a State of the American Union. He has been conspicuous, for the same reasons which now make him a flatterer of the Irish, in the bloody-shirt campaign against Southern State rights; and if any Southern State should now attempt to deprive negroes of suffrage, he would be the first to favor the settlement of that local affair by the armed interference of the central Government. His history is almost on a par with his reasoning."

The debate on the second reading of the Home-Rule Bill was concluded amid great excitement on Monday night. Speeches of great force were made by Mr. Goschen, Mr. Parnell, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, and Mr. Gladstone. The vote, early on Tuesday morning, resulted in the defeat of the Gladstone Government by a majority of 30; 341 voting against the measure, of whom 94 were Liberals and Radicals, and 311 for it. Mr. Gladstone moved an adjournment till Thursday.

During Mr. Gladstone's speech closing the great debate the scene in the House surpassed any ever known there before. The crowd was tremendous. The Prime Minister was received with cheer upon cheer. He was very pale, but in splendid voice, and spoke for one hundred and forty minutes. It is not possible to summarize his speech. The peroration was impassioned and most eloquent. The closing sentences were as follows: "Ireland stands at your bar expectant, hopeful, almost suppliant. Her words are the words of truth and soberness. She asks blessed oblivion of the past, and in that oblivion our interest is a deeper interest than hers. Go into the length and breadth of the world, ransack the literature of all countries, and find if you can a single voice, a single book—find, I would almost say, as much as a single newspaper article—in which the conduct of England towards Ireland is anywhere treated, except with profound and bitter condemnation. Are these the traditions by which we are exhorted to stand? Oh! they are a sad exception to the glory of our country. They are more than a black blot upon the pages of its history. And what we want to do is to stand by the traditions of which we are the heirs in all matters except our relations with Ireland, and to make our relations with Ireland conform to the other traditions of our country. So we treat our traditions; so we hail the demand of Ireland for what I call a blessed oblivion of the past. She asks also a boon for the future, and that boon for the future, unless we are much mistaken, will be a boon to us in respect to honor no less than a boon to her in respect to happiness, prosperity, and peace. Think, I beseech you, think well, think wisely, think not for the moment, but for the years that are to come before you reject our plan."

One of the incidents of the debate was a passage at arms between Sir Michael Hicks-Beach and Mr. Parnell. This scene sprang from Mr. Parnell's calm assurance to the House that he had received from a Conservative statesman before the general election a pledge that the Tories would give him a measure of home rule so large as to include the power to protect Irish industries. This statement created "a sensation." The leader of the Tory party apparently denied the charge with great candor and some sarcasm. In fact, however, he only denied it with a qualification.

The Cabinet on Tuesday unanimously resolved to appeal to the country. It is probable that Parliament will be dissolved on June 28. Irishmen both in this country and Great Britain express satisfaction with the result as tending to hasten the final settlement of the whole question by bringing it immediately before the people.

A great funeral procession of 20,000 Catholics in Belfast on Sunday was attacked by Orangemen. Stones were thrown and shots fired. Several people were injured before the police restored order. The Catholics smashed the windows in a linen factory.

The Highland Reform League, at a meeting held in Glasgow on Thursday night, adopted resolutions favoring home rule for Scotland and the establishment of a separate Scotch Legislature.

The International Copyright Bill was read a third time in the House of Commons on Thursday night

The Earl of Rosebery announced in the House of Lords on Monday that the blockade of the allied Powers against Greece had been raised and the allied fleet was dispersing.

Prince Jerome Napoleon publishes a protest against the passage of the proposed Expulsion Bill. He predicts that the Chamber of Deputies by conduct such as the passage of this bill will drive the Republic into civil war.

The Grand Prix de Paris was won on Sunday by R. C. Vyner's Minting, ridden by Archer.

A farmer from Rumania died of hydrophobia in Paris on Monday while under treatment by M. Pasteur. The Rumanian was bitten by a rabid dog on May 11, and reached M. Pasteur on May 25. After he had been under treatment eleven days he exhibited symptoms of hydrophobia on Saturday last, and suffered the agonies of rabies for nearly forty-eight hours before death relieved him. This upsets Pasteur's theory about the period required for hydrophobia to incubate.

The Austrian Reichsrath is debating the first of a series of laws against the Socialists, providing for trial without a jury.

Gen. Caceres took his seat as President of Peru on Thursday.

MR. GLADSTONE'S DEFEAT.

THE general anticipation as to the fate of Mr. Gladstone's Home-Rule Bill was verified on Tuesday by its defeat by a majority of thirty. The leading speeches in the debate which preceded the division were Mr. Goschen's and Mr. Parnell's. The former has always been famed for his power of lucid statement, but the coldness of his temperament, which is *par excellence* that of an economist, has of late years caused a marked separation in feeling between himself and the Liberal party. He distinctly distrusts democracy and makes no secret of it, and could at the last election get no Liberal constituency in England to return him, but had to find refuge in Edinburgh. As an orator he has hitherto had the reputation simply of a very sensible and well-informed man. The Irish question, however, seems to have kindled something like fire in his brain, and he has produced speeches which have amazed his old friends by their vehement power. That on Monday night was undoubtedly his best, and must have weighted Parnell, who rose after him. The force of Mr. Goschen's opposition lies almost wholly, however, in his prophecies of the mischief the Irish will do if they get the government into their hands. He puts this argument better than any other opponent of the bill, because he is not restrained, as many of them are, by any affectation of respect for "the people." The Irish to him represent democracy in its worst and most dangerous shape, and he denounces them, therefore, and predicts their crimes and follies with a double earnestness.

Mr. Parnell resembles Mr. Goschen very closely in the coldness of his temperament and his incapacity for all kinds of oratorical adornment; but he has won probably more fame than Mr. Goschen by his skill in saying what he means exactly and distinctly—no more and no less. On Monday night he probably reached his highest mark as a Parliamentary speaker. There was not a word wasted. A fuller or more forcible and persuasive statement of the exact position of the Irish towards the Ministerial proposal could not be made. He was particularly strong in the point which the opponents of the scheme deem its weakest, and of which Mr. Goschen made much—the danger to the Protestant minority from Catholic tyranny and intolerance. We believe this danger is a pure concoction of the English and Orange anti-Papal imagination. The Irish Catholics have on no occasion, when the chance was offered them, displayed any disposition to oppress or discriminate against their countrymen of a different persuasion. One illustration of this has been frequently cited in the late debates. The Corporation of Belfast is and has always been a Protestant body, and has never been known to employ a Catholic in any capacity. The Corporation of Dublin is, on the other hand, wholly Catholic, and has Protestants in five or six of the best places in its gift. Mr. Alfred Webb of Dublin, a Quaker gentleman of the best standing there, whose father was in his day a stanch friend and supporter of the American abolitionists, has collected testimony on this point from over fifty representative Protestants in various parts of Ireland—Episcopal and Presbyterian ministers, manufacturers, and professional men, some of them English and Scotchmen, most of them living in places in which Catholics are a large majority of the population. Their experience may be summed up in that of Mr. Anderson, the Protestant rector of Dinagh, Cork County, who says:

"During my life, wholly spent in Ireland, and especially during sixteen years of it passed in districts of the south, in which a vast majority of the people are Roman Catholics, I have never met a single instance of religious intolerance on the part of my Roman Catholic neighbors. My experience of life among them records nothing but very constant kindness and courtesy."

There is, of course, nothing now left for Mr. Gladstone but an appeal to the country. Everybody acknowledges that the coalition against him is incapable of forming a ministry that would last three months. Moreover, on such a measure as the Home-Rule Bill, for which 225 English and Scotch votes have been cast in a house which has had no opportunity of taking the sense of its constituencies on it, an appeal to the voters is inevitable before long. Even if the Tories came into power, they would be compelled to make such an appeal almost as soon as Gladstone, for no representative body can live or do any business in a state of uncertainty on a theme so momentous. The mind of England on the Irish question must be known before the Government of the country can go much further. Mr. Gladstone may not live to see this question settled on the lines which he has traced out, but if Irishmen ever find themselves under a government of their own choice, they will assuredly not forget that they owe it to the great Englishman who was the first to acknowledge that the Union was an immense mistake.

THE PROHIBITION BALANCE OF POWER.

THE undisguised alarm with which the Republican managers are contemplating the growth of the Prohibition movement, is not without good cause. As the case stands to-day, the balance of power in all the decisive Middle States, New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut, is in the hands of the Prohibitionists. If they vote for a candidate of their own in any of those States, the Republicans will not have the slightest chance of electing their ticket. The figures of recent elections show this to be an entirely moderate statement of the facts.

Take first the State of New York for the latest three most important elections:

	Rep.	Dem.	Pro.
1882	342,464	535,318	25,783
1884	562,001	563,048	24,999
1885	490,331	501,465	30,867

In every one of these years, except in 1882, when Cleveland was elected Governor by a phenomenal majority, the contest has been decided by the Prohibition vote. Blaine would have carried the State in 1884 if St. John had not been in the field, and, without a Prohibition ticket in 1885, Davenport would have had a handsome majority. It is undisputed that the Prohibition vote is drawn from the Republican ranks. It was hoped to offset this defection in 1884 by the Butler candidacy, but that drew from the Democrats in the entire State only 16,955 votes, or 8,000 less than St. John drew from Blaine. The vote cast a year later for the Prohibition candidate for Governor showed that the party was gaining rather than losing in strength, for the total vote increased from 24,000 to 30,000. If an election were to be held in the State to-day, few careful observers would be surprised to see this total advance to 40,000, or even beyond that limit. The failure of the Republican Legislature to submit a prohibition amendment to the popular vote, and, more than this, the action of the same Legislature in passing the Shook Excise Bill, in the avowed interest of "Republican saloon-keepers," has not only deeply incensed former members of the Prohibition party, but has given them thousands of new recruits. Sheridan Shook's famous telegram to the *Tribune* has travelled, and is still travelling, through all the sections of the State, and is everywhere doing the Republican party incalculable harm. The real facts about the New York situation are frankly admitted in the following remarks by the leading Republican organ at Albany, the *Evening Journal:*

"The general statement we believe cannot be disputed, that a Prohibition vote of 30,000 in New York State will prevent the Republican party from carrying the State for years to come, unless a political earthquake shall change the face of things. Any scheme to make good that vote by securing so-called 'Republican saloon votes' is a sham."

The situation in New Jersey is even more grave than it is here. That State also was lost to Blaine by a Prohibition vote which is much larger to-day than it was in 1884, and is growing larger hourly. The figures of the last three most important elections there are:

	Rep.	Dem.	Pro.
1880	120,555	122,565	191
1883	97,047	103,856	4,153
1884	123,366	127,778	6,153

Here is a growth of about 6,000 votes within four years. Blaine would have carried the State if he could have held them, but without them he was 4,000 behind Cleveland. During the past year the growth of the Prohibition party in New Jersey has been remarkable. It has recently held a State Convention with nearly 800 delegates, and has nominated a State ticket. The Republican managers tried in vain to prevent this nomination by holding a conference just in advance, and issuing a formal address in favor of local option. This had no apparent effect, and has been completely nullified by the action of the Republican Legislature, which last week voted down by a large majority both a local-option bill and a plan for high license, thus going upon the record as opposed to all legislation for the restriction of the liquor traffic. It would not be surprising now if the Prohibition vote in the State in November next were to reach, as the leaders of the party are predicting, at least 20,000. Whatever be its limit, there is scarcely a doubt that it will be large enough to defeat the Republican ticket by an unusually large majority.

The figures from Connecticut tell a similar story. For the past three important elections they are:

	Rep.	Dem.	Pro.
1880	67,071	64,415	409
1882	54,853	59,014	1,034
1884	65,923	67,199	2,305

Blaine would have carried the State easily

with the aid of the Prohibition vote, and his total would then have been about the same as Garfield's was when he carried the State in 1880. The experiment of offsetting the temperance defection with Butler's candidacy failed in Connecticut as it did in New York, drawing only 1,688 votes.

Without these three States no Republican candidate can be elected to the Presidency in 1888, and instead of trying to keep the Blaine boom from collapsing, the Republican managers would be much wiser were they to concentrate their minds upon methods for getting the temperance vote back again. The two main causes for the growth of the temperance moment are, first, the failure of the Republican party to legislate in the interest of temperance, and second, the complete departure from the same party's principles of anything like a moral issue. The men who have gone into the Prohibition movement represent that great element which made the bone and sinew of the Republican party, and made it truly the party of moral ideas. They are men who believe in something, and who can no longer find anything to believe in in the Republican party. They have been driven out by such political management as the Shook telegram reveals, which has been the main reliance of the party for victory for several years. It is a management which bases its hope of success, not upon any principle, but upon trickery and trading. Its idea of legislation is not to enact laws in the public interest, but to enact no laws which may be likely to repel any class of ignorant or vicious voters. In its one anxiety to catch voters of this sort the party has lost the very vote which made it powerful—namely, the vote of the people who believe in something.

What the outcome of the present movement will be, it is too early to determine. That any permanent gain for the cause of temperance can be secured by it, we have very grave doubts. Prohibition, as a means for even checking the spread of the liquor evil, has been a failure wherever it has been tried on a large scale, and we believe it always will be a failure so long as it has only a minority of public sentiment in its support. If the present movement shall result in the enactment of new prohibition laws, the chances all are that those laws will in turn have to be repealed. We regard the movement, viewed in this light, as misdirected, and as merely a demonstration of current dissatisfaction with the way in which the Republicans as a party have failed in their duty toward one of the most pressing questions of the day.

COURTESY.

THERE is a delightful sentence in one of the entries of Montaigne's Italian Journal. He is speaking of the courtesies and kindlinesses shown him at Pisa, "which is held to be a most discourteous city, with citizens of haughty demeanor"—*ma, in ogni modo, chi è cortese ne fa altri:* however this may be, one who is courteous makes others so. Mr. Lowell has expressed the same thought, in a phrase of larger significance:

> "As one lamp lights another, nor grows less,
> So nobleness enkindleth nobleness."

It is, therefore, ourselves we should accuse when we blame the manners of others; and, regarding the world in general, the elders of a generation should find fault with themselves most seriously—in the fullest sense of the words—when the young people of the generation go astray in social customs. What more biting shame is there than the misbehavior of one's children? Yet when they socially misbehave in the company of other people's children, parents are wont to burden poor "human nature" or "the nature of things" with the catastrophe, even at the very moment that (father or mother) they are saying, "I never thought of doing so when I was young."

Two interesting papers on "Some Family and Social Customs which are Passing Away" have lately appeared in *La Réforme Sociale*, the journal which represents in France the school of social science founded by the well-known M. Le Play. The importance of these customs is indicated by their entering into the consideration of men who study society not as men of the world, but as Christians and humanitarians; and it will be well for us all if we instruct ourselves from their views. M. Rondelet, the mouthpiece of these views, expresses them admirably in saying that the customs of society are not an arbitrary invention by which gentlemen and ladies distinguish themselves from other people. "On the contrary, these customs represent a mass of moral ideas of which they are the translation. The usages and phrases of politeness express externally, by kindly actions, the fundamental relations which ought to exist between men. All the distinctions belonging to good breeding, so delicate and sometimes so complicated, answer to a profound (unconscious) analysis of the duties we owe one another." This cannot be questioned; and it explains, by showing the foundation of it, the charm of manner we sometimes find in persons called "uneducated." Many of us can say with Mr. Clough, "I have known peasant men and women in the humblest places, in whom dwelt these qualities [of consideration for others] as truly as they ever did in the best of lords and ladies, and who had invented for themselves a whole economy of manners to express them, who were very 'poets of courtesy.'"

On the other hand, it is the commonest ill fortune to be thrown with the discourteous, with those whom Shakspere has perfectly described out of their own mouths in the person of *Don John*, when he says, "I cannot hide what I am; I must be sad when I have cause and smile at no man's jests, eat when I have stomach and wait for no man's leisure, sleep when I am drowsy and tend on no man's business, laugh when I am merry and claw [flatter] no man in his humour." Such baseness of social demeanor indicates in any *Don John* of them all a "villonnie" of disposition which no stronger barrier than circumstances bars from wicked deeds; which easily passes from being careless of the pleasure of others to disregarding their happiness. We do not lay enough weight on the epithets "courteous" and "discourteous." Chaucer's "veray parfit gentil knight" loved

> "Trouthe and honour, fredom and curtesie";

and for all men, if truth be at one end of the line, courtesy should be found at the other.

The "poetry of courtesy" is not, in American society, very intelligently studied; nor now, it would seem, in French society, which was so long the acknowledged headquarters of worldly graces. And the evidences of deterioration which are to be observed in France are in many respects identical with conditions existing here—conditions which, if seen only on this side of the water, might be thought evidences rather of arrested development than of deterioration; but, when found to be of world-wide extent, must be classified under other laws. These laws it is most important to discover, that we may know whether they should be nobly rebelled against or painfully submitted to. But as yet little more has been done than to note the facts, one of the most important of which is that, with the increased ease of intercourse between the two sexes, there is a diminution of ease of intercourse between the two ages which make up society—or, more accurately, the three ages, viz., the girls and boys of twenty, the men and women of thirty-five, the men and women of fifty. The midway people, from thirty to forty years old, serve as a sort of connecting chain between the wild gayeties and the dull sobrieties of their younger and older acquaintances, and prevent that complete ignorance of each other which would otherwise result from the present entire mutual exclusion of the young and the old from the immediate circle of each. But social intercourse loses half its value if it is not at the same time homogeneous and varied; and to be always in the company of one's contemporaries is as fatal an influence as to be always in the company of persons of one's own sex. A man or woman of fifty who cannot make himself or herself agreeable to a girl of eighteen is wanting in good breeding; on the other hand, equally lacking is a boy of twenty who cannot give pleasure to a man or woman of sixty. But this good breeding can be acquired only by practice. Once acquired, it communicates a peculiarly exhilarating social enjoyment, as all will testify who have had the good fortune to be flattered in their youth by the kindness of older people, and in later years by the good-will of younger people. And few conversations are more charming for the interlocutors themselves, or for bystanders, than those in which the young girl or young man just entering into life is led to awaken, by the gay audacities of his ignorance, the deeper thoughts of the man or woman just passing out of active life. The flame-like fancy of youth kindles the glowing imagination of experience, and, in the interchange of ideas, each for the moment seems to gain all the advantages of the other. Such conversations cannot be held at germans nor at dinners, where most of the gentlemen have been busied with the stock market all day, nor at receptions, formal or informal, from which the young lady of the house is encouraged to exclude her father and mother and the fathers and mothers of her friends. They only still linger round the firesides of pleasant homes where the habitués of the house, old and young alike, are equally the friends of parents and children. Yet our Frenchman is right in declaring that "ces rapports de salon"—the relations between old and young—constitute "un fait social de la plus haute importance."

But beside the "rapports de salon" and the relations between people who know each other, a social fact of importance is the relations between people who are strangers to one another. In modern life these relations are becoming less and less courteous: yet think of the delightful numberlessness of our daily opportunities for the exchange of civilities with those whom we stand face to face with once in all our lives and never again. Not only by graciously making way for them in crowded streets and public conveyances, or by graciousness in accepting such attentions; not only by a kindly smile or word to a quiet passer-by on a lonely road, or by a silent salutation to a hurried fellow-citizen rushing past on the stairways of offices, or by a more respectful recognition of the often slightly perturbed woman astray in such places—not only thus, but in a thousand indescribable ways, it is possible for us to express hourly that universal sympathy with our fellowmen which we should so assiduously cultivate.

It is not, however, in relations with strangers

that this sympathy should be most thoughtful, nor in the "salon" that it should be most delicate. It is in relations with our servants, with those who serve us—whether cooks or clerks, chambermaids or janitors, coachmen or dressmakers; with all those upon whom, rightly speaking, *we* are "dependent"—it is with these persons that we should give the most evident proofs of that sympathy which results from the imaginative conception of the conditions of others, and of the *savoir-vivre* which such conceptions when true bestow on us. The members of our households who are not members of our families, should be treated by us with so constant and so sincere a kindliness of manner that the word "courtesy" would not be amiss in describing it. It is consistent with entire simplicity to be as courteous in one's bearing toward an inferior as toward a superior; and there is no such barrier to insolence. *Tel maître, tel valet:* and a mistress condemns herself when she complains of her servants. If they are not respectable, we should not keep them with us; if they are respectable, we should turn them into friends by the openness and honesty of our good-will expressed by our good manners.

In all these relations that we have been considering—of the old and young, of mutual strangers, of employers and employed—we are for the most part in the habit of allowing our manners to form themselves according to our individual temperaments, and to express the more or less good-will it chances to be our nature to feel toward various people and the world in general. We do not recognize as clearly as we should, and we certainly have not taught our children, that good-will and good manners are mutually and alternately cause and effect, and that, to quote again the writer in the *Réforme Sociale*, "to abbreviate and neglect the forms of politeness is really to diminish the sentiments and the needs of the heart. As soon as one ceases to express outwardly even the most essential sentiments, these sentiments become weakened to a certain degree in the soul; they lose something of their delicacy and of their energy." The cultivation of the forms of politeness must be begun in family life, between husbands and wives, parents and children, brothers and sisters. Till courtesy is honored in the household it will not appear in the "salon."

THE WATERS OF ROYAT.

FEW persons who are interested or curious in the matter of mineral waters have not asked themselves the question: Are mineral waters really useful by themselves; have they any intrinsic curative value? or is it the combined influence of changed climate, scenes, occupation, regimen, amusement, exercise, and in general the new life, spiritual and physical, of a watering-place, that works the undeniable cures at mineral springs?

In questions like this I confess myself to be, by temperament, one of the most sceptical of physicians. I have no doubt that many of the invalids who go to Royat, for instance, would be relieved of some grave ailments, and cured of some lighter, by a few weeks' sojourn in that pleasant place, even if they did not drink a litre of mineral water. But I am convinced that these are among the waters that have intrinsic value; in what way given, and for what kinds of invalids, I will try to show.

A word in advance about the climate of Royat. During the summer months at least it is mild and uniform, even according to the standards of western Europe, which, it will be borne in mind, are higher standards than ours, in the ratio of the greater equability of the Gulf Stream climates. The mean temperature of the summer months is 15° C. (=59° Fahr.) according to the observations of M. Alluard, former director of the Puy-de-Dôme observatory: in July and August (there as here the hottest months) the thermometer rarely passes 25 C. (77° Fahr.) in the shade. When it reached this point last summer, the inhabitants began to cry out upon the heat, and I joined them with as much earnestness as I could muster, while secretly felicitating myself on my escape from a thermometer of 97° Fahr. (on the 17th of July at 4 P. M. at the Central Park observatory). The climate of Royat during the season from May to October is delicious; but so is that of almost any place in western Europe, compared to the alternating India and Siberia of the United States—I had almost said of the entire United States, for the only exceptions are in the extreme south, where it does not freeze every year, and on the coasts of California and Oregon, where the ocean breezes and the Kuro-Siwo current produce a really equable climate. But in our Southern States their warmth gives them neither equability of temperature, day by day, nor equality from year to year, as witness last winter's ravages by frost in southern Florida. The climate of Royat, then, is both equable and equal. No mountain climate (for as such it is classed, owing to the elevation of the place and its nearness to the mountains of Auvergne) is better adapted as an adjunct to the medicinal treatment of the classes of patients that I will indicate.

What are the agents employed in this treatment? They are the thermal waters of the four springs of Royat, mainly alkaline-saline waters, the congeners of those of Ems, but containing also iron and a trace of arsenic as effective elements. They are used both externally, in flowing baths and in the great *piscine*, and internally as alterants and tonics. The four springs are in order as follows:

1. The Eugénie or Grande Source, one of the most abundant of warm mineral springs, pours forth a stream of twenty-seven hundred gallons per minute. Engineers say that this yield could be doubled if required; but experience at La Bourboule and elsewhere shows that there is a certain risk in tampering with the arrangements of the substrata, and it is not likely that risks will be taken in this matter at Royat. Seldom are warmth and abundance so combined in a mineral fountain as in the Eugénie. It flows at nearly the temperature of the blood, 35°.5 C. (96° Fahr.), limpid, inodorous, and highly charged with carbonic acid gas from the volcanic rock; it contains about sixteen grains of salts to the gallon. For bathing this spring is unsurpassed; it supplies eighty-five baths with warm, fast-flowing, and continually renewed or "living" water. These baths "au courant d'eau vive" form a prominent part of the Royat treatment.

2. The Saint-Mart Spring was used in a small way for baths as long ago as 1835. In that year a hurricane devastated the valley; the spring was neglected and even forgotten for forty years. In 1878 it was "captured" again. It flows at the temperature of 31° C. (88° Fahr.), and contains thirteen grains of mineral substances to the gallon, which are not precipitated when the water is bottled. The Saint-Mart is an intermitting spring. Every three or four minutes it awakes from quiescence and noisily dashes its yield into the *vasque* or fountain-basin, pouring out a limpid jet. It sparkles in the glass like champagne wine; and it is taken with pleasure, for its abundant charge of carbonic acid gas well disguises its richness in metallic bases.

3. The Source de César is the best known of the four springs: it has been used since the year 1822. Flowing at a temperature of 29° C. (84° Fahr.), it contains nine grains of mineral constituents to the gallon, and, both in composition and in temperature, resembles the Saint-Mart Spring. But the analysis of this spring discloses a very remarkable quality in its constitution: its mineral components, both in kind and in quantity, are almost exactly those of the serum of the human blood. Not only the César but several other springs in Auvergne approximate to this fortunate composition. But in the waters of Royat inorganic nature makes the nearest approach that has yet been observed at any mineral spring to the delicate combination of the vital fluids. Knowledge of this fact, however, does not explain their vogue. The César Spring was the favorite among these four waters long before this startling correspondence was pointed out by the analytic chemist. But the discovery tends to confirm the fitness of the water for the "reconstituant" uses to which, as I will point out, it is applied in cases of anæmia or debility. It supplies the lacking elements to impoverished blood.

At the springs of Bussang in the Vosges, a local scholar who had been restored to health and to philology by drinking those excellent waters, occupied himself in tracing the true derivation of their name. It was not far to seek. *Bussang*—what is *Bussang* but *sang bu?* The name of the village, he said, thus expressed with the utmost conciseness the reconstituant properties of the iron spring. If with no more etymologic accuracy, the César spring might with equal therapeutic truth be called *sang bu*. Its waters are a true mineral lymph.

The Saint-Victor spring, rediscovered in 1875, is the coolest of the four, flowing at 20° C. (68° Fahr.), but one of the most strongly mineralized, containing sixteen grains of solid matters to the gallon. It has enough of iron, carbonate of soda, carbonate of potash, and arsenic to make it a tonic of the first value for lymphatic, chlorotic, and anæmic subjects. This spring was held in special regard by the Roman physicians, and it still flows in the restored Roman "pump-room,' a chamber forty-nine feet long by thirty-three feet wide, covered with a flat vaulting forty inches in thickness. It is the same masonry that was discovered, in 1877, in the substructures of the temple of Vaso on the Puy-de-Dôme.

These four springs are of very complex constitution; as a group they may be characterized as alkaline-saline-iron waters. They contain the carbonate of lime, the bi-carbonate of soda, the chloride of sodium, iron, and arsenic in small yet appreciable quantity. To this combination they owe their power in the treatment of anæmia, chlorosis, and affections of the digestive organs. Individually, the different waters form a "gamut" of chemical and thermal values of most varied applicability. Let me point out briefly what these values are—who, in a word, should go to Royat, and who, also, should stay away. For what complaints are these waters especially suited? They are suited especially for the following classes of disease: 1. Affections of the respiratory organs. 2. Arthritic complaints. 3. Chloro-anæmic ailments.

1. Out of a hundred invalids treated at Royat thirty are treated for some affection or other of the respiratory tract. Bronchitis, pharyngitis, chronic laryngitis or "clergyman's sore throat," asthma, when not dependent on organic lesions, and pulmonary catarrh—all these are pre-appointed for relief or cure at Royat. For these complaints the waters are given both internally and by "pulverization," or spraying of the affected parts: this latter is the more effective form of exhibition. The treatment is given in rooms at a temperature of from 72° to 80° Fahr. The sedative effect of the carbonic-acid gas which is disengaged from the waters, with the diminished oxygen in the air and the presence of abundant watery vapor, aids the topical effect of the spraying. This treatment is especially effective in cases occurring in nervous and excitable tem-

peraments. Affections of the larynx meet with rapid relief under the influence of these soothing waters. The learned Dr. Rotureau has called attention to the similarity of the Royat waters to those of Ems, both in their marked curative action in this class of diseases and in their chemical composition. Royat is, in fact, the French Ems, with the advantage of a better climate and pleasanter surroundings, and of a spring—the Saint-Victor—which is a powerful tonic.

2. Arthritic affections, as gout, rheumatism, and the eczema that goes with the rheumatic diathesis. For these, at the outset, the stronger waters of Vichy or of Carlsbad are preferable, when the disease occurs in well-nourished and plethoric subjects: such should not go to Royat. But in asthenic subjects, or in the more advanced chronic stages of these complaints in any case, the waters of Royat are invaluable. The great point in prescribing treatment for this class of disease, a class in itself so varied and complicated, is to recognize the pathologic complications, and not to be led away by a name. One case of gout may require the utmost energies of a Carlsbad treatment, with all its austerities of regimen; another, occurring in a different constitution or at a different phase of its development, may much better be sent to Royat.

But of all the arthritic manifestations which are best adapted to treatment in this Vale of Tempe, those ailments which Bazin has named the *arthritides* must take the foremost place. They represent, so to speak, the youth, the maturity, and the ripened age of the gouty diathesis. To the first class belong the light attacks of urticaria and of herpes, which seldom require treatment, being briefly self-limited in their course. The second class comprises dry eczema; of the third the catalogue is long, ill-omened, and ill-sounding—nummular eczema, acne, sycosis, squamous pityriasis, and psoriasis—from each and all of which Mercury forefend rather than relieve us! But for those who are taken in their clutches the springs of Royat, patiently exhibited both within and without, are the nearest thing to an appointed cure.

3. The whole class of chloro-anæmic affections is satisfactorily treated by the iron springs of Royat, in conjunction with bathing, riding, rambles, and all the other gently reconstituant influences of this charming place. Royat is an almost certain cure for ailments which come from impoverished blood. The César and the Saint-Victor Springs, according to the special need, the baths in the "living waters" of the Eugénie—these never fail to bring relief to the sufferer from anæmia, from chlorosis, and from the attendant nervous depressions or exhaustions. Royat, like Bussang in the Vosges, is especially adapted to the reconstruction of the blood globules, and consequently to the cure of the delicate women who have succumbed to the wear and tear of life, or whose health has been run down by the fatigues of pleasure, social or other; whose bank account of red globules, in short, has been hazardously reduced by drafts and insufficiently repaired by deposits. The alkaline and saline principles in these waters stimulate the appetite and favor digestion; the assimilable ferruginous salts give their plastic qualities to the impoverished blood; and the abundant carbonic acid of the baths acts as a useful stimulant upon the capillary network of the skin. Uterine troubles caused by the anæmic condition, and all forms of dyspepsia which depend upon nervous derangements—and they are not a few—find also in Royat their place of healing. Gastralgia, acid dyspepsia in nervous subjects, and atonic dyspepsia dependent upon anæmia, are relieved at least by these waters, and not infrequently cured.

It must be borne in mind that a patient may leave Royat cured, but, by returnin to a faulty habit of living, may relapse into his old ailment. For such sufferers there are two courses: either to change the habit of living or to come annually—as some do—to the springs. I need not say that the prevention of such relapses is preferable to their cure, even at such an attractive station as this.

It remains to add a word about the way of living at Royat. First may be mentioned the hotels: they are numerous, handsome, and well managed, as far as my experience of them goes. At the "Grand Hôtel" I found perfect comfort and courtesy, and a magnificent view of the Limagne plain. The "Continental," the "Splendide," and the "Hôtel des Sources" are also good.

Next come the "villas" and boarding-houses, where families who wish comparative privacy without any cares of housekeeping may find stylish rooms and a good table. The visitor who goes to the villas Beausite, Dourif, De la Grotte, Tiretaine, or Allaigre, or to the Châlet des Roses, will not go wrong. And, finally, there are a number of *maisons meublées* and *garnies*, where families can hire furnished rooms and choose their own table, or have their marketing and cooking done for them. This independent form of *ménage* is, for many, the pleasantest way for a long sojourn. There are some twenty of these houses, one of which is kept by the sisters of the *religieuses dominicaines*.

I must not close without mentioning the learned inspector of the waters of Royat, Dr. Boucomont, and his younger colleague in medicine, Dr. A. Petit, to both of whom I am greatly indebted for lavish courtesies. It cannot be out of place to say that they occupy the first rank as consulting physicians. TITUS MUNSON COAN.

Correspondence.

DR. WALDSTEIN AND THE METOPE OF THE PARTHENON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: M. Reinach's letter, which appeared in *The Nation* of April 29, concerning your review of my book on Pheidias, calls for some explanation. For the first time my attention is drawn to the discussions which took place at the Société des Antiquaires of Paris in the autumn of 1882, from which it becomes evident that the authorities of the Louvre Museum realized the importance of the marble head, and recognized that it held some relation to the Parthenon, before I discovered the metope to which it belongs and published my discovery. I owe to M. Reinach this (to me new) information on a subject in which I am much interested. These discussions were first published in the Bulletin of that society in 1883, after I had published my discovery in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* in 1882, and, as will be seen, they arose in consequence of my publication. Why I could take no notice of the facts mentioned in these reports will become evident from what follows.

In the Christmas of 1881-2 I visited the Louvre Museum. I then noticed the head in question in its temporary position, and identified it as described in my publications. I expressed my conviction that, if the provenance was known, it would be found to be Attica. I consulted M. de Villefosse in his office at the Museum and asked him for information. He referred to the books of the Museum and gave me the information I have published, namely, that the head came from the Peiræus and nothing more. At my request he opened the case containing the head, so that I might examine it more closely. Neither then nor at any other time was I told that any person suspected or knew that the head belonged to the metopes of the Parthenon. I asked the authorities of the Museum for a cast of the head, which was promised, but it was not until several months later that, through the kind exertions of M. de Villefosse, the cast was procured and sent to England, and I was thus enabled to find the actual metope in the British Museum of which this head forms a part. My discovery was announced by Mr. C. T. Newton in the *Academy* of August 26, 1882, and shortly after this my paper describing the whole discovery (by the way, an abstract of the essay as it stands in the book, handed in to the press and printed in the summer of 1882) was published in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* in the autumn of 1882.

From the *Bulletin de la Société des Antiquaires* published early in 1883 I learn the following facts:

(1.) In the meeting of October 18, 1882, M. Read brings before the Society several papers of mine, among them the article describing the identification of the Louvre head, and makes complimentary remarks on my discoveries.

(2.) In the next meeting of November 8, 1882, M. de Villefosse refers to the report of the previous meeting, at which he had not been present, and, without denying my discovery, he begs to state that the authorities of the Museum had not underestimated the importance of the work, and in proof of his statement he quotes the minutes of a meeting of the Comité Consultatif des Musées (held in 1880), in which there is a list of works, and, under the heading *Marbres grecs et principalement attiques*, there occurs *une tête d'homme: style des métopes du Parthénon.*

(3.) In the following meeting (Nov. 22) Prof. Rayet observes that the minutes of the Conservatoire du Louvre do not authorize the administration of the Louvre to claim priority of the discovery made by me; and M. de Villefosse answers that he did in no way deny my discovery (*qu'il n'a en aucune façon contesté la découverte de M. Waldstein*), but that he wished personally to remark that the authorities of the Museum had bought the head because they considered it as having come from the Parthenon.

I am pleased to know and to state the fact that the authorities of the Louvre Museum bought the head as being related to the Parthenon marbles. But from 1879 to the publication of my discovery this opinion was followed up neither by further research and publication, nor by manifest action. For the head was not placed in the Greek room of the Louvre, where there is an original metope of the Parthenon, but remained in a case in a different part of the building, unlabelled. Furthermore, upon inquiry, I was not informed of its relation to the Parthenon. Your reviewer, as far as he was considering my discovery, was thus correct in crediting me with the identification of a head which lay undistinguished in the Louvre. Had I known of these discussions at Paris, which were subsequent to my publication in the *Hellenic Journal*, I might have referred to them in my book, though the essay in question was in print before the publication of the *Bulletin* in 1883. As all readers will know, it is beyond the power of any investigator to read all the abstract reports of the meetings of foreign societies embracing the most varied subjects of study. Though at the very time of the discussions in 1882 I was, as I have been for several years past and still am, in friendly correspondence with M. de Villefosse, who has referred to my discoveries and has sent me *tirages à part* of his papers, he never sent me an account of the meetings referred to, nor alluded to the facts discussed. I can only believe that he wished not to trouble me with this kind of question, now forced upon us by the zeal of M. Reinach. In my book I have on several occasions merged my own claims to independent discovery

where any doubt might have arisen, in order to avoid the possibility of a discussion of priority; for I feel strongly that discussions of this class are most detrimental to the spirit of scientific investigation, and to the maintenance of dignity on the part of those concerned in it. I regret it the more in this case as I am apparently put into opposition with men (M. de Villefosse and M. Heuzey) to whom I stand in personal relations of the most friendly nature; who, moreover, in their official capacity, have ever shown me the greatest liberality.

There is one point against which I wish to protest. M. Reinach's view, that such discoveries as I have had the good fortune to make imply a corresponding ignorance on the part of the directors of a museum, endangers the progress of research. As a director of a museum myself, I should deem it a great misfortune if, in my dealings with investigators working in the Museum of which I have charge, I should be forced to believe that every discovery they make would in so far prove my own deficiency in acuteness. Libraries and museums and their treasures might then become less accessible to researchers, if they were presided over by custodians who were inclined to be less liberal-minded than the authorities of the Louvre have proved themselves to be in their dealings with myself. Surely, men like M. de Villefosse and M. Heuzey have given sufficient proof of their sound scholarship without being endangered in their reputation by not anticipating all that may be discovered concerning the many thousands of objects in their care.

I must finally draw attention to the last paragraph in M. Reinach's letter. The essay on the Louvre terracotta was written and printed long before the facts were discovered which necessarily modified the whole question. Two courses were then open to me: I might rewrite the essay embodying the new information, or leave it as it stood and append the new material. I chose the latter course; because, first, it was more honest, and, second, it promised to be more conducive to the solution of the questions discussed. I thus clearly give the history of my own discoveries, enabling other researchers to follow me step by step, and putting them in as favorable a position for the future task as my own, arrived at through considerable labor and study. This is done in note F, which is not a mere footnote, as, from M. Reinach's letter, the reader might possibly suppose, but consists of eleven pages of print with a plate. What is now wanted is not a summary statement of personal opinion, but a careful examination of the varied material which I have adduced, and if possible the discovery of new facts and data upon which, perhaps, a final conclusion may be based. This final consummation no one can more warmly desire than I do; and no one will be more grateful to him who really brings it to pass. CHAS. WALDSTEIN.

KING'S COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE, May 18, 1886.

GOVERNMENT AND THE RAILROADS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The annual report of the Union Pacific Railroad Company would hardly be classed as a political document, yet none more eloquent in matter has been issued this year. It could hardly be expected that the directors should state the conclusion to which their argument leads, but what that conclusion is, we will let the argument state for itself:

"Nothing connected with the present condition of the affairs of this company has, during the past year, excited so much anxiety among its stockholders as the relations between it and the United States Government."

It seems that no question between the parties can ever be regarded as settled. Committees of investigation or officials appointed for the purpose are constantly taking up anew every claim against the company, no matter how solemnly it has been decided. As the report says, "There is no corporation in the world the affairs of which, during the last sixteen years, have been subject to such incessant searching and wearisome investigation as the affairs of the Union Pacific Railroad Company." The effect is, that many operations which promised great profit have been passed by on account of this fear of Government interference.

"Neither, the directors regret to say, do they, in these respects, see any immediate prospect of a better condition of affairs. Those familiar with the subject are well aware that such resolutions as the one above-quoted almost always originate in stock-jobbing circles. The Government is used as a lever to put prices up or down on the Stock Exchange. During the intervals between the sessions of Congress the situation is comparatively free from difficulty. Events are then allowed to take their ordinary course, and your property is managed, like other properties, on well-understood business principles. Meanwhile, in anticipation of each meeting of Congress, schemes of a stock-jobbing nature are quietly, though with infinite skill, matured. The departments and Congress are then worked upon to accomplish the object."

"The directors by no means imply that officers of departments or members of Congress knowingly permit themselves to be used to affect values, but [for reasons given] they fail to realize what serious consequences may follow measures instigated by adroit men, whose schemes they do not suspect and cannot be expected therefore to fathom."

In other words, in this as in all other respects, the Government is really controlled by the lobby.

For this state of things, according to the report, "there is but one remedy"—that, instead of a percentage of its earnings the Company should liquidate its indebtedness to the Government in fixed payments extending over a term of years. To this proposition I should take two exceptions: (1) it is not a sufficient remedy; and (2) there is another remedy which might be made much more effectual. In the first place, the remedy is defective because it cannot be carried out. If the lobby finds its profit in stock fluctuations caused by its schemes, it will strenuously oppose any measure calculated to put a stop to those schemes. I suppose nobody imagines that the settlement proposed by the Union Pacific Railroad Company has any chance of passing Congress at this session, and there is not much risk in predicting that year after year will continue to pass with the same result. Moreover, if it were passed, it would not be a final settlement any more than those which have preceded it. It would still be open to the lobby to charge that the policy pursued by the Company was endangering the security of its payments to the Government; and every new branch opened, every new change in the system of rates, and a hundred other items might furnish the pretext for just such attacks as are complained of in the report. The question is, however, far wider than the single case of the Union Pacific. That is only one of many of these gigantic corporations which are getting far beyond State control, but lie at the mercy of Congress under its power to regulate inter-State commerce. Suppose that Congress, under the stimulus of the lobby, should enter upon a course of experiments like those of the "Grangers" some years ago, should try to fix a maximum and a minimum of rates to prevent discrimination, and to regulate mutual encroachment on territory, with the accompanying apparatus of investigating committees: what a paradise of stock-jobbers presents itself to the imagination!

The only real remedy is that which corresponds to the real difficulty, government by the lobby. Mr. Gladstone, in one of his recent speeches, thanked God that the House of Commons was the place of the greatest publicity in the world. It is not very extravagant to say that, barring governments like Turkey and Russia, Washington is one of the most secret places in the world. It is the secrecy and irresponsibility of the committee-rooms which give to the lobby its power. That business should be dragged out of the committee-rooms into the publicity of the two houses; that there should be responsible heads of administration open to public cross-examination by individual members; that all the springs of administration, and every interference, whether by members of Congress or any outside interest, with the course of administration, should be laid bare to public criticism and condemnation—this is the only effective remedy for the evils set forth in the Union Pacific report and many others of the same class. Of course the lobby will fight this, like every measure contrary to their interests; but it has the advantage of presenting the simple issue whether this Government is to be carried on in the interest of the lobby or in that of the country. As your correspondent "F. G. S." well observes, it is not a question of establishing a responsible ministry after the English fashion, with resignation upon defeat, and dissolution of Congress at irregular intervals, but merely of the passage of the Pendleton Senate report of 1881, giving to the Cabinet officers seats in both houses, with the right of sharing in debate and the duty of answering questions; or of Mr. Long's bill of this year, making the same provision with regard to the House of Representatives alone. There is no common interest so complete and so urgent for all the great railroads of the country, if they wish to save themselves from stock-jobbing and blackmailing schemes by or through the Government, as to unite their efforts for the passage of these bills. G. B.

BOSTON, May 29, 1886.

TWO SOLVENTS OF THE LABOR TROUBLES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If the laborers and the capitalists of this country (and the two classes together comprise the entire public, since almost everybody is either employer or employed, or both) could be practically recalled to a fundamental truth of political economy, one of the two indispensable solvents of our recurring labor troubles would be put into operation at once. I say two solvents, because there are no others of any relevancy or efficiency whatever. The first is that employers and employed recognize the simple fact that the transaction between them is pure buying and selling. There are no moral elements involved, no obligations on either side, except those underlying ones implied in all buying and selling, namely, that each party is bound to render in good faith just what has been previously bargained for in the trade.

The employer buys a service of a certain grade and quality, and sells a return service reckoned in money as wages, and the employed buys this return service and sells his own personal service against it; and each party is bound in common sense and common justice to do what he has agreed to do. That is all there is of it. All the preachers and all the philanthropists and all the master-workmen in the world cannot add to or detract from the essentials of this transaction one iota. It is just exactly in every particular of it as it is with the buyer and seller of commodities on the street and of credits in the Stock Exchange.

There is no compulsion and no obligation in buying and selling, and there is only one kind of it, and the motive on the part of both parties to it is forever the same, namely, to get something of more consequence to him than that which is given. Each buyer is at the same instant a seller, and each seller the same instant a buyer. Both

are on a level of perfect equality as persons, as individuals; and that man, whoever he is, is blind to his own interest as well as to the inmost nature of trade, who binds himself down to act only in conjunction with others in buying and selling. So doing, he scales down his own individuality. He loses his chief motive to make his own service the best possible, and so the chance to get the most for it. He sinks down to an average. He degrades himself to a herd, whether it be of employers or employed. And as the personality goes down, the illusion that *things* are the main element rises before the mind and confuses everything. The word "wealth," with its concrete and material associations, which has wrought a thousand mischiefs in political economy, is working untold mischief to-day in the minds of labor-givers and labor-takers. As they look at it, "wealth" is something that exists whether or no, something that can be divided up; something to be snatched after; something that all have a claim to; and hence legislation is appealed to to control the distribution, arbitrators must be created to look after the shares falling to each party, and Most and his crew, finding themselves out of supplies, make a dash at society itself for not furnishing them a living.

Political economy is a science of persons, not of things. It deals only with the desires and the efforts of men, and the satisfactions and returns for these. It insists that all trade, whether in tangible commodities, in personal services, or in commercial credits, is of one and the same nature; that trade is buying and selling, which is naturally profitable and ought to be free; that laborers are buyers and sellers in precisely the same sense as merchants are, and are as capable of attending to their own interests, man by man; that every seller has the right to get the most he can for his service under all circumstances—that is to say, to render the least of his own service needful at the time to get the service of the other man; that God ordained to be proper and profitable this mutual exchange of services among men; that no persons in the world except the parties themselves, man to man, have the wisdom to dictate its terms; and that, consequently, legislation, arbitration, combination, compulsion, ordering-out, strikes, and boycotts are each and all a fundamental impertinence.

Only when a traffic is clearly contrary to the public health, morals, or revenue, has legislation one word to say about it.

It is plain, then, that if employers and employed realized as they should that they are buyers and sellers only, man against man, nothing less and nothing more, our labor troubles would be at least one-half solved.

The second solvent, and the only other possible one, is to allow their natural markets, wherever found, to all the producers in this land. Laborers and capitalists are alike producers, joint producers, partners in production, and joint owners of the products. But products must have their markets, or the processes are a failure. A market for products is products in market. Therefore, if we would sell at a profit all that we can make or grow with all our laborers employed and all our capital invested in productive enterprises, we must necessarily admit freely all foreign products that want to come in, in order that these may take off at a profit—that is, pay for—all our domestic products that want to go out. To open our ports is nothing in the world but to find our natural and profitable markets. There is no other way to find them. There is no other way to get them. And the blessed thing about it is that there is no ghost of a rational objection to this way. I have been looking diligently for thirty years to see if I could discover any valid objection of any kind to our selling our surplus products to other people at a profit—that is, to our buying their products with our own products at a profit—and I have not gained, as yet, a glimpse of any such objection.

It must not be allowed to slip out of mind, that free trade would not compel anybody to trade, would not even recommend anybody to trade with foreigners, but would only permit all persons to trade with them in case they found it to be profitable. A trade not profitable to both parties to it ceases of itself, as a fire goes out for lack of fuel. What harm, then, could ensue to anybody from merely taking away the barriers to trade?

Just see how the taking away the barriers would give instant employment to idle laborers and to idle capital, and so tend powerfully by raising the rate of wages and profits to quell the contest between them. I suppose we might sell under freedom at least $2,000,000,000 a year to foreigners more than we do now, as that is only one-third the value of our *manufactured* goods alone for the census year 1880. Well, what a quick and strong demand for capital (now idle) and for laborers (now idle) with which to create these two thousand million dollars worth of goods! There are said to be one million idle laborers to-day in the United States able and willing to work, and that after twenty-five years of close protectionism. A new demand for laborers and a new demand for capital such as is implied in the production of $2,000,000,000 worth of new products to be sold abroad for ships and raw materials and finished goods for which we have not equal facilities (otherwise we should not buy them), would set all these hands to work in six months, and take up all these idle millions of capital which our banks are now striving in vain to loan.

A world market for products when the world is open to them is very wide: a one-country market under restrictions and protectionism is very narrow. A world market under freedom increases with every passing year, and a universal glut of products is at once a contradiction in terms and an impossibility in fact.

Were it not for the shortsighted policy, impoverishing at once to capitalists as a whole and to laborers as a class, of a few greedy and unscrupulous men caring nothing for liberty and less for justice, laborers and capitalists in this good land of ours, instead of eying each other with ill-concealed defiance across a widening chasm, would be to-day vying with each other in their well-rewarded zeal to increase the quantity and improve the quality of an ever enlarging volume of products, with which to supply directly, at the smallest possible cost, the wants of themselves and their countrymen, and indirectly these wants of another kind, and some of the wants of the wide, wide world besides. A. L. Perry.

Williams College, June 1, 1886.

LANGUAGE AS AN INDEX TO NATIONAL CHARACTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent last week on National Differences of Language speaks of them as indicating differences of national character (or conditions); and says that it is evident French owners of property do not allow "trespassing" since they have no word for it. But in the midst of these remarks a Frenchman is quoted as acknowledging that while they cannot translate the English word "job," "God knows we have the *thing*." Does this hang together quite solidly? And is it not open to question how *far* and how *accurately* differences of language "evidence" differences of character? I am in much sympathy with your correspondent, but I am nothing if not Critical.

Notes.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press: 'Travels in Brazil,' illustrated: 'La Plata Countries of South America,' by E. J. M. Clemens; 'A Soldier's Reminiscences in Peace and War,' by Gen. R. W. Johnson; 'Harcourt,' a novel by Mrs. Annie Somers Gilchrist; 'Lyrical Poems,' by Emily Thornton Charles; 'Poems,' by H. S. Hagert; F. Anstey's 'A Fallen Idol;' and two translations of foreign medical works: 'The Accommodation and Refraction of the Eye,' by E. Landolt, M.D.; and 'The Parasites of Man,' by Prof. Rudolf Leuckart.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce 'Reminiscences of the Filibuster War in Nicaragua,' by Gen. C. W. Doubleday, in his youth a participant in Walker's campaigns; 'American Railroads, considered from the Point of View of Investors,' by John Swann; and 'A Life in Song,' poems by Prof. Geo. L. Raymond.

The present set towards Russian literature is evidenced by the translation of N. G. Tchernytchevsky's 'What's to Be Done?' about to be brought out by Benj. R. Tucker, Boston. Apparently the French version has been followed.

An 'Elementary Course in Practical Zoölogy,' by B. P. Colton, A.M., is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will soon issue 'Mr. Desmond, U. S. A.,' an army story, the scenes and incidents being laid at Fort Leavenworth, and the characters taken from military life.

The publishers of the 'Century Dictionary' look forward to an interval of still two or three years before this work can see the light. The De Vinne Press will manufacture it.

The first volume of Critical Miscellanies in Macmillan's admirable uniform edition of John Morley's works contains essays on Robespierre, Carlyle, Byron, Macaulay, and Emerson. Any one of these may be said to be worth the price of the volume. That on Macaulay interrupts a certain homogeneousness that would otherwise have characterized this collection; for the essays on Carlyle, Byron, and Emerson are closely related, and the connection between Robespierre and the English Rousseau, as Mr. Morley styles the author of 'Sartor Resartus,' may be traced through Jean Jacques.

Under the title 'Representative Poems of Living Poets' (Cassell & Co.) Miss Jeannette L. Gilder issues a large and welcome volume of collected verse, whose novel feature is that the poets themselves selected the pieces to represent their genius. There are, of course, a few exceptions: the poems which represent Tennyson, for example, were chosen from a list of his known favorites, and received from his son the non-committal assurance that they "would answer the purpose." But in general one has here the poet's word for the choice, and if one considers what poor judges poets are thought to be of their own work, it may be a surprise to see how well they know their own points. Browning gives us "Abt Vogler," "Caliban upon Setebos," "A Forgiveness," "Saul," "Clive"; Holmes, "The Chambered Nautilus," "The Last Leaf," "Old Ironsides," "The Voiceless"; Tennyson, "The Revenge," "Boadicea," "Come Down, O Maid," and "The Daisy"; and so with the others—it is not the worst verses they like best. Some seventy poets are thus "represented," and the representation is as full for the minor poets as for the great ones. The absence of Swinburne and the two Morrises is noticeable and unexplained. Mr. Lathrop contributes a preface in which he protests against the humble worship of Shakspere *et al.*, and casts a reproving eye on those critics who "persuade the poet to enfeeble his gift of levita-

tion," by self-scrutiny, and similar morbid habits; and he evidently regards our poetical "twilight" with considerable "levitation" himself.

The third of Mr. Henry M. Brooks's "Olden Time Series" (Ticknor & Co.) deals with the 'New-England Sunday,' and is even more tinged with a moralizing purpose than its predecessors. Mr. Brooks is by no means favorable to a return to Puritan Sabbath-keeping, and his excerpts and remarks will dispose his readers to share his views on this subject.

Cassell's National Library grows apace with Macaulay's Bacon, Johnson's lives of Waller, Milton, and Cowley, and Burke's "Thoughts on the Present Discontent" and four speeches. Teachers of English literature should avail themselves of this series to supplement inexpensively the ordinary text-books.

Mr. Crawford's 'Dr. Claudius' continues Macmillan's series for summer reading, and Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney's 'Summer in Leslie Goldthwaite's Life' the Riverside Paper Series. Charles Lamb's 'Adventures of Ulysses' is the latest volume in the "Classics for Children" of Ginn & Co.

Despite the avidity with which works on popular medicine—to say nothing of popular medicines themselves—are devoured, the best judges have always distrusted the wholesomeness of such literature. This distrust is, first, as to the truth of the teaching, and, secondly, as to the risk of its use by the inexpert. Dr. Charles West's name, however, is a guarantee of the accuracy of his 'Mother's Manual of Children's Diseases' (Appleton & Co.). Whether the average mother would be the happier for an anticipatory study of the various ills that lie in wait for her offspring, may be doubted; and we are quite sure that when sickness comes, her hasty reference to any book of special teaching with a view to differentiate between its forms, would be futile. Dr. West disclaims presenting a handbook for the nursery, or attempting to teach the practice of medicine as a domestic art. He seeks, by describing the diseases of early life, to help the mother understand them, to relieve her fears in many cases, and to qualify her to second the doctor in his efforts. To a few cool mothers this may be possible, but anxiety is apt to overrule judgment. We have observed but one remark likely to mislead American mothers. With us remittent is popularly known as bilious fever; but Dr. West, speaking as an Englishman, says typhoid is popularly known as remittent fever (p. 35). Although avowedly written for the gentler laity, the inexperienced practitioner may acquire valuable "wrinkles" from this book.

Two important Latin books have been late in reaching us—the 'Orator' of Cicero and a volume of Cicero's 'De Natura Deorum,' both from the University Press, Cambridge, England (New York: Macmillan). The 'Orator' is edited by John Edwin Sandys, with a lively preface and an introduction on Greek and Latin oratory. It has further what is rather a novelty for an edition of Cicero, six illustrations in the form of lithographs, autotypes, or engravings. The 'De Natura Deorum' is the third and concluding volume of this interesting edition.

The Supplement to the fifth edition of Vapereau's 'Dictionnaire des Contemporains' has appeared (Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof), containing information to the 15th of February, 1886. It specially contains new information in regard to the French Senators and Deputies, and numerous new biographical notices of men who have become of importance since 1880. In many cases this information is very full. Thus, for Andrieux, Paul Bert, Ferry, Gambetta, Freycinet, every necessary detail is given of their recent political life. The new biographies, also, will be found very useful; but, outside of political characters, and especially of Frenchmen, the Supplement is very incomplete. We look in vain for any notice of Tolstoi, or of any writer foreign to France whose name, not in the fifth edition (1880), should at least be in this Supplement. Even the recent literary and artistic celebrities of France are very sparingly admitted. The names of Brunetière, Paul Bourget, Lemaitre, Édouard Rod, Richepin, Maupassant, Rollinat, Viaud ("Pierre Loti"), Quesnay de Beaurepaire ("Jules de Glouvet"), Mme. George de Peyrebrune, and many others, are not there. It seems as if M. Vapereau waited in general until a man, not in political life, became a member of the Institute before he gave him a place in his Dictionary. The necrology since 1880 is carefully done, but, as a rule, very few details are given.

It becomes difficult to follow M. Guy de Maupassant, not only on account of his facility of production, but also on account of the unsavory character of many of his novels. He has lately published a new volume of stories, 'La Petite Roque' (Paris: Victor-Havard), of which the first was evidently inspired by Dostoyevsky's 'Le Crime et le Châtiment.' It is the story of a man, esteemed and loved by those who know him, who, having committed an atrocious crime, finds no rest for his conscience until he has written to the prosecuting attorney avowing his guilt. The volume contains several other short stories not calculated to cheer the low-spirited.

If any one wishes to make a small collection of mistranslations from French into English, he should turn over the leaves of the last 'Catalogue Illustré du Salon' (1886) by F. G. Dumas (Paris: L. Baschet; Boston: Schoenhof). Leaving aside mere mistakes in words such as *chaume* taken for *chaumière*, *misère* rendered by 'misery,' *un grain* translated 'a storm,' we find such renderings as *le Paysan blessé*, 'the injured peasant,' *sentier perdu*, 'a lost track' (instead of an out-of-the-way or retired or secluded path). The translator has avoided many a trap by simply leaving out the hard words.

The Interior Department, through the First Assistant Secretary, Mr. H. L. Muldrow, has had encouraging success in its recent attempt to make a clearing-house for Government documents in the case of the *Congressional Globe* and *Record*. It now issues fresh circulars to public libraries, enabling them, at no expense to themselves, to dispose of their duplicates, and to fill gaps in their sets of reports of the Patent-office, Agricultural Department, Smithsonian Institution, Geological Survey, American Archives, American State Papers, Annals of Congress, and Register of Debates.

The eleventh annual meeting of the Spelling Reform Association is announced to be held at Cornell University in the second week of July. Its latest bulletin, No. 21, is dated May, and gives the proceedings at the winter meeting in December last. Mention is therein made of correspondence with the English and German Reform Associations, which it is to be hoped may come to something.

The *Antiquary* for May opens with a nine-page article, fully illustrated, upon the historic streets of Plymouth, their names and associations, by W. H. K. Wright. This is an article of great interest. Of the continued articles, Mr. Bird's upon the History of Crown Lands is devoted to the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Mr. Davey's paper upon Beatrice Cenci is perhaps the most interesting of the series, as it contains the sworn evidence as to the occasion and manner of the murder. It is evident that never was sympathy wasted upon a more worthless heroine than upon this Italian girl, who killed her father "because he kept her locked up and treated her badly." Mr. Jewitt's "Quaint Conceits in Pottery" treats of "mammiform liquor-holding vessels." Mr. Hodgett's instalment on the "Scandinavian Elements in the English Race," and Mr. Atkinson's "Notes on Common-Field Names," both contain valuable matter.

Recent inquiries set on foot by the *Academy* (Syracuse, N. Y.: George A. Bacon), and reported in the June number of that periodical, show that a little more than half the students of Latin in this country use the ancient pronunciation, and 46½ per cent. the English. As to Greek, a pretty wide and satisfactory investigation shows that, during the past thirty years, the sale of Greek books has increased 100 per cent. faster than the population; that where there were 100 studying Greek in 1865, there were 142 in 1875, and 244 in 1885; and that the study is encouraged by 70 per cent. of the teachers, particularly in the larger schools. Latin has made still greater strides—probably, as the editor suggests, because it "is not considered to any large extent as a college preparatory study, but is pursued by most for its own sake, as a preparation for life work."

The *Revue Bleue* contains in the number of May 22, an article on "Deux grands poètes ennemis"—Victor Hugo and Racine—whom the writer, M. Paul Stapfer, believes to be "the two poets who have had the most powerful influence on our [the French] poetic language and literature"; in other words, "sur la forme et sur la façon de dire." He adds: "And to fashion the style, is it not to fashion the thought? Can a prosody or a language be reformed without modifying somewhat, indeed very deeply, the soul of all the writers of rhyme (*le peuple rimeur*)?" M. Stapfer ranks Victor Hugo as the greatest of French poets, from the marvellous variety and magnificent richness of his achievements; but his admiration is far removed from the wild and worshipping enthusiasm to which Mr. Swinburne has accustomed us. With Racine, while recognizing the limitations of his genius, the critic asserts its supremacy in the delineation of one of the strongest of human passions, *guilty* love—guilty or jealous love—love whose violence impels toward crime; and extols also as supreme the quality of Racine's art in his two unrivalled religious tragedies—the quality of combined simplicity and grandeur.

We have received from Westermann & Co. the first part (out of five) of a 'Kulturgeschichte des Deutschen Volkes'—one of those popular works of which the Germans seem almost to have a monopoly. The author of this particular history of German civilization is Dr. Otto Henne am Rhyn, State Archivist of the Swiss Canton of St. Gall, who well understands the art of illustration, as this brochure shows. The cuts in the text are extremely abundant, but there are also numerous single and folding plates, in black and white and in colors—facsimiles of miniatures, charters, Biblical texts, and other primitive documents—executed in admirable style. The narration is clear and direct, and, in spite of the ground covered, a single volume of large page and open typography will contain the whole. The work is dedicated to the German race in the broadest acceptation of the term and in its widest distribution, and will, in fact, find its way into many German-American households as a welcome acquisition to the family library.

From the same publishers come four parts of an important work which will require thirty-six to make its three volumes, 'Das Volkschulwesen im Preussischen Staate,' by Dr. K. Schneider and E. von Bremen. It is a systematic documentary exposition of the present state of popular education in Prussia, in law, ordinance, and regulation, and, as a work of reference on this subject, must supersede

every other. It draws freely upon the *Centralblatt für die gesammte Unterrichtsverwaltung* (1859-1885), a periodical of which the early numbers are now very scarce, and which can hardly be used by the investigator without some such aid as this new work furnishes to discriminate the obsolete from that which is still in force. 'Das Volksschulwesen' should find a place in all our great libraries.

The lesser Brockhaus' 'Conversations-Lexikon' nears its end with parts 46-55 (New York: L. W. Schmidt). The greater, too, has the goal in sight with parts 189-195, completing vol. xiii. Rome, Russia, and her wars of this century, and the Reformation, are the most conspicuous topics among those treated at some length. The maps are of the Eternal City, of Prussia, Posen, the Rhineland, etc. A gayly colored plate depicts the poisonous mushroons.

One may find at Westermann's a prospectus of the important 'History of the Discovery of the Art of Book-Printing,' undertaken by Dr. Anthony van der Linde, the famous Dutch opponent of the Coster legend at the cost of expatriation. He now undertakes to prove affirmatively that the art is of German origin, and that to Gutenberg we owe printing with foundry-type, and book-printing proper. He demolishes the Coster myth anew in his second volume. There will be three in all, finely printed and illustrated. Asher & Co. are the Berlin publishers, with a subvention from the Prussian Ministry.

Mr. Christern has received a prospectus of a work prompted by the Jubilee Exhibition of the Royal Academy of Art now open at Berlin, in honor of the first exhibition given a century ago —namely, 'German Painting of the Present Time.' This is intended to be a lasting memorial of the works now brought together. Photogravure will be employed in their reproduction. There will be two styles of issue, that on Japan paper costing ten marks a *Lieferung*, say, $30 for the set of twelve.

J. H. Bufford's Sons have added another to the uninspired portraits of Lincoln—a life-size lithograph.

—We perform an act of justice to Mr. C. B. Todd, author of the recent 'Life and Letters of Joel Barlow,' in correcting a misstatement in our review (No. 1089), namely, that Thomas Paine's name is not mentioned in the book. This was in sad forgetfulness of a long letter of Barlow's to Paine's biographer, Cheetham, extenuating Paine's failings, and insisting on his intellectual greatness; not to mention another incidental reference. It is but just to our reviewer to add that the oversight was not wilful, or due, as might well appear, to neglect to read the book; but to his trusting his memory after the Life had temporarily left his possession.

—The June *Century*, which opens with a graceful literary "outing" of Mr. Austin Dobson's on the Thames, and has several light articles worth summer reading, comes to the front with one very serious contribution upon "Faith-Healing and Kindred Phenomena," by Dr. Buckley. The examination to which he submits this "pitiable superstition" is scientifically rigid, and the materials are held so well in hand, and are so systematically dealt with, that the view of the subject is both broad and definite to an extraordinary degree. A lifelong interest in alleged miracles, and, in general, in the great circle of phenomena which go under the various and ever-changing names of mesmerism, psycho-dynamics, spirit-manifestations, etc., has made Dr. Buckley acquainted with a wide range of facts; and personal communication with some of the more famous workers of cures, such as Dr. Newton, and direct investigation of cases extending over many years, together with experiment on his own account, have given him a very realizing sense of the nature of mind-treatment, and the circumstances under which it is efficacious either temporarily or permanently. In the comprehensive grasp of his article the "faith-cure" becomes only one form of miraculous healing, not to be differentiated essentially from that wrought by holy waters, relics and shrines, or by spiritualists, magnetic doctors, and others—who claim to have "the gift" in every age. The facts are practically the same, whichever group is attended to; and it is affirmed that cures are worked, within a certain range, through a mental state of which the principal elements are concentrated attention, reverence, and confident expectancy, and that such cases are physiologically explicable. The sifting and classification by which this conclusion is reached make the best part of the article; for the conclusion was, of course, foregone. The author is careful, however, not to deny providential interposition in disease, and especially to mark out clearly what he apparently regards as the impassable line of distinction between the works of the modern faith-cure (and all its congeners, present and past), and those of Christ and the Apostles. He concludes with a solemn warning against a delusion which "belongs exclusively to no party, creed, race, clime, or age," and of which "the natural tendency is to mental derangement." The memoir-reader will find in this number also some letters from the inedited Franklin MSS. at Washington—a foretaste of the edition lately announced as in preparation.

—The *Century* war papers for June are devoted to the campaign of Antietam, and are four in number. Three are from the pens of Confederate officers, and one is by a civilian who was a newspaper correspondent on the national side. All have the merit of sticking pretty closely to what the writers themselves saw and knew; but by far the most authoritative is that by Gen. Longstreet. His paper is a short one, but is a model of broad and strong sketching. His high rank in the Confederate service, which made him the immediate subordinate and natural adviser of Gen. Lee, put him in the way of judging of the campaign as a whole, its object and the degree in which it failed, better than any other living man on that side. His opinion was that it was a mistake for Lee to divide his forces for the sake of a separate capture of Harper's Ferry, and that energy on McClellan's part would have made the error fatal. Even as it was, he attributes to this cause the failure of the projected campaign and the subsequent ebbing of the Confederate fortunes. That Lee avoided this course the next year, in the Gettysburg campaign, when a garrison was left at Harper's Ferry under similar circumstances, is pretty good proof that he was a convert to Longstreet's opinion. The description of the battle of Antietam seizes the strong, salient points of the engagement and of its results, yet gives enough of minor and personal detail to make it a lively and most attractive narrative. Col. Douglas's article is from the standpoint of a staff officer with Stonewall Jackson, who is, of course, its hero. It, with Gen. Walker's paper, adds to the evidence we had before that the surrender of Harper's Ferry was culpably weak and unnecessary, and relieved Lee from the worst consequences of a false strategy. Mr. Coffin's paper on "Antietam Scenes" is a graphic description of the appearance of the battle to a visitor approaching our extreme right from Hagerstown, and passing in rear of the troops engaged to the centre and to McClellan's headquarters. What he saw is well told, but he cannot resist the temptation to general criticism of the battle—a field in which the opinions of casual visitors are of small weight.

—The stage which the discussion of woman suffrage has reached in England may be gathered from the articles on that subject in the last two numbers of the *Nineteenth Century*. The Hon. Mrs. Chapman presents the argument against it in April, and Millicent Garrett Fawcett meets her in rejoinder in May. Mrs. Chapman has no fault to find with the fact that women already enjoy the municipal and the School Board franchises, for these functions are administrative, not legislative, and are concerned with local, not national interests; they may be considered merely as a little wider kind of housekeeping, and there is no reason to be found in the feminine nature why women should not share them with men. But the Parliamentary franchise opens up for them a very different kind of question. Nature has set bounds to their too wide-reaching intellectual activity, and the larger concerns of the world can be of real interest only to men. Wise women will always offer their opinion with diffidence where (as in foreign politics, for instance) they can have but a very imperfect knowledge of data, and probably also strictly limited powers of estimating what they do know. Influence, in a general way, in favor of a high tone in public affairs, it is right and proper that they should exert on questions that lie within their range, for that is germane to their natural constitution and to their conditions of life; but there is no reason to suppose that that influence would have an added sense of responsibility attached to it, if it were accompanied with the duty of giving open expression to their opinions by a vote. Women do not ask for an extension of the suffrage, and while their judgment is in general weak, they are, after all, in practical matters, very good judges of what is best for their daughters and for themselves. If they were to vote in Parliamentary elections, moreover, there would be introduced into married life a sad source of strife and discord. It is certain that the normal relation between husband and wife must be one of control and decision on the husband's side and deference and submission on the wife's. This is inevitable so long as marriage is not made a mere civil partnership, dissoluble at will; and it is endangered if women are given equal powers with men in the conduct of the Government.

—Passing over the fact that Mrs. Chapman does not make it plain why a husband and wife who have voted amicably on local taxation and the establishment of schools should take to bitter quarrelling on questions of foreign policy, it may be noticed that she shows a not unusual British insularity in supposing that the English distribution of power between husband and wife is the only possible distribution. Mr. Collier, in his little book on 'English Home Life,' points out that the chief difference between the English and the American household is to be found in the absolute and unquestioned supremacy of the English husband: the English wife, apparently, exists only for the purpose of executing his commands. It would be greatly to the enlightenment of the English if Mr. Collier were to write another little book in order to show that there are countries where the great questions of where and how to live, of how much to spend, and on what plan to bring up the children, are settled by mutual consent instead of by supreme authority, and that quite as much happiness, in all probability, is got out of the married relation in those countries as is done in Germany, for example, where the wife is a working woman as well as a subject. There is no doubt that, as regards his relations with women, a higher type of man has been evolved in this country than the English type. It is not so much that wives assert their rights and by asserting obtain them, as it is that husbands are too fair-minded and too just to

be willing to treat their wives as beings of an inferior race, simply because the law gives them the power to do so.

—Mrs. Fawcett in her reply presents no arguments that are absolutely novel, but she calls attention to the fact that the proposed reform is not so much a change as a mark of a change; that it will not come as an isolated phenomenon, but as a necessary corollary of other changes which have been gradually and steadily taking place. It will have the effect of adjusting the political machinery of the country to the altered social conditions of its inhabitants. The revolution has been quietly taking place for at least two generations; the political change will not be a revolution, but a public recognition by the State that the lot of women in England is no longer what it was at the beginning of the century.

—Under the title "Un éditeur—Homme de lettres," M. Eugène Muller pays, in *Le Livre* for May, an affectionate tribute to the late publisher, J. Hetzel, and author, "P. J. Stahl"—two personalities, he says, equally remarkable, yet united in one. Hetzel, as his name (which the Romans spelled Attila) implies, was an Alsatian, a native of Strasbourg. He was the builder of his own fortune, and the virtual founder of the *librairie de luxe*, the *librairie populaire*, and the juvenile literature of France. To this last he was himself an ardent contributor, and M. Muller was among the first whom he invited to help edit the *Magasin d'éducation et de récréation*. Hetzel effectively broke with the traditional huge octavo, substituting a much handier form of volume; and gave vogue to the publication of works in illustrated parts. During a temporary exile in Belgium, after the *Coup d'État*, he maintained his editions against piracy by the excellence of their manufacture, and by declaring them alone authorized for foreign issue. Hetzel was an admirable critic as well as writer, and did not hesitate to give a lesson to Balzac, as is shown in a remarkable letter reproduced by M. Muller. That the same publisher harmonized in his list the works of this author and those intended for the youth of France is a circumstance which would excite reflection if not remark in an Anglo-Saxon country. Hetzel in the character of "P. J. Stahl," when too feeble to use his pen, found that he could not dictate. He was a tolerable writer, he told his friend; he was never a good talker: "Sans plume, je ne suis plus écrivain." A fine portrait of Hetzel accompanies this memorial sketch.

—*Les Lettres et les Arts* for May (Boston: Schoenhof) begins with a charming sketch, half story, half landscape, by André Theuriet, "Le Portrait," in which his most delicate qualities of description and of sentiment are accompanied by that dash of malice with which he brings out and accentuates his most poetic passages. The illustrations, with the exception of Jules Breton's "Grand Pardon breton," of which a fine full-page copy is given, are by Emmanuel Lansyer, many of whose best-known pictures of the bays, the reefs, the rocks, the *landes* of this very region seem to be here reproduced. Following this are six pages containing as many short poems by Paul Bourget, called collectively "Les Fleurs," with drawings of the flowers in loose masses above and below the verses, by Mme. Madeleine Lemaire, whose lovely portraits have added so much to the beauty of previous numbers of the *revue*. Bourget's poems are exquisite in execution, in form, and in conception; their delicacy and depth of sentiment and their grave and harmonious music are wholly satisfying. An article by Maurice Tourneux, "Les Salons de Peinture au XVIIIe siècle," is both interesting and instructive, with its stiff illustrations recalling the engravings of the last century. James Darmesteter, from whose scientific gravity nothing of the kind would have been expected, gives a fantastic poem in prose, "Lucia Galvani, légende italienne," which Maurice Leloir has accompanied with a striking picture of Galvani and Lucia floating in a little boat among water-lilies. M. Dujardin-Beaumetz, of the Academy of Medicine, writes an interesting paper upon "La Rage à Paris," of which the two principal illustrations are Gérôme's "Cimetière turc" and Edelfelt's Salon picture of the present year, "M. Pasteur dans son laboratoire." Full of interest and of information as this article is, however, it seems out of place in a purely literary and artistic periodical like *Les Lettres et les Arts*. M. Anatole France writes, in his usual charming manner, "Au Salon," and his remarks about the pictures are accompanied by some of the finest illustrations in the volume. By far the most beautiful and suggestive of the pictures reproduced is Jules Breton's "Repos des moissonneurs." Henner's "Orpheline" is more striking, perhaps, and it has a strange beauty of its own. Both are exquisitely rendered in very different manners, but in both cases with the finest and most delicate effect. The article upon "Le vicomte Eugène Melchior de Vogüé," by M. Victor du Bled, is very interesting and full of a sympathetic admiration.

—Although Heine was one of the wittiest writers that ever lived, and although the repertory of the most successful comedy company in this country, Daly's, confines itself almost exclusively to translations of German plays by Moser and others, yet as a nation the Germans are still too ponderous and serious to appreciate wit and humor as they are appreciated in England, France, and America. 'Die Familie Buchholtz,' which has had such an extraordinary sale in Germany, is exceedingly naïve and primitive in its humorous methods, and the leading comic paper, the *Fliegende Blätter*, is infinitely superior in its illustrations to its text. Yet a month or two ago a writer in the *Rundschau* sneered at the current jokes always found in American newspapers, which, he declared, the readers of German newspapers would little appreciate. The reason why may perhaps be found in the results of a prize competition for original witticisms arranged by the *Neueste Nachrichten* of Munich. Six prizes were awarded, of which two were for untranslatable puns of the weakest description. The highest prize, 150 marks, was given for this conundrum: "A—'A friend told me the other day he had seen Frankfort on the Oder from the Brocken. Do you believe that possible?' B—'Quite impossible, for how could the man tell at that distance whether it was Frankfort on the Main or Frankfort on the Oder?'" A prize of 100 marks was given for this archaic joke: "A woman who had looked under her bed all her life for burglars discovers an apprentice hidden away, and exclaims, 'Ah! there you are at last.'" Fifty marks were given for this joke: "The burgomaster of a certain small town is so strict in his diet that he does not even partake of [*geniessen*, enjoy] the respect of his fellow-citizens." The one that obtained the last prize was the best of all: "First Berliner—'You have studied astronomy: can you distinguish the Great Bear?' 'The Great Bear? Well, I should say so. True, I haven't seen him, but when the sky is clear you can hear his roar way over at Potsdam.'"

— On the 2d of May the Goethe Society celebrated at Weimar the one-hundredth anniversary of the first publication of Goethe's collected works, and Herr Erich Schmidt, Director of the Goethe-Archiv, fittingly outlined on that occasion the plan of the new and complete *Archiv-Ausgabe*, whose publication is to be begun next year. Prof. Wilhelm Scherer and Herr von Loeper will be Herr Schmidt's associates in the general editing, but numerous specialists will be intrusted with the biographical portion, which is to constitute one of the five subdivisions of the entire work, and will comprise three volumes. Two of these will be devoted to the biography proper, by Herr von Loeper, and a "historico-philosophical preface from the pen of a prominent historian." In the third volume Goethe's activity in the fields of science and philosophy will be considered. Prof. Haeckel will treat of his morphological studies, Prof. Ferdinand Cohn of his researches in botany, and Prof. Herman Grimm, it is hoped, will discuss his relations to art. Even his 'Theory of Colors' is to find a critic "who will impartially consider alike its errors and physiologico-æsthetic merits." Prof. Kuno Fischer, finally, will furnish a *résumé* of his philosophical views. The other four divisions of the publication will consist of Goethe's works properly speaking—substantially as arranged in the Cotta edition of forty volumes—his scientific writings, his annals and diaries, and his complete correspondence. The greatest treasure now released from the Archiv is the "diary" written in the winter of 1786–87 in Italy and addressed to Frau von Stein—fugitive leaves, partly of an intimate character, which form the groundwork of the 'Italienische Reise.' In addition there are "mountains of diaries and correspondences, and an almost overwhelming wealth of scientific studies covering sixty years." As might have been expected from Goethe's methodical manner of working, there are few fragments and abandoned schemes, but numerous reëlaborations and "clean copies." Among his most famous works only 'Goetz von Berlichingen' and the Roman 'Elegien' exist in the original manuscripts; those of 'Faust,' 'Wilhelm Meister,' 'Tasso,' etc., being lost. Of particular interest are a manuscript of 'Hermann und Dorothea' with metrical corrections by a strange hand, and a copy of 'Egmont' with Schiller's marginal remarks. Other manuscripts show Herder's correcting hand.

AMERICAN DIPLOMACY.

American Diplomacy and the Furtherance of Commerce. By Eugene Schuyler, Ph.D., LL.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886.

MR. SCHUYLER is entitled to speak with authority on the subject of his book, as he has devoted himself to it for some twenty years. Within that period he has served as consul at Moscow and at Reval (1867-9), as secretary of legation at St. Petersburg for six years, acting as *chargé d'affaires* during nearly half this time (1870-1876), as secretary of legation and consul-general at Constantinople, as consul at Birmingham, as consul-general at Rome, as *chargé d'affaires* and consul-general at Bucharest, and as minister resident and consul-general to Greece, Rumania, and Servia (1876–1884). He has thus had a more than usually good opportunity of gaining a thorough knowledge of our consular and diplomatic service, and his book, which is based on two courses of lectures delivered at Johns Hopkins and Cornell, will be found full of valuable information. It is divided into two parts, the first of which treats of the "Consular and Diplomatic Service," the second of "American Diplomatic Efforts to Protect Commerce and Navigation." Of the many subjects touched upon in the first part we can only notice two or three of special importance.

Mr. Schuyler opens his discussion with the announcement of a paradox. He says that if we were to rid our minds for the moment of the "literary" theory of the Constitution and its working, which we have been taught from our childhood, and look only at "the practice of our representative institutions" as they have been developed, we should find that in the last analy-

sis the Government of the United States, in ordinary peaceful times, is "a nearly irresponsible despotism, composed of five or six men, working under and through constitutional forms, and subject only to the penalty which is always exacted for very grave mistakes." These six men are the President, "elected by the people, but only from two or three candidates proposed by partisan conventions as the result of intrigue or the failure of intrigue"; the Secretary of State and the Secretary of the Treasury, "named by the President as his colleagues and associates, rather than his advisers and servants, confirmed by the Senate, which never refuses its approval except for cause of the most scandalous nature, or for reasons of extreme partisan feeling"; the Speaker of the House, "elected as such by his fellow-Congressmen at the dictation of a clique or as the result of a compromise between the factions and the personal ambitions of the dominant party"; the chairman of the standing Committee on Appropriations and the chairman of the standing Committee on Ways and Means, both appointed by the Speaker, and generally his rivals for the Speakership. "These," he continues, "are the chief depositaries of power, and without the consent of one, two, or three of these men, no important step in public affairs can be taken."

This is unquestionably important if true; and if it is true, the next most important thing is to ascertain what are the consequences of "this grave conflict between actual practice and constitutional theory." But here Mr. Schuyler does not enlighten us. He says that the Secretary of State, by hasty or ill-timed or intemperate action, may embroil us with foreign Powers; through ignorance he may give up rights which we have jealously guarded for a century; by the negotiation of a treaty he may draw us into a scheme of annexation, or saddle us with a colony or protectorate. So far as these dangers exist, have they not always existed? They really inhere in the very nature of diplomacy, and in intrusting the foreign affairs of the Government to a State Department, or to the President, or to one or a small number of men. One thing which gives our Executive such great power in foreign affairs is the secrecy of the executive sessions of the Senate, and the secrecy which surrounds all diplomatic correspondence and negotiation, at any rate in the first stages. But this is an inherent part of the constitutional machinery, a page taken from the middle-age theory of the relations of governments to one another. This secrecy has been reinforced by the introduction of the telegraph, and the consequent power of dictating negotiations abroad from Washington, and the mischief which an ignorant or unprincipled Secretary of State might do has perhaps been increased in this way; but we fail to find in Mr. Schuyler's volume any justification for the statement that the management of our foreign relations involves a grave departure from constitutional theory. Mr. Schuyler seems to have in mind, indeed, rather the annual interference of the House Committee on Appropriations with the foreign service than the despotic powers of the Secretary; but while writing his book, the rules of the House were changed so as to take away from the Committee on Appropriations the control of the appropriations for the consular and diplomatic service, and to give it to the Committee on Foreign Affairs. He thinks this very important in "reducing the tyrannical and unconstitutional powers of the governing junto," but adds, "what has been written is nevertheless allowed to remain, in order to show to what point our Government had come when this salutary measure was taken."

We have not space for extracts, but can cordially recommend this book to students of our service. The information which it contains is just of that sort which is difficult to get from books, as it is the condensation of actual experience extending over a period of many years in a service in which experienced public servants are few and far between. The great triumphs of American diplomacy have been achieved by sheer force of native ability and merit, not reinforced, as they would have been in the case of any other powerful country, by long tradition, by an *esprit de corps*, by an atmosphere of precedent and training. Mr. Schuyler holds that the principles of civil-service reform might well be applied to the consular system, the higher posts being filled by promotion, and appointments being made only to the lower grades, and does not think much of the objection to long tenure, that a consul will become "denationalized" by long residence abroad. As to the idea that consuls can promote "trade," he very justly says, "English commerce was not built up by consuls." He seems to be of opinion that a salaried consular service is better than one paid by fees. With regard to diplomatic officials, Mr. Schuyler thinks it a mistake to give our envoys so universally the low rank of ministers, and mentions several inconveniences which result from this, the chief of which is that they are continually outranked by officials of other nations who really discharge substantially the same functions. He suggests that it ought to be made an international rule that there should be only one class of diplomatic agents, or, in other words, that all chief diplomatic representatives or heads of missions should be equal among themselves. He sees no objection to combining foreign missions, and gives a page of illustrative cases in which it has been successfully accomplished. He says that the suggestion that we entirely dispense with the diplomatic service, and confide diplomatic functions to consular officers, "has an appearance of reason," and calls attention to the fact that our ministers to Switzerland, Portugal, Denmark, Greece, Rumania, Servia, and some of the South American countries, are consuls-general as well—which seems at least to dispose of the objection that the combination of duties is impossible.

As to questions of ceremonial and etiquette, Mr. Schuyler notices the absurd idea, so common among travelling Americans, that they are entitled to the good offices of their minister in procuring them the necessary number of introductions and "tickets" for whatever is going on; and he suggests that it would be a good thing to have at Washington a master of ceremonies to keep the State Department straight in matters of ceremonial. But by what process should such an official be produced? Working for "the party" would never do, and there is confessedly no board of censors in Washington who know enough about etiquette to pass upon the qualifications of candidates for such a post.

We have not left ourselves much room to speak of the second part of Mr. Schuyler's book, which gives an interesting historical summary of our dealings with the Barbary Powers; the right of search and the slave trade; the free navigation of rivers and seas; neutral rights; the fisheries and commercial treaties. Neutral duties are not considered, nor the canal question, nor extradition. This part of the book is mainly expository. The author is more at home in the practical details and business of diplomacy than in the field of the *jus gentium*. His book is mainly valuable for the picture it contains of the service as it exists; and a wonderful picture it is. With its underpaid officials, selected in nine cases out of ten for other reasons than that of their fitness to discharge the duties of their office, unversed in the language of the people to whom they are accredited, and devoid of all knowledge of etiquette and ceremonial, our system flies in the face of every maxim that has ever governed the preparation of diplomatic machinery by civilized nations. One point, to which Mr. Schuyler does not allude, furnishes a curious commentary on American diplomatic business—the ponderous volume of instructions to its representatives abroad by which the State Department attempts to make up for their assumed ignorance and incapacity. These descend to details almost as minute as those of a book of tactics, and excite the amazement of the diplomats of other nations, who, being specially trained for their work, are assumed to be able to regulate their ordinary movements without a code. With such a system, it is wonderful that we get along as well as we do; but it is still a question how long we can keep it up without some radical reform.

RECENT FRENCH BOOKS.

M. Arsène Houssaye, poet, novelist, journalist, art critic, theatrical manager, literary historian, amateur painter, Inspector-General of Fine Arts, Inspector of Museums, member of numerous artistic associations and committees, and above all man of the world, of the Paris world, has completed his 'Confessions' (4 vols. Paris: Dentu; Boston: Schoenhof). In these four volumes, of which a great part is rather the *mémoires des autres* than of himself, M. Houssaye has recounted fifty years of his literary and artistic career, from 1830 to 1880. He has much to say of the society in which he played a part, of the *monde*, and sometimes of the regions bordering on the *demi-monde*: not enough of the latter to make the book entirely satisfactory to those who seek for information in that direction, but enough to give a certain perfume to the volumes distasteful to many. Nor does he confine various half-veiled details to the period of his youth; age never made him less impressionable, if we are to trust him, and even in his *été de la Saint-Martin*, an Indian summer of youthful warmth reaching to the limits of winter (he is now over seventy), he has things to confess which do not seem in the least to weigh upon his conscience as sins. In fine, he congratulates himself upon having been at a good school which taught him to take life gayly. Morny and D'Orsay were heroes to him; he strove, not without success, to imitate these models during a long life of literary and artistic dilettantism. It would be difficult to say where the truth begins or ends in the 'Confessions,' especially in the part devoted to the youthful years, a little too full of not very edifying adventures. Even when he speaks of well-known persons and events, his inexactitude is startling. Thus, vol. i, p. 387, he speaks of the Comte de Saint-Simon, but calls him the Duc de Saint-Simon, who was quite another person, and he talks about his receptions as if he had himself been present at them, whereas in reality M. Houssaye came to Paris only in 1830, and Saint-Simon died in 1825. Many of the pages will seem enigmatical to one not versed in the knowledge of Paris *salons*. M. Houssaye has a glib way of rattling off the most aristocratic names, and of hinting many things which he might be embarrassed to prove were he called to a strict account; but he usually, not always, stops short of scandal at least, and he will not satisfy those who seek for it in his volumes.

By far the most attractive pages in the 'Confessions' are those in which M. Houssaye recounts his administration of the Théâtre-Français during the years between 1849 and 1856. It was the time of Rachel's greatest successes. This part of the work abounds in pleasant reminiscences of Balzac, Dumas, Émile Augier, Scribe, Alfred de Musset. But even where the author is at his best the reader must be on his guard; he does not inspire confidence, and the sprightliness of his style does not always make up for the absence of veracity. Besides, this sprightliness of

manner degenerates too often into an affectation of levity which becomes fatiguing when continued through four octavo volumes. Although M. Houssaye never goes quite as far as Jean-Jacques Rousseau, the last volume contains many details that may seem of almost too private a character—the author's connection with Marie Garcia, his second marriage. There is much sentimentality mixed with his irrepressible levity; but it is asking too much of the lively and always charming author of so many volumes on the frivolous side of the eighteenth century to demand that he should be very serious when writing his own memoirs. Yet when he comes to speak of Napoleon III., whom he often saw, he endeavors to make his style rise to the dignity of history. He frankly and unhesitatingly admires those who supported the Emperor, and he seems to have been on intimate terms with many of the important personages of the time. But how much can we believe of the conversations he reports with the Emperor, the Empress, Morny, Persigny, or Walewski? There is, however, one point which he makes very clear—how the marriage between Napoleon III. and the Countess de Montijo was brought about, and the part which Mérimée played in the transaction. He lays a great part of the blame for the Franco-Prussian war in 1870 upon the Empress Eugénie, but he is throughout in full sympathy with the men and institutions of the Second Empire. On the whole, the 'Confessions' are agreeable reading. The author almost always keeps his cheerful humor; he has praise to bestow on almost all those whose portraits he presents to us. There are a few exceptions, however. He rather hints at than expresses some very ungracious things about George Sand, and he cordially hates Mérimée. M. Houssaye has made his book peculiar by several orthographic freaks. He spells *tems*, *cham*, *gourman*, *ven*, *hyver;* but he has not had the courage to carry out his reform to its utmost limits. Each volume is enriched at the end with about twenty pages of facsimiles, letters, portraits, drawings, selected from the collection of the author, all chosen to illustrate the text. This is the most reliable part of the 'Confessions.'

M. Houssaye, after mentioning his principal books, closes by saying that his best work is Henry Houssaye, and posterity will no doubt ratify this judgment. M. Henry Houssaye, though still comparatively a young man, has already produced several volumes, mostly upon Greek history and art. His 'Histoire d'Alcibiade,' his first work, was crowned by the Academy in 1874, and won for him a respectable place among French writers. For some time he has been contributing to the *Journal des Débats* articles upon artistic and literary topics, which he has now collected into a volume under the title 'Les Hommes et les Idées' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof). The subjects chosen by M. Henry Houssaye are of a more serious character than those in which his father delighted and still delights. He treats of Hellenism; the Science of Religions; Wit among the Greeks; Modern Greek Poetry; but the most attractive parts of the volume are those that relate to modern subjects—Zola or Flaubert; Paul de Saint-Victor or Victor Hugo. Even in these we find, where we least expect it, some phrase which reminds us that the author has written such works as 'Apelles et la peinture grecque.' A quotation from the anthology or a little story from Plutarch serves to close an article on a novel by Claretie or by Mario Uchard. He quotes Aristotle quite naturally when he speaks of 'Madame Bovary.' But the display of erudition becomes puzzling to the ordinary reader when, in the course of a not over-discriminating analysis of the style of Cherbuliez, which he calls "simple and natural," M. Houssaye tells us that he uses lavishly all the forms of irony, "depuis l'astéisme jusqu'au diasyrme." In spite of all this, 'Les Hommes et les Idées' is a very interesting volume, and the last essay especially, "Les Romanciers contemporains et le Naturalisme," is excellent.

M. Jules Claretie bade farewell in October to his readers of the *Temps*, where, for a number of years, he had given every week a series of articles, of which the sixth and last annual volume has now been published—'La Vie à Paris' (Paris: Victor-Havard; New York: Christern). The discontinuation of these rambling talks on the most varied subjects was owing to the appointment of M. Claretie to the honorable post of Director of the Comédie-Française. In these six volumes he has touched upon almost all the subjects of artistic, literary, dramatic, or general interest that came up in what is known as the Paris world. M. Claretie was always remarkably quick and ready as a journalist. He was often the first to bring into general notice a book, a picture, or a new author; but his interest was not limited to productions of the mind: celebrated suits, fêtes, balls, races, passing events of all kinds, found in him a sympathetic chronicler. Nor did these long weekly *causeries* seem to interfere in the least with the author's productiveness in other directions; so that he could easily have continued them, even in addition to his new duties as Director of the not easily manageable troupe of the Théâtre-Français, had he not felt that his official position would make it impossible for him to speak freely upon many things. As it is, the readers of the *Temps* will not feel too much the loss of M. Claretie's chatty articles, as something analogous, though very different in spirit, is now presented to them from the pen of M. Anatole France.

Those who are interested in personal details about the celebrities of Paris, both literary and artistic, will take a certain pleasure in reading M. Albert Wolff's 'La Gloire à Paris' (Paris: Victor-Havard; Boston: Schoenhof). The volume consists of thirty-four articles on some of the artistic and literary notabilities whom the author has met. With many, especially the actors and singers, he came in close contact in his quality of *feuilletoniste*. Thus he reveals in his article on Thérésa how the 'Memoirs' signed by this eccentric singer were composed by himself and Ernest Blum, aided by Henri Rochefort. Too often, however, the notices are mere hasty *feuilletons*, with little information in them, like those on Sarah Bernhardt, on Rossini and Meyerbeer. At times, too, the subjects, if they had their moment of *gloire*, scarcely deserve to be remembered; nor will M. Wolff's enthusiasm do much to carry down to posterity the names of the singer Darcier and of the painter Charles Marchal. 'La Gloire à Paris' is really the fourth volume of the series called by the author, with a certain conscious pride, "Mémoires d'un Parisien." For M. Wolff's greatest ambition is to be a Parisian; and, in spite of his German birth and of his beginnings as the correspondent of German papers, he has won for himself a respectable place among the lighter writers of a class which the asphalt of the Paris boulevards seems alone able to produce.

'Les Français en Russie et les Russes en France,' by M. Léonce Pingaud (Paris: Perrin; Boston: Schoenhof), is a large octavo volume of 500 pages, in which the author attempts, as he says in his preface, to sketch the history of French civilization in Russia, and to indicate its character and influence, from the death of Louis XIV. to the fall of Napoleon I. It cannot be said that M. Pingaud has succeeded in making an interesting narrative out of his very promising materials, or, indeed, that he has made anything deserving the name of an historical sketch of French influences upon Russia. He has brought together many scattered facts drawn from public and private documents, more or less known and unknown, under the headings: "L'Ancien régime"; "L'Émigration"; "L'Invasion"; but his book gives rather the impression of a mass of notes than of a well-digested narrative. With such actors at his disposal as Catherine II., Voltaire, and Diderot; or Louis XVIII. and his court and the army of Condé; or Alexander I. and Napoleon, it would have been impossible to make a book devoid of interest or of value, and M. Pingaud has not done so; but his volume is disappointing, and, what is even worse, at times tedious. The most interesting part of it is what he has to say of the connection of the Duc de Richelieu and his companions with the foundation and growth of the port of Odessa.

A new volume from the pen of Victor Hugo is necessarily something of a literary event in France; but more than one of the poet's admirers will be disappointed by what his literary executors have published under the title 'Théâtre en liberté' (Paris: Hetzel and Quantin; Boston: Schoenhof). The short prologue is in Victor Hugo's most extravagant style, unredeemed by any flashes of poetry. "La Grand'Mère" has a few tender touches, that remind us of Hugo at his best when he deals with child nature. The au hor was wise to write, in the fragment of a preface prepared by him, that the other dramatic attempts in the volume could only be played "in that ideal theatre which every man has in his own mind." This is perhaps the most poetic thought in the volume.

In 'Les Dames de Croix-Mort' (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: Christern) M. Georges Ohnet has overstepped the conventional limits within which he has hitherto confined himself, and ventured into the wilds of the *roman psychologique*. As his equipment for such wanderings was entirely inadequate, the result is what might have been expected. In sacrificing the romantic and sentimental characteristics which have given to his previous work a certain refreshing respectability, he has evidently tried to lift his present story out of the depressing atmosphere of commonplace and virtuous sympathies into those lofty regions of art where decency and morality do not exist. The attempt was too ambitious for his powers, and 'Les Dames de Croix-Mort' is at the same time unpleasant in its subject and unsatisfactory in its execution, and, worse than all, dreary and uninteresting from beginning to end.

'Geneviève,' by Mme. E. de Pressensé (Paris: Fischbacher; Boston: Schoenhof), is a very moral but not at all a religious novel. It is sufficiently well written to be readable, and even interesting to young persons who do not demand of an author either probable events or natural characters. The characters belong to the working classes with a few exceptions, and the events occur before and during the siege of Paris. If the author's theories of life and of art leave something to be desired, at least she has the best of intentions, and is never either offensive or tiresome.

The last work of M. Émile Zola, 'L'Œuvre' (Paris: Charpentier; New York: Christern), is the fourteenth of the gigantic series called by the collective name: "Les Rougon-Macquart, histoire naturelle et sociale d'une famille sous le Second Empire." In this the author aims to paint the artistic, and, to a certain extent, the literary world of the period of which he has undertaken to be the social historian. His hero is a painter of the *plein air* school, Claude Lantier, the son of La Gervaise. The story is merely that of the efforts of the artist, of his powerlessness in creation, of the hallucination which drives him to self-destruction before the monstrous creation of his pencil. M. Zola, in the early part of his career, was a constant visitor

at the studios of a class of artists whose resemblance to his hero is not very remote. He even for a while made a certain stir as an art critic, and his articles on Manet contain theories not at variance with those exposed in the present volume. There is scarcely another work of his, not even excepting his volumes of literary and theatrical criticism, in which his personal theories are more complacently set forth than in this. By the side of the painter is the young writer, Sandoz, Zola himself, or rather the Zola that Zola sees. There is no stronger pleading *pro domo* than the tirades of Sandoz on his new studies "de l'homme physiologique"; his explanations of his audacities of language, of his convictions that everything ought to be expressed in words, that there are hideous and abominable words that are indispensable, "qu'une langue sort enrichie de ces bains de force." Of course the most characteristic part of his utterances cannot be quoted or even hinted at. By the side of the main figures there is a whole band of young artists—Mahoudeau the sculptor, Gagnière, who, while the others dispute, dreams aloud of Berlioz, and Schumann, and Wagner, "le dieu en qui s'incarnent des siècles de musique."

M. Zola feels conscious of being himself, he, the high priest of the Naturalistic school, a product of the Romantic school of Hugo. As a critic, he saw through what was false and factitious in Hugo, and yet he has the very defects of the school, just as his hero, Claude, the painter who wishes to paint only the real, falls at every moment into exaggeration, into a secret symbolism which makes him introduce naked figures into the foreground of a picture which is to reproduce the Paris of to-day. If we are to consider Sandoz as expressing his ideas, he is painfully aware that his generation has been steeped in Romanticism: "Nous en sommes restés imprégnés quand même, et nous avons eu beau nous débarbouiller, prendre des bains de réalité violente, la tache s'entête, toutes les lessives du monde n'en ôteront pas l'odeur." It would take a specialist in painting to criticise M. Zola's pages on the processes employed by his hero. Here, as elsewhere, his vocabulary is inexhaustible, his precision fatiguing, his prolixity of detail annoying when it does not become unintelligible to a reader whose knowledge of the subject is only general. There is at times a perfect orgy of description in 'L'Œuvre.' Victor Hugo and his school have no richer tints with which to bring out the landscape than Zola has when he sees Paris, and the Seine, and the quays at sunset through the eyes of Claude and Christine in their long walks at the time of their first unconscious love. To the many descriptions of Paris that M. Zola has given (there are no less than five in 'Une Page d'amour,' all from the same spot), he has added several in 'L'Œuvre,' most of them as seen from the Pont des Saint-Pères looking toward the island of the Cité, at all hours and all seasons, and in all sorts of weather. It is in these descriptions that the author shows himself a consummate artist and creator in style.

Aside from the inherent repulsiveness of the matter, and the voluntary and even calculated disregard of the proprieties of language, 'L'Œuvre' is not one of the books in which M. Zola most offends the current taste and sense of decorum, though there is enough in it to make the work disagreeable even to readers not over-fastidious. On the whole, the same may be said of 'L'Œuvre' as of the other novels by the same author: they may interest on account of the many subjects they touch upon; they may even attract by the unusual nature of these subjects; but they cannot be said to amuse. They are often tedious reading. Even if we are not repelled by the brutal truth they claim to have, we certainly do not rise from reading them with our better nature stirred into activity. They depress and sadden by the persistent presentation of what is mean and selfish in man. They show, with entire unconcern, where the evil lies. They dwell on all the hideous and repulsive details of human maladies, and never suggest a remedy or raise a hope of some cure, however distant. The latter part of 'L'Œuvre' recalls forcibly to the mind 'Le Chef-d'œuvre inconnu' of Balzac. In that, too, the painter becomes absorbed in his *œuvre* enough to forget all else, and to lose his reason and his sense of the beautiful. Not so, however, with the Claude of M. Zola: he, on the contrary, can never be satisfied; he doubts at times his own genius, his mental equilibrium. Herein is the despairing note of the work—that "fatal powerlessness" which seems to pervade the best creations of the Naturalistic school.

Persia, the Land of the Imams. A Narrative of Travel and Residence, 1871–1885. By James Bassett. Scribners. 1886. Map, pp. xvii, 343. 8vo.

PERSIA is so important a factor in Central Asian politics that a trustworthy account of her present condition has a special interest at this time. Mr. Bassett has the great advantage over some recent writers on this country that he was not a mere traveller, but lived in Persia for eleven years. His first impressions were received when the country was suffering from the effects of the famine of 1871, during which it is estimated two millions of people perished. This fact perhaps unconsciously colors the whole of the book, and induces a more unfavorable tone than might have been the case a few years earlier or later. While in all the tours, with a single exception, which he describes, nearly every town and village presented scenes of suffering and death from starvation, a traveller through Persia in 1881 is able to say, "I saw neither man, woman, nor child in a state of weakness from insufficient food; . . . the physical condition of the peasantry seemed to leave nothing to desire." The author's journeys, of which he gives an account in the first chapters, were confined to the northern provinces, Ispahan being the furthest southern point which he reached. The most interesting of them was that to the sacred city of Mashad on the northeastern frontier, a place familiar to the readers of Vámbéry and O'Donovan. At the time our author visited it, in 1878, about 125 miles of the road from Teheran was known as the "Place of Fear," from the fact that it was exposed to the raids of the Turkomans. It was the custom, therefore, for all pilgrims and travellers, of whom there were always great numbers, to cross this stretch of country in caravans which were despatched twice a month under Government escort. The author's description of a night march with the caravan—the alarm as it approaches one of the "Stations of Terror," the songs of the pilgrims, the long-drawn-out cries of the dervishes, "like the ominous hoot of an owl"—is the best in the book. Though warned that it was not safe for a Christian to enter the city, he went about freely and without the disguise which other travellers have assumed. On this account, however, he was unable to enter the famous sanctuary ornamented with gold-enamelled tiles.

In the closing chapters Mr. Bassett gives the results of his observations on the country, its Government and people. There is much that is encouraging in its present condition: Persia has no debt, and its revenues exceed its expenditures. But, on the other hand, its revenues and, according to the latest returns, its commerce are apparently decreasing, and the cost of living has greatly increased. Consequently, "while a few people are growing richer, the peasants are growing poorer, if that be possible, and the whole country is falling into a financial stress, the only remedy for which, in the ordinary course of things, is a reduction of the population by war and famine." A principal cause of this is the fact that the means of communication are still of the most primitive character. Though the greater part of the country offers no obstacles to the easy and rapid construction of roads, there are but two of any length which are practicable for wagons. Mr. Bassett states that there is only one—that which connects the capital with Casveen, a hundred miles to the northwest; but the latest accounts say that there is now a second, between Teheran and Koom, which is about the same distance to the south. The cost of transport, therefore, is such as to effectually prevent the development of internal traffic. The Shah has made several attempts to induce foreign capitalists to build railroads, but hitherto without success, from inability to give sufficient security. Of this monarch, who has been on the throne for the period, extraordinary for an Oriental sovereign, of nearly thirty-eight years (not forty-five, as Mr. Benjamin states in the January *Century*), our author says he "is by far the mildest and best disposed prince that has ruled in Persia. He is also the most progressive." Though he has done much for his people, he has made no radical reform, no doubt despairing of overcoming the obstacles to progress common to all Mohammedan countries. To these should be added, according to some recent writers, among whom is the late United States Minister to Persia, the influence of Russia, which is said to be exerted steadily and powerfully to prevent the growth of a country which she intends to conquer. However this may be, that part of Persia which, next to Teheran and its immediate vicinity, seems to show the greatest improvement, is the province of Khorasan, which, thanks to Russia, is nearly freed from the raids of the Turkomans. The statement of the author that "the Turkman as he was, the scourge and terror of Eastern Persia and Central Asia, has ceased to be," is rather a prophecy than an accomplished fact, as Col. Stewart, of the Afghan Boundary Commission, reports their raids as still continuing in 1884 in the territory to the south of Mashad.

Mr. Bassett's work as a missionary naturally led him to make a careful study of the different religions of the people of Persia, and the chapters devoted to this subject are the most valuable in his work. The great mass are Sheah Mohammedans. "The essential and distinguishing tenet of this sect is that, by the command of Mohammed, the right to supreme spiritual and secular rule was possessed by the eldest living representative of Ale, until and including the twelfth generation." This last ruler or Imam is Al Mahdi, who disappeared when a child. He is not dead, however, but is concealed, and will make two revelations of himself. Of the numerous impostors to whom this tradition has given rise, the best known is the Bab, whose followers, called Babees, still exist in considerable numbers, though subjected now for many years to the severest persecutions. The non-Mohammedans are only about one hundred and thirty thousand out of a total population variously estimated at from five to ten millions. These consist principally of Armenians, Nestorians, Jews, and Parsis, or Guebers, as they are contemptuously called in Persia. This sect is rapidly decreasing in numbers under the constant oppression which it has suffered for many years; and though very numerous formerly, according to its recent historian, Dosabhai, "it does not at present exceed seven or eight thousand." It illustrates the difficulty of getting any trustworthy statistics of this country that Mr. Benjamin puts the numbers of the Guebers at 25,000,

while Mr. Bassett says they "do not number more than four or five thousand souls." The Jews are, if possible, in a still more degraded condition. "They are all polygamists, either in theory or fact, and the law of divorce is essentially that of the Mohammedans. In every place the Jews follow the most disreputable pursuits." The Armenians alone of the dissenters have acquired any influence in Persia. "Many of them are employed in important positions, and as postmasters, telegraphists, and officers of the army."

As a writer Mr. Bassett lacks imaginative power, and, while giving many minute details, is rarely able to present to the mind a picture of that which he describes. In spelling Persian words he frequently follows a rule of his own which, so far as we have examined, generally differs from that of other writers. It would have much enhanced the value of his work if he had, in some condensed form, given his readers a clear idea of the changes in Persia either for the better or for the worse during the fourteen years over which his observation extended. Its usefulness, also, as an authority and book of reference would have been greatly increased by an index. We regret this omission the more as the author has evidently taken great pains to be accurate in his statements. We have noticed but a single error, which is in the bibliography at the end: the author of 'Persia during the Famine' was not Buttlebank, but Brittlebank.

The Epic Songs of Russia. By Isabel Florence Hapgood. With an Introductory Note by Prof. Francis J. Child. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886.

Essays in the Study of Folk-Songs. By the Countess Evelyn Martinengo-Cesaresco. Scribner & Welford. 1886.

ONE of the most unfortunate results of the movement which we call the Renaissance, was the introduction of a new standard of taste which, for over two centuries, almost entirely closed some of the most interesting and valuable fields of research. All investigation into national history and literature was abandoned for the passionate pursuit of Greek and Roman letters, and every intellectual manifestation of the middle ages, whether in literature or art, was characterized as barbarous. The reaction against the mental despotism of the Renaissance was slow, but never quite suspended, and finally achieved a brilliant victory in the German and French Romantic School. We can measure the immense gain of this victory by considering a single field of study which it has reopened to us—that of popular literature. Before the Renaissance there existed in most countries of Europe a flourishing popular literature, much of which has unfortunately perished by the neglect of later ages, but much more of which has been preserved by oral tradition than we could have believed possible. Almost every department of literature was represented, from the epic to the drama. This literature has suffered no break, but has combined and developed its original elements in the most interesting manner, and the Carolingian epics and the mediæval mystery still survive in many parts of Europe. The immense harvest gleaned during the past few years on this field shows no sign of diminution, and scarcely a month passes that we are not called upon to chronicle some new collection of folk-tales or folk-songs.

The value of this material is twofold: it constitutes no unimportant addition to literature, and it throws much light upon some of the difficult questions regarding the origin of the epic, the drama, etc. This secondary interest, if we may so call it, is just beginning to attract attention. First comes naturally the period of enthusiastic and sometimes indiscriminate collection; then follow the sifting and comparison of materials and the deduction of general laws and principles. The two volumes before us illustrate these two stages: one is a genuine and delightful addition to literature, and the other is an examination and comparison of materials already collected. We shall examine the two books in the above order.

One of the interesting things about the collection of popular literature is, the surprises it has in store for the collector and reader. When a country has apparently been ransacked by scholars, some outlying territory will suddenly afford a new and extensive branch of literature; or some forms, which, it had been thought, had disappeared forever, will all at once crop out in the most unexpected manner. Both of these cases have been verified in the Russian Folk-Epics so admirably presented to the English reader by Miss Hapgood. In some countries we have epics without epic songs, as in France; in others we have epic songs and no epics, as in Russia; and lastly, as in Spain, we have both epics and epic songs. In none of the southern countries, however, have we one of the most interesting features of the northern epics, the survival of the mythical age. The early introduction of Christianity in the south had so thoroughly destroyed the pagan mythology that we find no trace of it in popular literature, except, of course, as much as the Church absorbed into her ceremonies and legends. In the north, on the other hand, the persistence of pagan mythology communicates a tone elsewhere unknown. Finally, we may notice the absence of that form of chivalry which was developed on the southern soil under the influence of Christianity. It would be impossible, for instance, to find in the epic songs of the south a hero like Ilyá of Múrom, who was a peasant.

The epic songs of Russia were unknown until a few years ago, and the story of their survival and collection is engagingly told by Miss Hapgood in her introduction. The songs themselves are cyclical in their nature, and cluster about the exploits of heroes who had their homes at Kiev, Novgorod, and Moscow. There are, besides, separate songs upon the elder heroes. The contents are of the most fascinating description, and, with the exception of an occasional trait found in all folk-songs, will prove entirely new to the reader; while the admirable form in which the translator has clothed her text gives the book the value of an original literary work. Around the half-mythical figures of the peasant-hero Ilyá of Múrom and the Prince Fair Sun Vladímir gather the heroic shapes of their companions, who quaff the aurochs' horn of mead and wield the mace six tons in weight. Nor are fair ladies absent from these pages, where the imaginations of the Orient and Occident meet and fuse, but Vladímir's wife, the Princess Apráxia and her sister Nastásya woo their husbands or meet death at their hands like their sisters in the ballads of other nations. A world of romance is revealed to the reader in these pages, and the translator has our gratitude for bringing it within our ken.

The 'Essays in the Study of Folk-Songs,' by the Countess Martinengo-Cesaresco, offers a somewhat different interest. It is, as we have said above, an examination and comparison of folk-songs already collected, chiefly in the south of Europe, and parts of the book have already appeared in various periodicals. In spite of the desultory character of the work, it displays wide reading and excellent taste, and cannot fail to awaken curiosity. The contents may be divided into four classes: that in which the writer gives a comprehensive account of the folk-songs of some country or province, as in the chapters on Armenian Folk-Songs, Venetian Folk-Songs, etc.; that in which are examined the various modes of treatment of certain themes, as, Nature in Folk-Songs, the Idea of Fate in Southern Traditions, the Inspiration of Death in Folk-Poetry; or in which the author discusses such general questions as the Diffusion of Ballads; or, finally, the class treating of some of the divisions of folk-songs, such as Folk-Lullabies, Folk-Dirges, and Songs for the Rite of May. These essays are all entertaining and valuable, and will serve to show the reader what a rich mine is that of popular literature, and how little known in this country, notwithstanding the labors of Prof. Child and Mr. Newell. It is to be regretted that no references, except in the most general way, are given to the sources; and, as the texts are presented in translations only, it is impossible to trace them, in spite of the list of authorities given at the end of the book.

Whom God Hath Joined. By Elizabeth Gilbert Martin. [Leisure Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

THERE is pleasure in the opportunity to describe as able a novel written by a woman. The author of 'Whom God hath Joined' provides that opportunity. The chief, but by no means the only interest of the novel lies in the spiritual development of Katherine Danforth, a girl born of Methodist parents and bred in an American town, where every tenth man has an infallible creed of his own for which he is ready to be uncompromisingly disagreeable until a new revelation compels him to readjust the definition of infallible. The girl, sensitive, impressionable, with unusual intellectual keenness, is tormented by doctrinal hair-splitting; she drifts through doubt to unbelief, and at last finds peace in the absolutism of the Church of Rome. The author's conclusions and the wisdom or folly of Katherine's behavior in the great crisis of her life involve questions of religious dogma. Centuries of theological strife and oceans of human blood have not settled them. Mrs. Martin has not undertaken to decide them for the universe, but she has discussed them through her characters very cleverly. The delineation of Katherine is fine and complete. The sketches of Mark Norton, who felt that Methodist fervor was, in some way, incompatible with slaveholding; of White, the chilly Unitarian; of Maria Rawson, the fanatical convert to Romanism, and of the Jesuit father, are all vivid and impartial. In Katherine the tendency towards Romanism is indicated from the first, and at the end the reader shares the author's conviction that her conversion is a logical and natural finality.

It is to the author's conviction that the book owes much of its power, and this is additional proof of a fact already pretty firmly established, that the woman in literature is strongest when she is "writing up" a personal feeling or conviction. In Mrs. Martin's case the gain of power more than compensates for any loss of literary beauty. She has managed her plot, too, almost as well as her motive and characters. It is coherent and ingenious, though the movement of the second part is so rapid that the reader cannot feel the tragedy of the dénouement. In natural connection with the narrative she has contrived to make shrewd and entertaining comments on life, and has occasionally achieved an epigram that bears examination.

Hamlet's Note-Book. By William D. O'Connor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1886.

"HAMLET'S NOTE-BOOK" is 'Promus,' and the little essay it gives a title to is a reply to Richard Grant White's destroying criticism on the latter, when it was edited and issued to be the capstone of that monumental folly called the argument for Bacon's authorship of Shakspere. The writer

tries hard to be as severe and to laugh as boisterously as Mr. White. He had withdrawn his answer in deference to the death of the unmannerly critic, but the republication of the cause of offence in a volume of posthumous essays has released him from any bond of courtesy, and he now discharges the thunderbolt. He accuses Mr. White of many things; in particular, that he selected from the list of parallel phrases in 'Promus' and Shakspere those that had least likeness. Why, he loudly asks, did not Mr. White choose such as these?

"Thought is free." Promus, 653.
"Thought is free." Tempest, iii.
"All is not gold that glisters." Promus, 477.
"All that glisters is not gold." Merchant of Venice, ii., 7

One point he certainly makes, to wit: that the quotation from 'Promus' "O the," which Mr. White suggested might be "othe" (oath), is correct, being written "Oye" in the original. He declares Sir Walter Raleigh the author of the Sonnets, and so disposes of the argument from that quarter. Of the "charge" that Bacon was destitute of the poetic faculty he remarks it "is best met by the vast crescent smile it evokes upon the visage of the student of Verulam." The "vast crescent smile," we fancy, transformed its horns into a less amusing facial expression when "the student of Verulam" ran upon the Stratford bust in the following fashion:

"A fat fellow, sturdy, comely, fresh-colored, blobber-cheeked, no neck, a mouth full of tongue, a ten-per-center's forehead, the funniest perky little nose, a length of upper lip which is a deformity, and on it two droll little flat curls of moustache, supplemented by a short point of imperial on the chin."

Shades of Greene and Nash! what an ally did ye lose!

A Memorial of Mary Clemmer. By Edmund Hudson. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1886.

MARY CLEMMER, better known to the newspaper-reading public as Mrs. Ames, and who (as we learn near the end of this volume) was for the last year of her life Mrs. Hudson, is in these pages given to the world by her husband. His object is to proclaim the importance of her public work, and to display the personal charm which endeared her to her friends. The first he endeavors to effect by affirmations which facts too frequently force into the form that "those who stood nearest to her . . . may be pardoned for cherishing the belief that opportunity alone was lacking to have secured for her a higher place in American authorship than she succeeded in attaining." Those to whom she was a stranger may perhaps be pardoned for cherishing the belief that the quality of the work she did was such as unmistakably to indicate an inability to do higher or better work, or to attain any place of distinction "in American authorship."

Mrs. Ames was for sixteen years a newspaper correspondent at Washington; or, as Mr. Hudson phrases it, "she lived a consecrated life." She herself, speaking of earlier work, describes it thus: "I entered into a written contract to write one column per day on any subject I was instructed to write on, for three years in advance; and at the end of that three years I had not for a single day failed of fulfilling my task, which included everything, from book reviews, comments on the Government, and public men and affairs, to a common advertisement paragraph. . . . The final result," she adds, "was not deterioration of style, but a much higher aggregate of forces and of command." This "higher aggregate of command" she placed at the service of the New York *Independent;* and her husband says that "few writers, even of the opposite sex, have been more influential."

In her newspaper correspondence Mrs. Ames indulged in excessive personalities, both concerning herself and others—wrote, as it were, private letters to the public, and "floated" them with what she perhaps called "breeziness," and what Miss Phelps calls "an endless capacity for gilding dull themes with vivacious light." There is a good deal of talk in this book about the "courage" required in "the woman who said her say at the seat of Government"; and Miss Phelps, in a burst of obituary emotion over the "powerful work" of "your great contributor," dwells rapturously on the "superb moral courage" of "this fallen leader." It would be discourteous to put into words the impression made on us by such language and by the whole book. It is more than a hundred years since Mr. Burchell permitted himself, at the conclusion of every sentence, to cry out Fudge!—"an expression which displeased us all, and in some measure damped the rising spirit of the conversation."

The Leading Facts of English History. By D. H. Montgomery. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1886. 12mo, pp. 254.

IT is no small merit in a history of England that one can read page after page without meeting with an unfamiliar proper name, or a date (except in the margin). But it is a merit which an historical composition to be *read* ought to possess, and which Mr. Montgomery has succeeded in securing. Such a plan of historical writing, however, ought to be supplemented with copious tables of genealogy and chronology; and here, too, he has supplied what is needed, in a table of descents and a table of events. As to the first, we must say that the descents would be far more intelligible if put in a tabular form; all that is contained in these eight pages, often in the shape of a long description, could be placed directly before the eye in a series of genealogical tables occupying half the space. There is one map, clear and good, but wholly inadequate for historical purposes; also an index. The statements are generally correct, although not always carefully sifted. On the occasion of Cromwell's turning out the Rump Parliament (p. 125), he is said to have "entered the House at the head of a squad of soldiers, and crying out, 'Sir Henry Vane,' etc." Now, as a fact, he left his soldiers at the door, sat and listened to the debates for a considerable time, and ordered the Parliament out before he called in the troops. The famous words addressed to Sir Henry Vane did not come in until almost the end of the proceedings. Perhaps it does not make much difference, but, if the story is told at all, it might as well be told right. The battle of Edgehill, by the way (p. 121), was fought not in Leicestershire, but in Warwickshire.

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Macquoid, Katherine S. Marjorie; or Wild as a Hawk: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Martin, Elizabeth Gilbert. Whom God Hath Joined: A Novel. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 17, 1886.

The Week.

MR. RANDALL'S disingenuous attack upon civil-service reform, through a rider upon an appropriation bill nullifying the competitive system, resulted on Saturday in the failure which was inevitable, the proposition being ruled out of order. A more honest attack by a Maryland Representative, who moved to strike out the appropriation for the payment of the Civil-Service Commission, also failed ignominiously, the proposition receiving only eighteen votes. The only results of the spoilsmen's raid have been to expose Mr. Randall's perfidy and to strengthen Mr. Cleveland's position.

Mr. Randall's attempt to take the life out of the Civil-Service Law proves to have been an even more glaring violation of personal pledges than appeared upon the surface. Two very interesting points in his record upon this question were brought out during the debate in the House. Mr. Cox of North Carolina recalled the forgotten fact that Mr. Randall was absent from the House at the time the Civil-Service Act was passed in 1883, but was not content to let the matter go without declaring his position, as he might have done. "After sleeping on the subject, he came into the House the next day, and stated that but for a mistake he would have been present and recorded his vote for the measure." Mr. McComas of Maryland recalled another forgotten fact, which places Mr. Randall's present attitude in a still worse light. In 1884, after the Civil-Service Act had been in operation for a year, 150 special pension examiners were required, and provision was made for their payment in an appropriation bill, but without requiring that they should be selected by competitive examination. Mr. Randall thereupon moved and carried a proposition to bring these offices within the scope of the law, saying:

"This proviso here removes these appointments from the civil-service rules. Therefore, to test the sense of the Committee, I move to strike out the proviso. *Let me ask the gentleman if the best way to judge of the capacity of applicants for this service is not by following the rules of the Civil-Service Commission?*"

Fortunately, the Democratic party in the House did not lack a representative who could effectively answer Mr. Randall. Mr. Cox of North Carolina, Chairman of the Committee on Civil-Service Reform, made a most excellent speech on Wednesday week. After remarking that the friends of reform had nothing to fear from the discussion, and declaring that "the reform will go on despite the opposition of grasping politicians," he made this forcible reply to one of the stock pleas against the system:

"Talk about it being aristocratic to appoint men on account of merit instead of political influence! Why, sir, it is the very genius and essence of democracy. It brings the offices within the reach of the people, and says to the tenant of the humblest hamlet, 'Qualify yourself to serve your country, and if you have merit you shall be rewarded without respect to influence or power.' There is in the Treasury Department to-day a chief of a division who but a short while ago was an obscure village boy. He was selected by a competitive examination, entered at the lowest grade, rose by his merit, and was promoted to his present position without extraneous influence or patronage, for, indeed, neither of his Senators had ever heard of him."

Mr. Cox proceeded to speak with the utmost plainness as to the attitude respectively of the Democratic President, who is living up to his pledges, and the Democratic Congressmen, who are violating theirs, as follows:

"My friend from Illinois (Mr. Cannon) said yesterday he believed the present Chief Executive was now the most popular Democrat in this country. I accept the compliment, coming from an opponent, and supplement it with the opinion that he is not only the most popular Democrat, but the most popular man of either party in this country. And why? Because he is recognized as an able, fearless, and honest public servant, a man of the highest integrity and the loftiest purposes; one who, when he gives his pledge to the people, will stand by that pledge, even though he fall in the attempt to fulfil it [applause]; a man who, while coveting popularity, runs not after it, but by worthy acts leaves it to come to him. When a man stands by his integrity, when an official gives to the public his best services, he may make mistakes—all are liable to do that—but the people will make all proper allowances for the errors he may commit. . . . We have an Executive who is endeavoring to faithfully execute a law which we placed upon the statute-book, and the question arises whether we will stand by him or embarrass him in fulfilling his and our own public pledges. If Congress does not stand by him, the people will. ["Good!" "Good!"] Here we breathe a fetid political atmosphere. It is a point at which the offices are distributed. Jealousies and rivalries excite the imagination of the Representatives, and, I fear, stimulate more of a desire to secure the patronage of office than to bestow their thoughts and attention to the preparation and enactment of wholesome legislation for the benefit of the whole people."

Another Democratic Representative, Mr. Findlay of Maryland, came out strongly in favor of civil-service reform on Friday. Such speeches as those of Mr. Findlay and Mr. Cox show that the leaven is working. The discussion is in every way most fortunate. In the first place, it has elicited from prominent Republican Congressmen the confession that Mr. Cleveland is living up to his pledges. "I believe," said Mr. Bayne of Pennsylvania, "the President of the United States is a sincere and honest friend of civil-service reform. I think he is doing his level best to carry out that law." It has extorted from other Republican Congressmen, like Mr. Cannon of Illinois, the admission that Mr. Cleveland has gained popularity with the people by his fidelity. It has shown that more than one Democratic Representative is ready heartily to sustain the President. And finally, it has exposed in the clearest possible way the perfidy of such Democratic politicians as Mr. Randall.

The Republican State Convention in Maine on Wednesday week did what was expected of it—which was simply to record the decisions of the Blaine Machine. These were that a Knight of Labor should be made Chairman, as a sop to the "labor vote"; that the platform should contain a "ringing" plank on the fishery dispute, to capture the "fishermen vote," and a liberal pension plank, to capture the "soldier vote"; that a candidate for Governor should be nominated who had "no record" on the temperance question, and who would therefore be equally satisfactory to the "Republican saloon-keepers," who constitute a not unimportant political element even in Maine, and to the Prohibitionists; and that the nominee should also be a rich man, ready to "come down" liberally both in 1886 and in 1888, with the prospect of recouping through Government contracts after his patron's election to the Presidency. That is the whole story of the selection of Mr. J. R. Bodwell, a wealthy granite contractor, and an excellent type of the contractor in politics, as Republican candidate for Governor in Maine.

The most significant plank of the Maine Republican platform is the plank which is not there. The platform begins with the announcement that "the Republicans of Maine hereby proclaim with confidence the principles to which they adhere, on national and State issues," and proceeds to bid loudly for the "labor vote," the "soldier vote," and sundry other votes. But, although there are seventeen resolutions, the list is scanned in vain for a single word on that most vital of national issues—the silver question. It is thus made conspicuous that "the principles to which the Republicans of Maine adhere" do not include the restriction of coinage. How could they, indeed, when "Maine's favorite son" wants the votes in the next Republican National Convention of all the States and Territories which believe in continued coinage?

Mr. Henry Labouchere, who is not only a most devoted ally of Mr. Gladstone in the home-rule struggle, but also by general admission is the keenest politician on either side, thus writes in a letter published in the *Tribune* of Thursday morning:

"Mr. Blaine would do well to be more careful in his utterances respecting Lord Salisbury and others. The English do not like America's Presidential candidates to lecture English statesmen, of whatever complexion their politics may be. My advice to the Irish in America is to be exceedingly careful just now and to keep as quiet as they possibly can. Gladstone and Parnell have acted in perfect harmony since the meeting of Parliament, and with the Democracy of England and Ireland behind them they will eventually win if they continue to do so, and if they both live for a year or two."

The trouble with Mr. Blaine's utterances is the old one—too little thought and too much "bounce." His only idea in making the speech was to excite British abuse, and in his eagerness to do that he made the mistake of endorsing Chamberlain's plan rather than Gladstone's. Instead of winning the gratitude and support of the Irish vote by this performance, he has, according to Mr. Labouchere, won its disapproval by seriously injuring the home-rule cause. The London correspondent of the *Sun* furnishes corroborative testimony on this point by telegraphing: "Friends of Ireland in America should understand that performances like Mr. Blaine's attack upon Lord Salisbury only serve to strengthen the hands of the enemies of Mr. Gladstone and home rule."

It will be seen, therefore, that the following able tribute of admiration from Mr. Murat Halstead on the success of Mr. Blaine's speech

was premature: "Mr. Blaine's unofficial utterances rattle around the world, while Stephen Grover Cleveland's Presidential observations excite no attention at home or abroad. It is not always the man who is elected who picks up the power and the glory." There is such a thing as too much "rattle." In public, as in private affairs, it is not the man who goes about shaking his fist in everybody's face who has the most successful and happy time of it. In the long run, dignity and sincerity pay the best. We advise Mr. Blaine and all other politicians to let the Irish vote alone for the next few weeks. These are to be momentous weeks for Ireland, and it will be the part of prudence to allow Irishmen to conduct their own battle. There are a plenty of "votes" nearer home to be angled for, among them those of the uneasy Prohibitionists.

The delightful creatures who lurked behind fences and hid in the bushes two weeks ago, watching the house in which a gentleman was passing his honeymoon, and the equally delightful creatures who paid them for doing it, are evidently very sore under the criticisms which their exertions have called forth. They do not like being considered that well-known thing, "a disgrace to journalism." But they must remember what a capacious category "disgrace to journalism" is, what a variety of offenders against decency it shelters, and how comfortable most of the inmates feel. Some of the happiest lives in this city are led by men who "disgrace journalism" seven times a week, not excepting Washington's Birthday and the Fourth of July, and feel none the worse for it. So the honeymoon spies must brush the mud off their clothes and cheer up. Other jobs of the same kind are sure to be forthcoming.

The Governor has done this city a valuable service in vetoing the Shook Excise Bill, which the Republican leaders of the State induced the Legislature to pass for the protection of "Republican saloon-keepers," and to give their party a hold upon a portion of the rum vote. The reasons which the Governor gives for his action are the same ones which have been advanced repeatedly by the opponents of the measure. He holds that there is no doubt about the intent of the law of 1884, giving the Mayor unrestricted power of appointment, and thinks that there is very little doubt about its constitutionality; if there be any doubt, he holds that the courts and not the Legislature should decide it. He denounces the bill as a "scheme to decapitate certain officials in order temporarily to make room for others"; says it is "mischievous in its tendencies and should never have been passed," and adheres to his former position in favor of allowing the Mayors of cities complete freedom of appointment. Incidentally, he gives his opinion in favor of the legality of the new Excise Board, and advises the members of the old Board, Haughton, Mitchell, and Morris, as "good citizens," to acquiesce and surrender their offices, somewhat brusquely reminding them that if they decline to do this, their board may be quickly put out of existence by the Attorney-General.

Col. George Bliss has been talking very freely with a *Herald* reporter about the inside history of Republican politics in this city, and his observations are interesting as a sort of official confirmation of what the opponents of the Republican organization have repeatedly charged. The Colonel, as everybody knows, was for many years an active member of the organization, and is as high authority as could be found upon the workings of the Machine. He confirms as a fact the statement already made in these columns, that John J. O'Brien received from Jay Gould, on the eve of the Presidential election of 1884, a check for $50,000 or $100,000—he cannot say which. Our information is that $50,000 was raised by the Union League Club, and to this sum Jay Gould added his check for $50,000, and the total of $100,000 was then placed in the hands of O'Brien for the purpose, we have always heretofore understood, of "protecting the poor negro." The Colonel says the "money was paid under some assurance that it was to be used upon Democrats with the concurrence of Mr. Kelly, and a high officer of the police force was a party to the agreement, and claimed to represent Mr. Kelly." He adds that he had Mr. Kelly's personal assurance that he had nothing whatever to do with the matter. "Mr. Gould and every other man who has paid any attention to the subject, has been unable to see where any portion of that money was expended for the benefit of the party," says the Colonel. They have, we are advised, always believed that O'Brien put the whole, or nearly the whole, of it in his pocket.

The date fixed by Col. Bliss for the payment of the money to O'Brien, two days before election, was November 2, 1884. Referring to the Colonel's statement, the *Herald* says editorially: "We take the liberty to add to the facts, that Mr. Blaine and Mr. Jay Gould passed four hours together on the afternoon of that day in conference at the house then occupied by Mr. Stephen B. Elkins in Fifty-eighth Street in this city." It is a curious coincidence that on the following day, Monday, November 3, 1884, the New York *Tribune* published the following significant editorial article:

TRUST THIS CITY!

We have one earnest word for our friends in the interior of this State.

From every quarter comes news that the country will do well—better than has been expected. Their only fear is that the splendid majority they promise will be swamped by an enormous Democratic vote here. We have taken great pains to learn the situation here, and believe we have some understanding of it. Our message to the interior of the State is this:

You can afford to trust this city! It may disappoint—it will certainly not displease you! Come down to the Harlem River with anything like the majority you talk of, and the Republicans of the metropolis will take care of the rest!

What was this exclamatory article but a thinly disguised notification to the party workers in the State at large that the city had been "fixed"?

The Third Avenue strike has had one result which is of great importance to all patrons of horse-cars in this city. It has transferred the discipline of drivers and conductors from an irresponsible Executive Committee of the Empire Protective Association to the responsible employers of the men. It will seem in future times incredible—indeed, it already almost seems so—and yet it is a fact that three months ago no street-car company in New York or Brooklyn possessed sufficient control over its employees to be able to enforce the most simple rules of good conduct. The Empire Protective Association actually claimed the right to sit in judgment upon the question whether a man who had been insolent or who had got drunk should be discharged, with the threat of "tying up" the road if the Superintendent persisted in dismissing him against the Executive Committee's verdict. Just before the Third Avenue strike occurred, an official of that line was riding on one of its cars when the driver, wanting a drink, coolly stopped his car before a saloon, went in and got it, and, when the official remonstrated, the driver replied that he was not responsible to him, but only to the Empire Protective Association. Everybody who has occasion to patronize this line must have remarked the great difference in the deportment of the new drivers and conductors toward the public since men have been employed who recognize that they owe their first duty to their employers. The other lines are now following the example of the Third Avenue in resuming control over their men, and such notices as they are now posting, that "your remaining in our service depends on your faithfulness and your honesty," and that "insubordination and insolence will not be tolerated," assure the return of common sense to the management of the street-car business throughout the city.

Mr. John Wanamaker's advertisements are in some respects the best things to be found in the Philadelphia papers. One in the *Press* of Thursday is amusing in the incongruity between its plain free-trade talk and the ultra-protection editorial essays of the same paper Here is a little of it:

We are often asked why we go 3,000 miles for things we can get at home.

The shortest answer is, We don't.

There's a heap of meaning in that little word, "thing."

American collars and cuffs not quite so good as these we tell of now and then as coming from over the sea, we could get for 50 per cent. more money.

American collars and cuffs are made in Troy. . . . The skill of the country is gathered there. That skill controls the country.

There's a keener skill abroad, or better organization, or better facilities. Better collars and cuffs for the money.

We bring these better collars and cuffs and put them right by the side of the best American. Which will you buy?

The question is answered. You are thinking of money. The money is yours. Is it wholesome to bolster Troy at a cost of a third of your money? Is it worth your while? Will you do it? We are not such ninnies as to seriously ask you.

That's the way you reason as buyers. That's the way we reason as merchants.

Etc., etc. The *Press* might almost have qualms of conscience about printing such free-trade arguments, even for pay.

A flood of light is cast upon the workings of prohibition in Kansas by the following letter, which was recently received by a student of Michigan University, from the proprietors of a drug-store in a Kansas town, to whom he had applied for a position as prescription clerk. We print the letter exactly as it was written, except for the suppression of

the names, and no comment could possibly add to its force:

——— Kans., June 3, 1886.

MR. ———— —, ———.

DEAR SIR yours Recd in Reply i will Give you a Brief Discription of our Buisness Perhaps you understand the nature of a Drug Store in kansas we Do Some liquor Buisnes in a Back Room By the Drink our Pesscription trade Runs from two to three thousand Pr year Some Clerks objects to the Back Room trade I Give you the facts in the case So that you will not be Disappointed your Bord By the week will cost you from $3.50 to $5.00 a week now if you except this Position answer By telegraph at once as I kneed a clerk very Bad & must have one as Soon as Possiable. yours truly ——— & Co.

The misfortunes of Mr. Cyrus W. Field seem to have no end. He sailed for Europe last week, a happy man, having in his pocket, as he thought, a complete "vindication" to show to Canon Farrar, in the shape of the report of the Committee of the Massachusetts Legislature declaring that nobody was to blame in that matter of the bonds, that, in other words, the Governor was right in suspecting Mr. Field and refusing to sell him the bonds, and Mr. Field was right in accusing the Governor and Council of jobbery. It was, of course, an absurd report, very like the judgment in the Dilke-Crawford divorce case, that Mrs. Crawford had committed adultery with Dilke, but that Dilke had not, so far as the court knew, committed adultery with anybody. But then Canon Farrar is not learned about bonds or railroads, and the report would have done well enough for him, had it been accepted. But now comes the Legislature, and, recognizing its absurdity, refuses to accept it, and not only this, but by a vote of 109 to 82 passes a resolution giving Mr. Field "leave to withdraw." This is taking away the vindication from him in mid-ocean, and landing him on foreign soil a still suspected man.

This is not all. Some of the speakers were not nice to Mr. Field in the debate. Mr. Field's main point in his defence against the charge that he intended to foreclose the mortgage and wreck the stockholders, if he got the bonds, was that he had so much of the stock himself that such a transaction would have been against his interest. But Mr. Wharton of Boston showed that his stock was only worth $108,000 at the market price, which, added to $30,000 which he subscribed for the preferred stock, made his whole stock interest only $138,000, a mere bagatelle for him to pay for what he sought—the possession of the road. But in any view a decision that both he and the Governor were right in the affair was ridiculous. The stories so freely circulated that Mr. Field "squared" the Committee, and that Mr. Blaine wrote letters to the Republican members urging them "to let up" on a man who had contributed and would contribute so liberally to the Republican campaign fund, we dismiss without examination. They may or may not be true.

The statements made by Mr. Parnell and Mr. Justin McCarthy agree upon two points: first, that the Earl disclaimed anything like a treaty or bargain; second, that he was willing as one member of the Conservative Government to favor a large measure of home rule. How much home rule he was willing to agree to, is the only essential matter in dispute. When we recall the political conditions prevailing at the time—the close alliance between the Parnellites and the Conservatives, and the rattling Irish demonstrations of Lord Randolph Churchill—there is the strongest reason to believe that, if there is any coloring put upon the unreported conversation between Mr. Parnell and the Earl, it is not on Mr. Parnell's side. In short, the circumstances of the time would have warranted the Earl in taking the position which Mr. Parnell says he did take.

Everything seems to be ready now for the approaching contest in England. The elections will probably be held within a month, but if Mr. Gladstone is victorious, Parliament will not meet until the fall. If, on the other hand, he is defeated, it will meet at once to receive his surrender of power and prepare for the confusion which must follow. Mr. Gladstone's address to the electors of Midlothian has the simple persuasiveness which marks all his written papers, and which makes them in some degree rhetorically superior to his speeches. The condensation and directness which documents of this kind call for seem to have the effect of increasing the force and point of his utterances. It would hardly be possible to state more compactly than he has done in this address the issues on which the electors have to pass. He shows that they must decide between home rule and coercion, and not between home rule and Chamberlain's plan, or Trevelyan's plan, or any other man's plan—first, because the Irish will not accept anything but home rule as a settlement, and, secondly, because there is no agreement among the opponents of home rule on any plan in particular. All the Opposition, whether Tories or "Unionists," as the dissenting Liberals call themselves, have to offer is what Mr. Gladstone well describes as "the halting, stumbling, ever-shifting, and ever-vanishing projects, of an intermediate class, which have proceeded from the seceding Liberals." In truth, the only alternative presented to the electors is Mr. Gladstone's plan or Lord Salisbury's plan, and Lord Salisbury's plan is coercion for twenty years, after which Parliament would again consider what would be best for the Irish. It is true, he does not call it "coercion." That word has lately become so odious that both the Tories and the Unionists refrain from using it, and have substituted for it the phrase "firm government," which means, of course, just the same thing—that is, the free use of summary processes in the administration of justice, and increased restrictions on personal liberty through police regulations, and, in a general way, finding out what the Irish do not like and doing that vigorously.

Mr. Gladstone also makes good use of the fact, which has occupied so prominent a place in English history during the last eighty years, that the Union has failed; that after having been brought about by a mixture of force and fraud, it has never become anything more than what it was in the beginning—a paper or legislative union. The Tory and Unionist way of accounting for this failure is that the Irish are a peculiar people, who would not be content under any form of government. This is an old-fashioned explanation, which used to do good service early in the century in accounting for political troubles in various parts of the world, but it is especially an explanation which finds acceptance only among gentlemen and philosophers, or what our correspondent Mr. Dicey calls the "thoughtful" classes. Whatever be its value, there is not much use in offering it to democratic constituencies. One of the foremost articles in the democratic creed is that for long, persistent, and deep-seated discontent on the part of a large community which does not manage its own affairs, the Government is to blame. It must be conceded, too, that the thoughtful people have made so many mistakes in their diagnoses that they are worsted almost before they take the field. The Irish may prove unfit for self-government, but the English Radicals will not believe it on à-priori grounds. They will only accept it as the result of an actual experiment.

The particulars of the Parliamentary election in Italy abound in interesting features, although the general result, the decisive victory of the Depretis Cabinet, is far from being a surprise, except to heated Opposition partisans. The supporters and allies of the Ministry were overwhelmingly successful in Piedmont, Venetia, Liguria, the Romagna, the Marches, Tuscany, Umbria, and Latium—that is, in almost all the northern and central provinces of the kingdom; the Opposition, embracing Progressive-Liberals, Dissidents of the Centre, Radicals and Socialists, was moderately victorious in South Italy, and more decidedly so in Lombardy. In the islands of Sicily and Sardinia the parties were very nearly equally balanced. The result in South Italy is ascribed in great part to the indefatigable agitation—more striking by its aggressiveness and volubility than by consistency—of the ex-Minister Nicotera, one of the "Pentarchs"; and the electoral campaign there was not without a sectional character. Nicotera himself was elected by three constituencies—at Salerno, Lecce, and Reggio di Calabria—a distinction which fell to the lot of no other candidate. Of the other Pentarchs—Cairoli, Crispi, Zanardelli, and Baccarini, all of whom were elected—only Cairoli carried two seats, including one at the capital, in which the Opposition developed unexpected strength. Nicotera's Conservative co-worker, Rocco de Zerbi, was also successful in two contests, and so were, among others, the Radicals Cavallotti and Bovio, and the notorious and condemned Anarchist Cipriani, who was elected by large majorities at Forli and Ravenna. The equally notorious Coccapieller was also returned, but the fugitive Sbarbaro's candidacy proved a failure. Among the most noted successful supporters of Depretis, from both the Liberal and Moderate ranks, are Minghetti, Mancini, and Bonghi. The Clericals, following directions from the Vatican, abstained from voting. Depretis himself and his "transformism" were the chief objects of attack during the contest, but the Government's foreign and colonial policy was also fiercely dissected. The disastrous end of Porro's exploring expedition was, among other deliquencies, imputed to the Cabinet's bungling in African affairs. Whether the triumph of the Cabinet is now to be followed by a thorough recasting of parties, remains to be seen.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 9, to TUESDAY, June 15, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN a speech on the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation Bill, in the House of Representatives on Wednesday, Mr. Compton (Dem., Md.) attacked the Civil-Service Law as unconstitutional. He said it was an anti-democratic and anti-republican usurpation of the people's rights. He was against the law as it stood, radically and irreconcilably. Mr. Hitt (Rep., Ill.) commented on what he termed the extraordinary provision (Randall's amendment) which had been forced upon an appropriation bill to nullify the Civil- Service Law. If it were not ruled out on a point of order, he hoped that the House, representing the country and the advanced thought of the day, would defeat it with a square vote. The law had been tried; it was no longer a speculation; and it had, upon the most thorough trial, been found to be conducive to the efficiency, honesty, and purity of the civil service. Mr. Bayne (Rep., Pa.) protested against the provision, and called attention to the fact that the change proposed to be made could be made by the President. To put this proposition in the bill was to vote a want of confidence in the President and his Cabinet. He believed that the President was doing his level best to carry out civil-service reform, and that most if not all of his Cabinet were endeavoring in good faith to execute the law. The only gentlemen who were complaining of the civil-service rules were the members of the "kitchen Cabinet"—who they were, he did not know.

Mr. Bayne (Rep., Pa.) brought on a contest over the civil-service rider to the Appropriation Bill on Friday, by moving to add to it the item appropriating the President's salary. He spoke briefly against the spirit of his amendment, but insisted that if the proviso was going into the bill at all, it ought to be applied directly to the President's salary. After Mr. Townshend (Dem., Ind.) had made the point of order against the amendment that it was new legislation, Mr. Findlay (Dem.) made the amendment the text of a strong speech in favor of civil-service reform. He denounced this covert attack on it, did not spare his Democratic associates, and, in illustration of the use that would be made of a full list of eligibles, said the recent Baltimore Postmaster (Veazey) had in some manner obtained a full list, and the result was that he discharged every man in the office and filled his place with a Democrat. The amendment was ruled out on the point of order. The discussion of the rider was continued vigorously on Saturday in Committee of the Whole, Mr. Reed (Rep. Me.) mercilessly ridiculing the division in the Democratic party on the subject of reform. Finally Mr. Blount (Dem., Ga.), Chairman of the Committee of the Whole, ruled out the "rider." He held that under the rules it is not competent for the Committee on Appropriations to consider the question of civil-service reform; that jurisdiction of that subject belongs to the Civil-Service Committee, and that the proposition changes existing law.

The events of the debate seem to make it clear that, while there is very determined opposition to the reformed civil-service system in the rank and file of both parties, and while there are a few leaders in both parties who have the courage to assert their convictions, a majority vote can be relied upon, either through a sincere desire for the reform, or from fear of openly defying public opinion, to prevent the passage of any act which, upon its face, is intended to thwart or to destroy the new civil-service system.

The First Comptroller of the Treasury has decided that the word "office," in the first clause of rule 19 of the Civil-Service Commission, applies to the head of a bureau as well as to the head of a department; that the head of a bureau is the "head of an office" also; that when the head of a department believes that the public service will be promoted thereby, he can appoint a confidential clerk for the head of a bureau in his department without requiring him to undergo the civil-service examination, and the appointee can receive the pay of any clerk in the classified service, provided there is a vacancy in any grade for which an appropriation has been made.

The Senate on Thursday, by a vote of 8 yeas to 32 nays, refused to take up the resolution providing for open executive sessions. In the House the Chairman of the Committee of the Whole ruled out Mr. Holman's items of the Appropriation Bill, cutting down salaries fixed by law, as being new legislation.

Senator Beck had remarkable success on Thursday with his bill which forbids Congressmen from acting as attorneys for land-grant corporations. The bill was passed without a reference to a committee—37 to 11.

As agreed upon in the House Committee, the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill appropriates $21,053,822. The estimates aggregated $33,554,600. The appropriation for the present year was $26,205,747.

Mr. Randall has informed the President that he thinks Congress can adjourn early in July. The President expressed a desire that it should do so. It can be stated upon authority that after the Legislative and Naval Appropriation Bills have been passed, Mr. Morrison will call up his Tariff Bill.

The crop report of the Department of Agriculture makes the area of spring wheat nearly the same as last year, about twelve million acres.

Returns from every county in Oregon but two elect Pennoyer (Dem.) for Governor by 1,800 majority. The Republicans have elected beyond doubt the Congressman, Superintendent of Public Instruction, and State Printer. The Democrats have elected beyond doubt the Governor and Treasurer. In Portland, Senator Mitchell's law partner, M. Dewint, was put up for County Judge, and, in the face of 1,500 Republican majority, was defeated by 100. The Prohibition vote was about 2,000.

The Republicans of Maine on Wednesday nominated J. R. Bodwell for Governor. He worked on a farm in early life, then learned the shoemaker's trade, and later became very largely interested in granite quarries.

The Ohio Democratic State Convention will meet at Toledo on August 18.

When the Field report was reached in the Massachusetts House on Tuesday forenoon, one of the Republican leaders moved to substitute this: "Resolved, That Cyrus W. Field and the others, petitioners in the matter of the sale of certain bonds of the New York and New England Railroad, have leave to withdraw." By a vote of 109 to 82 the House accepted this resolution. The Democrats voted solidly for the Committee's report, and were joined by some Republicans.

Governor Hill has vetoed the bill putting the power of appointing Excise Commissioners in the hands of the President of the Board of Aldermen of this city. He has also vetoed the bill granting to this city the right to elect Aldermen on a general ticket. The bill also provided for spring elections and cumulative voting.

The Chicago *Times* openly charges that the ordinance allowing the North Chicago City Railway to change its lines to the cable system was passed through the City Council by means of bribes aggregating $127,000.

The Rev. Dr. Henry R. Wilson of the Presbyterian Church died on June 8 at Elizabeth, N. J. He was born in Bellefonte, Penn., June 10, 1808, and was graduated from Jefferson College in 1828. In 1876 he was made Corresponding Secretary of the Church Extension Board in this city, and held this position till his death.

Mrs. Erminie A. Smith died on Wednesday in Jersey City at the age of forty-eight. In 1876 she organized the Jersey City Æsthetic Society, composed of ladies, and was made its President. Mrs. Smith in 1880 was engaged by the Smithsonian Institution to investigate the folk-lore of the Iroquois Indians, and she joined their tribe, receiving an Indian name. At the time of her death she was engaged in preparing a dictionary of the Iroquois language.

The writer, Robert Barry Coffin, whose nom de plume was "Barry Gray," died at Fordham, N. Y., on Thursday, aged sixty years. He was born at Hudson, in this State. Besides a good many poems, he wrote: 'My Married Life at Hillside,' 'Matrimonial Infelicities,' 'Out of Town,' 'Cakes and Ale at Woodbine,' and 'Castles in the Air.' He was a valued contributor to the *Home Journal* when it was edited by N. P. Willis.

The Rev. Dr. Samuel K. Lothrop, for nearly forty years pastor of the historic Brattle Square Church, Boston, and during his active career one of the most prominent of Boston's Unitarian clergymen, died on Saturday after a brief illness of pneumonia. Born in 1804 in Utica, he had reached the age of eighty-two. He was graduated from Harvard when twenty-one years old.

David Van Nostrand, the well-known publisher of military and scientific works, died in this city on Monday, aged seventy-five.

FOREIGN.

Queen Victoria telegraphed to Mr. Gladstone on Wednesday afternoon announcing her consent to a dissolution. The Queen had previously asked Lord Hartington whether he was willing to form a Ministry. Lord Hartington, in reply, advised that Parliament be dissolved. The Liberal clubs have split, like the party. The Reform and Devonshire Clubs support the dissidents. The members of the National Liberal Club are Gladstonians, and Mr. Schnadhorst has his headquarters at that club. Mr. Schnadhorst declares that not a single Liberal association has swerved from its allegiance to Mr. Gladstone. In the House of Commons on Thursday the Queen's consent to a dissolution was formally announced.

In the House of Lords on Thursday afternoon the Earl of Carnarvon made a statement respecting Mr. Parnell's charge last Monday, that the Conservative party purchased Irish support in the last elections by a promise made through a Cabinet Minister that they would in return introduce a home-rule bill which, in addition to other features, would confer on Ireland the right to control her own tariff policy. Lord Carnarvon said that when he was Lord Lieutenant of Ireland under the Marquis of Salisbury's Government he received from Mr. Parnell a request to be allowed an interview. "As Mr. Parnell was the elected head of the Irish party," continued the Earl, "I acted on my personal responsibility, and conversed with him. The conversation was private; I never communicated it to any member of the Cabinet. Mr. Parnell and I left the room as free as we had entered it. I desire to repudiate the statement that has been printed and circulated, that I acted on that occasion in the capacity of a member of the Government." Speaking of the present Government's Irish bills, Lord Carnarvon said he objected to them in many points, although he should be perfectly willing to see introduced some system by which the Irish people, in a modified way and without being disconnected from the Imperial Parliament, could conduct their own affairs.

Mr. Parnell has written a letter in which he says: "I positively deny that I sought the interview with Earl Carnarvon. I also differ with the Earl as to two conditions upon which he alleges was based the interview, namely, that he was acting entirely on his own responsibility, and that he declined to hear or say one word to the detriment of the Union. Earl

Carnarvon did not lay down any conditions previously. I admit that there was foundation for the third condition mentioned—that is, that he hoped it was understood that he was not engaged in making any treaty or bargain. Replying to an inquiry in regard to the proposal to establish a central legislature, founded upon county boards, I said that I did not think Ireland would accept that as a settlement; that the central body ought to be a Parliament in name and in fact, having power to deal with the local government of counties. Earl Carnarvon stated that this was his own view, adding greatly to the weight of Irish opinions. He also suggested basing the Parliament at Dublin upon the colonial model. I remarked that the protection of certain Irish industries from English and foreign competition would be absolutely necessary. The Earl replied: 'I entirely agree with you, but what a row there will be in England.' I then left, believing that we were in complete accord upon the main outlines of a plan for the settlement of the question of the Government of Ireland. I have reason to believe that the Earl impressed his views upon the Cabinet, and that many of his colleagues shared his views; also that the Earl resigned the Lord-Lieutenancy of Ireland because we did not give the Conservatives a majority at the polls." Mr. Justin McCarthy, who brought about the interview, has furnished for publication a letter which in the main supports Mr. Parnell's declaration.

The Orangemen carried on a serious rioting in Belfast on Wednesday, wrecking 100 houses. The police arrested twenty-five of them. Rioting was renewed on Wednesday evening, and the Riot Act was again read. The mob of Orangemen increased in size and began throwing stones at the police. The latter fired, killing four persons. The mob returned the fire, and a brisk fusillade was kept up for twenty minutes. The mob drove a force of 150 policemen into the barracks, and then attacked the buildings, firing revolvers and throwing stones at the doors and windows. The police fired, killing eight persons and wounding several scores. Several Protestant clergymen tried to disperse the mob, but their efforts were unavailing.

The city was comparatively quiet on Thursday forenoon. Seven hundred extra policemen were in town, the total force being 1,300. The rioting was renewed on Thursday night. An infuriated mob held possession of the streets and wrecked and pillaged the taverns. The police were compelled to fire buckshot into the mob. Many of the police were injured by stones. Eventually the troops cleared the streets. In a recent speech Mr. Herbert Gladstone attributed the Belfast riots to Lord Randolph Churchill's violent speeches.

A serious riot occurred in Sligo on Saturday night. The rioting was begun by Catholics, who were angry because somebody had destroyed the rails surrounding the Bishop's palace. They gathered in thousands and attacked houses of Protestants and molested and hooted many persons. The Orangemen made no attempt to retaliate. The Riot Act was read and the soldiers were ordered to clear the streets with their bayonets. A general stampede ensued, during which sixteen rioters were arrested.

Mr. Gladstone has issued an address to the electors of Midlothian in which he says: "There are two clear, positive, and intelligible plans before the world. There is the plan of the Government and there is the plan of Lord Salisbury. Our plan is that Ireland should, under well-considered conditions, transact her own affairs. His plan is to ask Parliament to renew repressive laws and enforce them resolutely for twenty years, by the end of which time he assures us Ireland will be fit to accept any government in the way of a local government, on the repeal of the coercion laws, you may wish to give her. I leave this Tory project to speak for itself in its unadorned simplicity, and I turn to the proposed policy of the Government. Our opponents, gentlemen, whether Tories or seceders, have assumed the name of Unionists. I deny them the title to it. In intention, indeed, we are all unionists alike, but the union they refuse to modify is in its present shape a paper union, obtained by force and fraud, and never sanctioned or accepted by the Irish nation. They are not unionists, but paper unionists. True union is to be tested by the sentiments of the human beings united. Tried by this criterion, we have less union between Great Britain and Ireland now than we had under the settlement of 1782. . . . Among the benefits, gentlemen, I anticipate from your acceptance of our policy are these: The consolidation of the united empire and a great addition to its strength; the stoppage of the heavy, constant, and demoralizing waste of the public treasure; the abatement and gradual extinction of ignoble feuds in Ireland, and that development of her resources which experience shows to be a natural consequence of free and orderly government; the redemption of the honor of Great Britain from the stigma fastened upon her almost from time immemorial in respect to Ireland, by the judgment of the whole civilized world; and, lastly, the restoration of Parliament to its dignity and efficiency, and the regular progress of the business of the country. Well, gentlemen, the first question I now put to you is, How shall Ireland be governed? There is another question behind it and involved in it. How are England and Scotland to be governed? You know how, for the last six years especially, the affairs of England and Scotland have been impeded and your Imperial Parliament discredited and disabled. All this happened while the Nationalists were but a small minority of the Irish members, without support from so much as a handful of members not Irish. Now they approach ninety, and are entitled to say: 'We are speaking the views of the Irish nation.' It is impossible to deal with this subject by half measures. They are strong in their numbers, strong in British support, which brought 313 members to vote for their country; strongest of all in the sense of being right. But, gentlemen, we have done our part; the rest remains for you. Electors of the country, may you be enabled to see through and cast away all delusions, refuse evil, and choose good."

Mr. Chamberlain issued an electoral manifesto on Friday evening. It declares that the Government's Irish proposals have been condemned in advance by every Liberal statesman of the country. Mr. Chamberlain dwells upon the fact that the Government has made no attempt to deal with matters which Mr. Gladstone's election manifesto declared were ripe for legislation. "The Government," Mr. Chamberlain continues, "came into office upon a resolution that immediate legislation should be enacted for the benefit of agricultural laborers, but it has not tried to fulfil its pledge; and Parliament is to be dismissed because a majority of the English and Scotch members refuse to accept proposals which are not supported by any section of the House of Commons, outside of the Government and those Irish members whom Mr. Gladstone recently described as marching through rapine to the disintegration of the empire." Sir Charles Dilke has also issued a manifesto supporting Irish home rule, but disagreeing with some details of Mr. Gladstone's scheme.

Queen Victoria has offered the Comte de Paris, during his exile from France under the terms of the Expulsion Bill, the use of Claremont Castle, where Louis Philippe found a home and where he died. The Count has declined the Queen's offer, on the ground that he does not intend to reside in England permanently.

The French Chamber of Deputies on Friday resolved to consider the Committee's clauses enacting the immediate expulsion of all the princes. The Chamber subsequently rejected the first clause of the Committee's bill, enacting a general expulsion. The vote was 314 to 220. An amendment was adopted, by a vote of 315 to 232, making the expulsion of the chief pretenders compulsory, and all others optional with the Government. Clauses 2 and 3 and after that the whole bill were passed. The Government is empowered to expel by decree the princes not affected by clause 1, provide penalties of two to five years' imprisonment if they return to France, and disfranchise the princes remaining in French territory.

Dieudonné Alexandre Paul Boiteau, the French author whose *nom de guerre* is "Boiteau d'Ambly," is dead at the age of fifty-seven. Among his works are 'The Adventures of Baron Trenck,' 'Errors of the Critics of Béranger,' and 'The State of France Before 1789.' He was editor of the posthumous works of Béranger, and a contributor to many French periodicals.

The physicians appointed to examine the mental condition of King Ludwig of Bavaria reported that his malady incapacitated him from governing properly. In consequence of this Prince Luitpold, uncle to the King, assumed the Regency, and summoned the Diet.

Ludwig refused for a time to admit the Ministers who came to inform him of his downfall, but finally consented to go to Berg Castle, on Lake Starnberg, a charming white-turreted castle close to the water's edge. The scenes along the route on Sunday were very affecting. The peasants knelt in the roadways weeping, and the ex-King responded mournfully. On Sunday evening the King started out for a walk in the park at Berg Castle accompanied by Dr. Gudden. Their prolonged absence caused anxiety at the castle. The park and the shores of Lake Starnberg were searched. The bodies of the King and Dr. Gudden were found in the water. It is supposed that the physician endeavored to save the King when the latter jumped into the water. Marks on the physician's body show that there was a struggle between them. King Ludwig II. was born August 25, 1845, and succeeded to the Bavarian throne in 1864. He has been eccentric for many years, lavishing his money on palaces and other luxuries. He was the friend and patron of Wagner, and enabled the composer to present his works with magnificence at Bayreuth.

At ten o'clock on Monday morning the generals of the Bavarian Army met and took the oath of allegiance to King Ludwig's brother Otto, who at once assumes the title of King under the name of Otto I. He is three years younger than Ludwig. Otto, however, will be simply nominal King, as he is mentally incapable of governing, and Prince Luitpold, his uncle, will remain Regent. The generals of the army have taken the oath of allegiance to Prince Luitpold as Regent.

The death at Freiburg is announced of Prof. Friedrich Michelis, a distinguished clerical leader of the Old Catholic movement in Germany. He was seventy-one years of age.

Prince Alexander in person opened the Bulgarian-Rumelian Assembly. He thanked the nation for rising as one man in defence of the fatherland. They had sacrificed everything to save their honor, their liberty, and the integrity of their territory. He concluded by asking the Assembly to vote the necessary money to defray the remaining unpaid expenses of the war.

It is asserted at St. Petersburg that the Shah of Persia has granted Mr. F. S. Winston, ex-United States Minister to Persia, concessions for the construction of railways between Teheran, the capital of Persia, and Bushire and Meshed, near the Afghan frontier, with such branches as may be found necessary for the development of business on the main lines.

Juarez Selman has been elected President of the Argentine Republic.

The new city of Vancouver, B. C., terminus of the Canada Pacific Railway, was burned on Sunday afternoon. The fire originated in the clearings. Hardly a house in the place remains, and several thousand people are homeless. Loss, $1,000,000.

THE WORK OF THE CONGRESSIONAL COMMISSION ON THE SURVEYS.

To appreciate correctly the important report submitted to the Senate by Senator Allison from the Commission on the Government Surveys, we must glance at the history of the investigation. In two of his annual reports the expediency of leaving the Coast Survey under the Treasury Department was vigorously contested by Secretary Chandler, who brought an imposing array of arguments to show that it properly belonged to the Navy Department, and ought to be transferred thither without delay. By an unfortunate coincidence this attack came at the very time when the Superintendent of the Survey began to show such marks of inefficiency that a change of management seemed imperative. As the Committee on Appropriations had already lost confidence in him, they were ready to welcome such a change as that suggested by the Secretary of the Navy.

Moved by these considerations, the sub-committee of the Appropriation Committee who had charge of the subject drafted a measure practically abolishing the present Coast Survey office; turning its land work over to the Geological Survey, and its coast and hydrographic work to the Secretary of the Navy. The full Committee deemed so sweeping a measure hasty and premature. The matter was finally compromised by referring the organization and management of the Coast Survey, the Geological Survey, the Hydrographic Office of the Navy Department, and the Signal Service to a Congressional Commission, to be composed of three Senators and three Representatives. The Geological Survey and Hydrographic Office were included, not because the Committee deemed any investigation of their conduct necessary, but because, according to the plan which it was supposed the Commission might favor, they would become the receivers of the Coast Survey, which was intended to become defunct. The addition of the Signal Service was an entirely separate matter, arising from the prevailing dissatisfaction with its military management.

The Commission have listened to arguments and evidence on the subject of their work for two years. The opinion of leading experts was sought. Not only the chiefs and employees of the bureaus, but the National Academy of Sciences, as an independent, impartial adviser, was asked for its opinions. So far as the surveys were concerned, the main question was that of the division, and hence of the practical abolition, of the Coast Survey. Although naval officers of ability and distinction presented cogent arguments in favor of transferring the hydrographic work to the Navy Department, yet they failed to show with force and clearness such a prospect for improved management as was necessary to make a strong impression on their hearers. Their position was weakened, as well as strengthened, by the fact that the work under consideration was already done by them; the only change they proposed being that they should do it under the direction of the Navy Department instead of that of the Treasury Department. On the question whether the former department would superintend it more effectively and economically, their position was defensive rather than aggressive. This was a fatal weakness in such a case. On the side of the Geological Survey no attempt was made to favor the proposed measure; the general position assumed by Professor Powell being that the two organizations were doing different kinds of work, and had better be kept separate. That the Coast Survey itself, with its wide reputation, the high prestige given by the great names of its former superintendents, its efficient organization, and its excellent method of work, should make a strong argument against its own death, is a matter of course. It is therefore not surprising to find that the majority of the Commission deem the proposed policy unadvisable.

The really surprising feature of the report is that the Commission find no serious wrong in the conduct of either survey that can be remedied by legislation. All the objections against the administrative system of the two works are considered in detail, and the conclusion in each case is that they are either unfounded, or such as the executive authority alone can obviate. The Commission do not find that the work would be done any better under the Navy Department than under the Treasury Department, and lay stress upon the fact that only a small portion of it comes within the legitimate duties of a naval officer. They do not find that the Coast Survey and the Geological Survey are duplicating each other's work, and do not see that anything would be gained by placing them under one department. They are not in favor of the formation of a department of science, which was recommended provisionally by the National Academy of Sciences as a measure well calculated to unify the work of the surveys as well as the other scientific work of the Government. They even disapprove of the formation of the commission of experts which was suggested by the Academy as an appropriate authority to direct the general policy of the surveys, and thus to operate as a check upon the individual wills of the directors. They decline to enter upon the disputed question of a change in the method of work, excusing themselves on the ground that it is scientific in character, and has the sanction of more than two generations of experience and criticism. It is very significant that the more fully they investigated the subject, the less legislation they found to recommend. For example, only a month ago it was announced on authority that the members of the Commission were unanimously of the opinion that the power exercised by the director of the Geological Survey should be restricted by proper legislation, though it was admitted they were not agreed upon the precise form of such legislation. But during the intermediate month four of the members have been led to abandon that view. Nothing more restrictive than a requirement to make specific estimates is now asked for.

If this extreme optimism is justifiable at all, it is so on negative rather than on positive ground. Although the Coast and Geological Surveys are nominally under the direction of heads of departments, yet their whole policy is modelled by the individual will of their immediate heads. The latter are not only under no obligation to consult with any scientific authority, but nobody but the Committee on Appropriations need know what they are doing or what they intend to do. If we ask why the Coast Survey adopted a minute system of topography upon its maps which naval officers declare to be not only very expensive, but worse than useless to the navigator, or if we inquire why the whole direction of the survey was changed by transferring a considerable portion of its work to the interior of the country, we shall historically find no other answer than that the Superintendent deemed, for the time being, such a course advisable, and that Congress sanctioned it by making it the necessary appropriations. So also with the Geological Survey, the annual expenditure of which exceeds half a million of dollars. If we ask who has framed the policy under which all this money is expended, we shall find no other authority actively engaged in the matter than the director himself.

Now, we hold this system to be a crying evil. We fully admit that executive efficiency requires that the directors of such work as we are now considering should be left untrammelled in the execution of their plan. But executive efficiency does not require that they should themselves devise the plan of work. Twenty years ago the question whether the Coast Survey should expend tens of millions of dollars in interior triangulation, ought to have been publicly deliberated upon for months or years by the highest attainable authorities before being decided. To-day the same sort of an authority should decide how the large appropriations for the Geological Survey should be expended. What is most disappointing in the report of the Commission is that the necessity for some regulations governing this subject has been entirely overlooked.

Messrs. Morgan and Herbert submit a minority report, in which they reach conclusions radically different from those of the majority. They find serious faults in the management of both surveys, propose the transfer of the Coast Survey to the Navy Department, the abolition of its interior work, and such restrictions upon the work of the Geological Survey as in the opinion of the director would cripple its usefulness. The objection to this proposed remedy is that it would aggravate rather than cure the evil. What is wanted is a change of ideas rather than of administration, and this will not be gained by removing the work from one department to another.

THE PRESIDENT'S VETO.

THE political theorists of this country have been quite generally carried away by the magic of the late Mr. Bagehot's commentaries upon the English and American constitutions. He was indeed such a master of style and method, and withal so keen an observer, that it is not easy to resist any conclusion about which he has thrown the charm of his manner. But it must be remembered that Mr. Bagehot lived in an aristocratic community, and was intimate with the members of an aristocratic government, and that, however keen his observation of the American Constitution may have been, it could not take the place of personal familiarity. If "Presidential" government had

to do the work of the English Parliament, the weakness which Mr. Bagehot criticised might be a very serious evil. But in the case of the United States there is very little resemblance between the functions of the general Government and those of the English Parliament; and, what is of more consequence, the constitution of government under a democracy requires very different elements from those that prevail in aristocratic constitutions.

For the truth of the matter is, although a natural self-respect prevents our publishing it among foreigners, that nearly the most indispensable requisite in our government is some provision for checkmating demagogues. When a people has reached the self-governing stage, its disorders are apt to become internal. The natural rights of citizens having been secured by the machinery of government, this machinery becomes a convenient means for the accomplishment of other purposes. The government, being popular in name, is considered to be properly employed in the gratification of what are called popular demands. Hence the absolute necessity of all manner of checks and restraints, especially upon legislative action. In many of the States conservative feeling has compelled the adoption of biennial sessions, and constitutional restrictions have been everywhere multiplied. The gathering of the Legislature when it does occur is viewed by a great many persons with apprehension, and its adjournment causes general relief. Indeed, if Congress met only in response to a genuine demand, it is somewhat doubtful if it would meet at all.

Thus it may be that in an aristocratic government such as has hitherto prevailed in England, the veto power as well as other checks are unnecessary or unavailable, while in a democracy they have great value. The veto of the President in the first place calls public attention to a bill which in most cases would be enacted practically in complete secrecy. It is peculiarly damaging to schemes for trading votes, "log-rolling," and other transactions that require private agreements for their success. The pension bills, for example, that President Cleveland is now vetoing, must be dead beyond the possibility of resurrection. They passed because no one called attention to their character, and perhaps, as Congress is constituted, it would have been impossible for members to call attention to their character. But the conspicuous position of the President draws public attention to all his utterances, and where he can adduce any plausible arguments against a measure or a class of measures, he has an immense advantage in the discussion. He may be comparatively powerless when a bill represents the sincere convictions of a majority of the members of Congress, especially when they feel sure of popular approval; both President Johnson and President Hayes failed in their vetoes of such bills. But there is a perennial crop of bad legislation that represents no sincere conviction, and rests only upon private support, and in the repression of such legislation the veto power is most useful.

It is true that in the hands of a weak or corrupt officer this power may be of little service to the public. Such a functionary is not likely to oppose the will of Congress unless under strong stimulus. But even a bad man may be placed in a situation so conspicuous that the inducements to proper action are irresistible. It is impossible for the country to hold individual representatives to a strict responsibility. The very mischief that is complained of by the country may be grateful to a particular district. The President, however, is the representative of the whole country, and his responsibility is to the whole people. However willing he may be to allow jobbery to take its course, he is exposed to a scathing fire of criticism if he is believed to be wilfully closing his eyes to corruption. Even a demagogue may be forced to calculate that he will in some cases lose more by working for his friends than by preventing them from carrying out their schemes.

On the other hand, when the country is so fortunate as to secure a man not only of personal incorruptibility, but also of political conscience, his use of the veto power may give tone to the whole Government. Many Congressmen seem to think that they must vote for any measure that will "please the people"; that is, any measure, good or bad, for which an outcry can be raised. They do not hesitate to confess that they believe measures to be injurious which they nevertheless support because they do not dare to oppose them. This pusillanimity is a very grave evil in a democratic government. It is, in fact, *the* evil of government of that type. The conception of the representative is lost and that of the mere delegate substituted—the servant who dares take no step without special orders from his master. It may be that Congressmen find this abject policy to be, on the whole, for their personal advantage, although it is obvious that they frequently lick the dust to no effect. But the spectacle of a courageous President winning the support and affection of the country by his simple fidelity to the trust that he has assumed, cannot be anything but salutary for legislators.

There is truly something wonderful in the scepticism with which our politicians regard the policy of honesty. They are a keen, sharp class of men, but their vision is strangely limited. The heart of the people longs and faints for upright rulers; there is a fund of loyalty of immeasurable extent ready to be poured out for any one that will prove himself worthy of it. Yet a most deplorable dearth of respectable Presidential candidates exists, and it may very easily happen that the voters at the next election will have to make their choice of evils. Doubtless the politicians will do their best to prevent the renomination of President Cleveland, but every veto strengthens him, because it shows that he is carefully discharging the duties of his trust. There is little danger that he will obstruct any salutary legislation, and there is a growing conviction that he will obstruct whatever jobbery he can discover. The veto power thus administered is really a source of strength to the Government, and not of weakness. By improving the quality of legislation the attachment to the Constitution of all the conservative forces of society is increased, and there is little reason to dread evil results from a personal popularity that rests not on the arts of the demagogue, but upon the commonplace virtues of courage and honesty.

MUGWUMPISM INCREASING.

The general definition of a Mugwump is, we believe, a man who is unable, for one reason or another, to vote his regular party ticket. The regular party men speak of him as a "holier-than-thou man," a "Pharisee," and a "kicker." All these definitions come back to the same point. In other words, the Mugwump is an independent voter. It was the hope of all the regular party men a few months ago that the race of Mugwumps was dying out, and that they would make little trouble in future elections. Recent developments have, however, dispelled this hope, for they have shown that there have probably never been in the country at large so many Mugwumps as there are to-day. They are not confined to a few localities, but are scattered all the way from Maine to Oregon. Some of them are called Prohibitionists, some of them anti-Blaine men, some of them anti-Brayton men, and all of them are animated by the common purpose of supporting for office better men than the regular party candidates.

The first election of the year occurred in Oregon the other day, and the result was a complete victory for the Mugwumps. They were opposed to the Republican candidates for Governor and some other State offices because they were not worthy men. They refused to vote for them, while voting for the Republican candidate for Congress, and they succeeded in defeating the former while electing the latter. All the men elected were the most deserving in the field. The State Government was put in the control of the Democrats for the first time in several years, the Republican plurality of over 2,200 in 1884 being replaced by a Democratic majority of 2,000 this year. "The Oregon Republicans lost," says that devoted Blaine organ, the Philadelphia *Press*, "because the people could not approve of their cause." That is, there were too many Mugwumps. The Portland *Oregonian*, the State organ of the party, put the same thing in a more forcible way when it said that it could not, "consistently with self-respect and with public duty, aid those who, in the name of the Republican party, are 'working politics' solely for selfish ends, through ring and Machine methods."

Coming east to Rhode Island, we find a portentous Mugwump movement there, organized and led by the Republican organ of the State and the only newspaper of commanding influence within its borders, the Providence *Journal*. The movement has within its ranks all the best intelligence and character of the State. There is not the slightest doubt upon this point. The President and Faculty of Brown University; all the leading clergymen of all denominations; all the ablest members of the bar; all the most reputable merchants, and all the most influential and honored manufacturers, are enrolled in it. And what is their movement directed against? Nothing less than the official Republican organization of the State, which has recently forced through the Republican Legislature a most infamous measure, whose chief effect is the election to office of a notorious political corruptionist and confessed defaulter (as Postmaster of Providence) in a sum

exceeding $30,000. Petitions signed by over 3,000 names were sent to the Legislature requesting it to repeal this measure, and the Republican majority contemptuously refused to receive them with ordinary courtesy, and in the face of them declined to reconsider its action. The charge made against the movement is that the men in it are "Mugwumps" and "soreheads," or men who are too good for every-day politics. Yet, as we have intimated, they are the very flower of the State. They are the kind of men who made the Republican party a power in its best days. Many of them were Blaine men under protest in 1884, because they feared to trust the Democratic party. The very act which they are in revolt against now would in all probability never have been committed had they not thus surrendered to their fears two years ago.

Does anybody doubt that there are more Mugwumps in New York, Connecticut, and Massachusetts than there were two years ago? In the latter State what are the indications? Here is the Boston *Journal*, which advertised itself in 1884 as the only Republican morning newspaper in Boston whose conscience was equal to the strain of supporting the national Republican ticket, forced to protest against the conduct of the Massachusetts Republican Legislature for passing a bill for undermining the Civil-Service Reform Law. When the Boston *Journal* becomes "tainted" with Mugwumpism, it is time for the Republican party to get frightened. In New York, Connecticut, and New Jersey the original Mugwumps are not only solid in the faith, but they are reinforced by thousands of Prohibitionists who of themselves are numerous enough to hold the balance of power. The Prohibitionists are against the Republican party for a Mugwumpian reason—namely, that its candidates and conduct do not meet their approbation.

The leading Republican organ of Wisconsin, the Milwaukee *Sentinel*, protested the other day against the renomination of Mr. Blaine, on the express ground that the Independent vote was as hostile to him and men of his kind as ever. It said: "There is unquestionably a large class of voters who will support almost any other prominent Republican, but who will not vote for Mr. Blaine. Two years ago he lost this class of voters, and we have not heard of one among them who would be likely to support him in case of his renomination." The Olean *Times*, a Republican newspaper of this State, which admirably represents the conservative, common-sense views of rural Republican voters, takes a similar position. It says it supported Mr. Blaine in 1884, and will support him again if the "sense and voice of the party shall again concur in his nomination," but adds: "We think it would be a serious and are afraid it would prove a fatal mistake." Among its reasons for this belief the *Times* gives the following:

"Again, it will be said, it has been said, that Mr. Blaine was defeated by the Independent Republican vote, and he would not encounter that element of opposition in another canvass. Why not? We see no indications of their reconciliation to him. On the contrary, we fully believe that in a second candidacy the bolting vote against him would be greatly increased. Many men voted for him in 1884 who would vote for his adversary in 1888. The truth is, that there is in the party a large and influential class of honest and earnest men who, while admitting Mr. Blaine to be an able man, still believe him to be somewhat sordid, and not by any means immaculate. The great majority of these preferred him to his adversary in spite of their scruples, and either voted for him or refused to vote at all. But this is not likely to happen again, and the probability is that that class of people, reinforced by many sympathizers, would vote in solid phalanx against him. We see no promise of recruits, but a rare prospect of desertions in the event of his renomination."

Of course there would be such desertions. Everybody knows that thousands of Republican voters were fairly forced into voting against their will for Mr. Blaine by their distrust of the Democratic party. They honestly believed that the country would be imperilled by the election of Mr. Cleveland. All these know now that they were mistaken, and if the opportunity recurs, they will join the Mugwump ranks. Indeed, nothing has done so much to stimulate Mugwumpism of all kinds as the overthrow of this bugaboo of danger from Democratic rule. If Mr. Blaine and his blind adherents fully realized this truth, we firmly believe he would lose all desire to be again a candidate.

THE EXPULSION OF THE FRENCH PRINCES.

THERE is a good deal of indignation and sorrow felt in Europe, even among good Liberals, over the bill which has passed the French Chamber and is now before the Senate, providing for the peremptory expulsion of the heads of all families which have ever reigned in France, and their direct heirs in the male line under the custom of primogeniture, but allowing the Government to exercise its discretion with regard to other members of these families. The persons at whom the bill is aimed are the Comte de Paris and his son; the Prince Napoleon and his son being probably thrown in merely to give the measure an appearance of fairness. The extreme Radicals have long been clamoring for something of this kind, but what has precipitated it is the marriage of the Comte de Paris's daughter to a son of the King of Portugal. On this occasion the Count gave a large reception, to which the whole diplomatic corps were invited, and President Grévy wrote a letter of congratulation to the King, as if it were a national affair.

But ever since the death of the Comte de Chambord, and the consequent transfer to the younger branch of the Bourbons of whatever claim the elder branch had on the French crown, the Comte de Paris has been an object of increasing suspicion on the part of the Republicans—a suspicion, too, for which, as long as there is a large monarchical party in France, there is absolutely no cure. There is a considerable body of rich and influential people in France who consider the Count entitled by divine right to reign over France and establish such institutions as would to him seem best. There is another and perhaps larger body of rich and influential people who, while thinking nothing of his divine right, nevertheless prefer a monarchical government, and think the heir of French kings is the best person to exercise it. In fact, everything which is called "society" in France—that is, the well-to-do class which takes its pleasure and measures its success and importance in life by dining and picnicking and intermarrying with other well-to-do people—is still monarchical in its tastes, and has a great deal of reverence for a man who can show thirty-six generations of illustrious descent, and whose ancestors for nearly a thousand years were the foremost figures in French history and among the foremost in European history. In fact, there are not many Frenchmen, who know any history at all, whose imagination is not touched by facts like these. On the people, it is true, they have absolutely no hold. Mr. Hamerton, in his charming picture of French country life, 'Around My House,' mentions in illustration of this that when the Comte de Paris passed through the neighborhood there was probably not a peasant in the whole region who knew that he was the heir to the French throne, or anything about him, so completely has the monarchical tradition perished in the country districts. But this does not reassure French politicians. They have been so long accustomed to see the form of the government settled in Paris, and so long accustomed to see it carried on by people "in good society," that the doings and sayings of that class still fill them with anxiety. They are made nervous by the crowds of well-dressed people who accept the Comte de Paris's invitations, by the practice, both among them and among the army officers, of addressing him as "Monseigneur"—the old title which used to be reserved for princes of the blood and bishops—and by the eagerness even of military men to be among his friends or belong to his "set." They cannot believe that all this does not cover intrigues of some sort looking to a restoration, or that, as long as there are so many people ready to suggest a restoration, the Count himself can help thinking about it and seeking it.

They feel, moreover, that as long as the Count is the centre of a circle of this sort, and his movements are watched and chronicled by the press as those of an important personage, with a possible political future, the Republic will never assume in the eyes of the people that air of finality which is in France so necessary to the success of a government. Thus far the Republic has given no more proof of durability than any of the half-dozen governments which since the Revolution have preceded it. That is to say, every one of them has lasted about twenty years, and the Republic has not yet succeeded in lasting as long as that. The consequence of this experience is that every Frenchman looks with more or less certainty to seeing the Government under which he lives overturned; he does not expect it "to last his time"; he thinks he will see the end of it just as his father saw the end of the one which preceded it. Each generation, in fact, thinks the régime it lives under only transitory, and looks for a revolution in its own day.

To conquer this expectation, or live it down, is now the great aim of the Republicans, and they not unnaturally, as it seems to us, seek to remove from French soil every agency which in any considerable degree helps to keep it alive or strengthen it. That the presence of the heir to the throne in Paris, as the head of a large and wealthy circle, is one of

these agencies, nobody can deny. There is no doubt that the Comte de Paris is an accomplished and estimable man, who loves France well, and who would not set on foot any scheme of violence against the existing order of things. But he cannot help being the centre of revolutionary hopes. He cannot help reminding people or suggesting to people that something else than the Republic is possible or even probable. He cannot help, in short, being a Pretender — a worthy and honorable Pretender, we admit, but still a Pretender. Now, why should a republic permit a Pretender to remain on its soil any more than a monarchy? We confess we do not see. No monarchy has ever yet permitted a rival claimant to the throne to live within its dominions and keep on foot a court circle of his own. One of the first things the successful claimant of a crown always does is to expel his rivals, and the rivals go cheerfully and naturally, and wait on foreign soil for something to turn up, or until, as poor Chambord used to say, "God's hour strikes."

This is hard, but it is simply one of the numerous discomforts attendant on the condition of a deposed or disinherited sovereign in our day. France will in many ways lose by the departure of the Orleans family, but their absence will in all probability make the Republican experiment easier, and if so, the Republicans are fairly entitled to ask for it; and on the point whether it is necessary, their judgment is certainly worth more than that of any foreigner.

PASCAL AND HIS 'THOUGHTS.'

PARIS, June 4, 1886.

THE 'Étude sur le Scepticisme de Pascal, considéré dans le livre des *Pensées*,' by M. Édouard Droz, is a new commentary on a book which is still enigmatical in many parts, and which will always be considered one of the greatest works in French literature. The 'Pensées' appeared under this title, 'Thoughts of M. Pascal on Religion and on Some Other Subjects, found after his death among his papers' (Paris: Guillaume Deprez, 1670). This little volume was a mere collection of notes taken by Pascal with a view to a great apologetic work on the Christian religion. The notes and fragments were found in different *cahiers*, without any order or any apparent method. Pascal wrote his 'Thoughts' on little bits of paper whenever they had taken hold of his mind. They seemed at first so informal that his friends doubted whether they could be printed and published. These friends remembered, however, an occasion when Pascal had developed orally the plan and method of his Apology, and they classified the thoughts (those, at least, which did not seem too obscure) as well as they could according to their recollections.

Pascal's work cannot be confounded with the works of the moralists of his time. It is full of maxims, but his object was not merely to strike intellectual medals, if I may so express myself, like Mme. de Sablé or La Rochefoucauld: Pascal clearly felt the influence of the literature of his time, and the form of detached thoughts or maxims was a favorite with his contemporaries. But the 'Reflections, or Moral Sentences and Maxims' of La Rochefoucauld appeared only in 1665, and, therefore, they could not have inspired Pascal, who, besides, had the most original mind, and did not belong to the "imitatores, servum pecus." It seems probable that Mme. de Sablé asked Pascal for some maxims, and that many of the 'Thoughts,' in their terse form, were written for the select company which was assembled at Port-Royal. Some of the 'Thoughts' were found in the portfolios of Vallant, the secretary of Mme. de Sablé.

There is some danger in the excess of conciseness which is characteristic of the form of the "maxims": too much thought is placed in few words, and by this process the "maxim" becomes often a sort of Procrustean bed. But with Pascal we have not much to fear, as his "maxims" are but notes and indications; they are not his object, they are only his means. What was his object? It was, as we have said, to write an Apologia of the Christian religion. M. Cousin made a great sensation in the literary and philosophical world when he undertook to prove that Pascal prepared this Apologia for himself as well as for his contemporaries, and that the secret of the 'Pensées,' or of their apparent inconsistencies, lay in what he called scepticism. M. Faugère rendered a great service when he published the autograph manuscript of Pascal in all its unrevisedness, with even mere portions of phrases and isolated words, Then came M. Havet, who, in a very remarkable work, united, in this collection of notes, what seemed to have a precise sense, and put all the fragments in a convenient and logical order. We must cite also M. Molinier, who gave in 1877–79 a new and more correct edition of the 'Pensées.' M. Molinier, in his preface, treated the question of Pascal's scepticism. This question has not really been solved. Can it ever be? Can we go down in the abyss of any human soul? M. Droz denies the scepticism of Pascal, and will have it that his faith was not tainted by any doubt.

We know that Pascal, at the time when he wrote his 'Pensées,' had entirely given himself to religious ideas; that he always bore on his person an act of faith, a sort of religious confession (which has been called the amulet of Pascal); but we know also that his soul was not always at rest. In a letter to his sister, when he was already a believer, but had not yet felt the effect of grace, he confessed that he felt a great abandonment on the side of God; that he felt no attraction, that he was only drawn by his reason and by his mind, and not by the movement of God. At other times he is full of joy, he has "certainty, joy, peace." M. Droz maintains that Pascal really believed in the miracles of Port-Royal. M. Havet says, also, that the "polemical discussion which arose from the miracle of the Holy-Thorn was the origin of the 'Pensées.'" Mme. Périer says formally that "the joy which the miracle gave him was so great that he was penetrated with it, . . . and it was on this occasion that he showed this extreme desire to work at the refutation of the principal and most false reasonings of the atheist." In the opinion of M. Droz, Pascal was not a sceptic trying to find his way to religion, but an ardent believer, yet a believer who knew sceptics well, and who was trying first to combat them with their own weapons.

"Let us not," he says, "place Pascal among the French moralists between La Rochefoucauld and La Bruyère, and let us well understand their different points of view. The authors of the century study man or men in a series of analyses, having for their only object to collect them in a synthesis. Pascal, on the contrary, is a profoundly religious man, whose faith is entire and cannot be augmented. If he undertakes the study of man, it is only one of his means to a certain end."

M. Scherer, the most profound of our present critics, does not quite agree with M. Droz: "I believe," he says, "that Pascal believes and doubts in turn, but always very seriously; that the boldness and the penetration of his mind show him difficulties which he tries to conquer by reasoning, but which he can sometimes only avoid." The real secret of the 'Pensées' is the secret of the great, profound, and troubled mind of Pascal. That there was in this mind something excessive, cannot be doubted. He was really what must be called a genius; that is to say, he was always superior to the subject he touched, he was a born master of things. As a child he rediscovered the geometry of Euclid. Nothing could enslave him, chain him. Staying in Normandy with his father, an *intendant des tailles*, or receiver of taxes, he amuses himself with making an arithmetical machine. He discovers the properties of the cycloid curve, merely to forget the pain of a toothache. He is at one moment on the verge of the discovery of the differential calculus. His physical discoveries seem to be mere inspirations, like his mathematical discoveries. When he becomes acquainted with Port-Royal, and feels the charm of this admirable society of pure minds, he finds his new friends engaged in a quarrel with the Jesuits. He throws himself boldly in front of the battle, and in a few days writes the first 'Lettre à un Provincial.' In a moment, he shakes to its very foundation the powerful society. But all this was a mere preparation. Whether as a polemist or as a geometer, it seems that Pascal thought only of putting himself in training. He attaches but a slight importance to his discoveries; the only important thing is salvation. How can he reconcile a frivolous, corrupt society with religion? And his religion is not religion made easy, the religion of the world, the religion of the Jesuits and the casuists; it is the religion of Port-Royal—the pure, and austere, and puritanic doctrine of the *solitaires*.

When he began his Apologia, he saw at once that the first duty of the apologist was to be understood, and therefore to understand well his interlocutor. The interlocutor here is man taken in the abstract, or, if you like, human nature, with all its shortcomings, its defects, its ignorance, its limitations. This is why Pascal begins his work by a study or description of man, the most powerful, the most profound that ever has been written. This is why the tone of the 'Pensées' is so pressing, so passionate, so fervent. It is like an eloquent conversation with somebody whom you are anxious to persuade. You address yourself to his heart as well as to his mind—even to his prejudices, to his interests. Some of the arguments of Pascal have been thought very strange, some have even been an occasion of scandal; but those who have accused him of being a sophist, or even an infidel, have not understood his method. He wrote for unbelievers, and he sometimes adopted their language and identified himself with them for a moment. His great object is to carry conviction, to move, to stir the dormant waters of the soul. He acts with the sinner as a father who speaks to a little child. If he deals with a gambler, he offers him a wager. "I will only act with you," he says, "according to your own principles, and I intend to show you by the same way you reason every day on things of the smallest consequence (on your game of cards or the amount of a bet) in what way you ought to reason in this, and what side you ought to take in the solution of this important question of the existence of God." Then comes the argument, which has become famous in the philosophic school under the name of the argument of the wager. "God exists or he does not," says Pascal to his interlocutor. "You must accept one or the other alternative. From the fact that you are a man and are embarked in this life, you must believe one or the other, so as to regulate your life by your decision. Which way will you adopt? Reason, you say, cannot determine you, since in your opinion such questions are above the domain of your reason. Then fol-

low your interest, and see that the stakes are very different. If you admit the existence of God, you run the chance of gaining an infinity of life, infinitely happy; if you do not admit it, you gain merely the free disposition of your terrestrial life. So, the chances being equal, it is more advantageous to bet on the side on which the gain is the greatest."

Many have been scandalized by this argument —M. Havet among others; but it is quite clear that this is merely the play of a mathematical mind, and, if you look at it very seriously, what does the argument mean which is not found in the famous "Initium sapientiæ timor Domini"? The argument of the wager is only a forcible form given to the hope of heaven and the fear of punishment.

We cannot, however, repeat often enough that the 'Pensées' do not constitute a doctrine: they are merely the discussions of a powerful mind with itself, the struggles of a living conscience; and this is what makes them so interesting. If the Apologia had been finished, put in fine order, and pruned of all excrescences of thought and of sentiment, it would not have, in our opinion, the almost dramatic interest of the 'Pensées.' Renan has writen somewhere, in his own paradoxical style, "that the finest thoughts are those which have never been expressed." This is quite true if we mean those dreams of our intellectual life which float before us in the hours of solitude and of isolation. Pascal gives a sort of life to these phantoms; his written 'Thoughts' are the most sincere picture of the troubles of a sensitive soul. He is ironical, he is sublime, he rises and he falls, he doubts and he believes, he is alarmed and he is confident. He is inexorable in his criticism of the metaphysical proofs of the existence of God, he is not less inexorable in his criticism of ordinary morals. He anticipates Kant and his analysis. His good faith is absolute, his logic is terrible, but he has a refuge in faith: he believes, and why does he believe? He has seen in the religion of Christ a revelation of moral beauty which has taken possession of him. He is not convinced by argument, he is drawn by the ideal forces of sentiment. He looks all the time for proofs, and sometimes he seems to think his proofs triumphant; but at other times he is struck by the insufficiency of the best arguments, and reminds us that God must be a hidden God. He talks sometimes as a lawyer, and sometimes as a friend. He is essentially a mystic; he has sinned and he will sin no more, he has been touched by grace and enjoys peace; he feels so sure of himself and of his faith that he can recognize the poverty of all argumentation. His attempt at an Apologia ends in the vanity of all *apologiæ*, and the recognition of the fact that the religious mind is directed by hidden laws.

Correspondence.

THE CLERGY AND THE LABOR PROBLEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit me to make one or two observations concerning your comments upon my sermon of last Sunday? In an earlier sermon of the series, I had spoken as plainly as my command of English permitted to the workingmen who heard me, concerning the prime duty of self-help; assuring them that there was no help to come from the heavens above or the earth beneath as a substitute for the very qualities which you commend as the ample solution of the Labor Problem. Having done this, in the last sermon of the course I proceeded to speak of what I supposed to be the generally admitted conditions of our civilization which make this solution of the Labor Problem harder than necessary. To him who sees nothing in our economic and social and political conditions handicapping Labor in this effort at self-help, these concluding remarks must have seemed superfluous, and such strictures as you passed must commend themselves as entirely appropriate to such a work of supererogation. I am not, however, one of that happy class who thus look out upon our present environment. Seeing, as I think, very many things which make such a solution of the Labor Problem needlessly hard for our workingmen, I felt constrained to indicate what might be done to better those conditions. As you observed, I did point to many lines of action, but I did this precisely because I wanted to bear in upon the minds of the workingmen the fact that there was no ready-made solution of this larger problem—that the good time coming would have to come by a general advance along the whole line of civilization, in which each of us might lend a hand from his own position.—Yours truly, R. Heber Newton.

Garden City, L. I., June 11.

MR. MANNING'S RESIGNATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Of the many thousands who have read without direct personal interest Mr. Manning's letter to the President, almost if not quite all will recognize the utterance of an able and faithful official, and will regret the loss of his services to the country; but very few will probably appreciate the real significance of that letter. A short extract will serve as a text for indicating this:

"Our present tariff laws are a needless oppression instead of an easy burden. Our currency is a chaos into which we pour forced purchases of one of the precious metals, a mechanical increment under a coinage law so ill judged and untimely, etc. All our customs revenue might be collected by strictly revenue duties upon a few score articles instead of by extravagant or prohibitory duties upon more than 4,000 articles. A better currency than exists elsewhere might be had by a few lines of repealing and empowering legislation, followed by two or three years of capable administration of the Treasury. Under the operation of currency laws and tariff laws now in force, which you and the present Congress were elected to repeal and reform, the burdened industries of our country are plunging heavily along a miry road towards foreseen danger."

That this gloomy view of affairs is justified by facts is not the most important point. The curious part of it is, that the nominal head of the finances, the confidential adviser and nominee of the President, has hardly more power to apply any remedy than an ordinary citizen, while his only public utterance on the subject, outside of his annual reports to Congress, is this wail of despair addressed to the President on taking leave of his office. The real conduct of the finances is in the lobby, and the Secretary of the Treasury, in order to accomplish anything, must resort to the same expedients and stand on the same level as any agent of a protected interest. Meantime, in what a helpless chaos Congress is floundering; how completely it is at the mercy of the keen and skilful intriguers who pull the wires by which its movements are directed, ought to be apparent to anybody who reads a daily paper. Is it not the simplest common sense, the most obvious interest of the country, that the Secretary of the Treasury, being nominally responsible for the finances, should have some voice in the conduct of them; that he should be able on the floor of Congress, the only place where it can be done with any effect, to explain to the country why things are going wrong, and how they can be made to go right? G. B.

Boston, June 14, 1886.

TWO POINTS IN ENGLISH CONSTRUCTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of a new English grammar, as called for by a recent correspondent of the *Nation*, may I be allowed space in which to call attention to two constructions?

(1.) A Frenchman or Italian says, "You are stronger than I *didn't* think you were," where it is plain that the "not" pops up to the surface out of the other thought, "I did not think you were so strong."

In our language we frequently hear such a sentence as "I should not be surprised if it didn't rain this evening," the second "not" making the speaker say precisely the opposite of what he means.* The influence of the first negative works forward and produces a second, just as, in the common solecism, "I like those sort of girls," the last plural works backward and produces "those" for "that."

How shall we account for the *omitted* negative in the following? "He evidently dislikes manual labor as much as anybody, however, and does not mean to do any more of it than he can help" (*Nation*, No. 1089, p. 392). I was about to say that it is perfectly clear that the thing really meant is, "any more than he can *not* help"; but, in fact, it is not so clear. At least, I have right often found persons who could only with considerable difficulty be made to see that "not" is absolutely required by the sense; that "not" before "help" is just as much *in* place as it is out of place in "I should not be surprised if it didn't rain." I do not think I ever heard or saw the logically correct form "than I can't help." The desire to avoid a negative cannot be the explanation: our main tendency is just the other way.

(2.) There is a common use of "have" not noticed in the latest Webster, nor in the Worcester of some years ago. Nor do I find mention of it in Maetzner: "Mr. So and So had a valuable horse stolen last night." "Ney had five horses shot under him in the last charge at Waterloo." "Sometimes the scientific man has put upon him the task of devising a terminology as well as a nomenclature" (Whitney, 'Language and the Study of Language'). The explanation is clear: it is nothing more than a grammatical device to enable us to have a passive expression in which the *person* and not the *thing* shall be the subject. When the active construction has an accusative of the thing and a dative of the person (as, "the judge granted (to) the man a new trial"), we can easily turn this into a passive and say, "the man was granted a new trial." But as soon as we have the person in the active, governed by other prepositions than "to," we do not use a simple passive—*e. g.*, "He stole a horse from me." "I was stolen a horse" will not do, but "I *had a horse stolen* out of my stable last night" meets the case very well. This form of passive often comes into play in rendering into English the similar Greek idiom, as the Greeks too were fond of having a *person* as the subject of the passive: "He was taken away all his property" naturally becomes, "He had all his property taken away." Is there any other explanation to be given of this use of "have"? A curious extension of this hankering after a personal passive occurs in a translated article in the *Popular Science Monthly* for February, 1886, p. 527, end: "I had several cases of men who *had been spit in the eyes* by the spitting-snake," where a possessive genitive is made the subject of the passive. This is matched by a recent remark attributed to a man who had just been jolted in riding—"That hole ought to be throwed dirt into."—Respectfully, A. H.

Hampden Sidney, Va.

* Is not our correspondent dealing here with a local or southern solecism?—Ed. Nation.

REPUBLICANS AND PROHIBITION IN IOWA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I notice that in closing your editorial, in your issue of June 3, entitled "Growing Power of the Prohibitionists," which, by the way, contains much of truth, and for that reason demands correction, you say:

"Every time the Republican party has been brought squarely to the same issue it has 'dodged' in the same way, and it is small wonder that the temperance people have at last become tired of the game."

By the phrase, "in the same way," as is shown by the context of the article, is meant that every time the Republican party has been called upon to take a stand on the moral issue presented by the liquor question, the party leaders have busied themselves with a calculation as to whether "there were as many temperance voters as there are Irish and German Republican voters," and, failing to determine the question, or resolving the problem against the temperance voter, the Republican party has, without exception, "dodged" the issue.

Will you kindly correct your statement or explain wherein consisted and when occurred the "dodges" during the six several times that this moral issue has been presented to the Republican party of the States of Iowa and Kansas during the last few years? L. W. Clapp.

Iowa City, June 8, 1886.

[We had rather in mind the Republican party in its national aspect, but our language was not carefully chosen.—Ed. Nation.]

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL AT ATHENS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have frequent occasion to speak with the students of archæology of various nations who come to Athens on the scope and work of the American School, and almost without exception they express surprise at the singular device of sending out each year a new head for the institution. Nor does it become more reasonable when explained as a device for getting a head without any charge on the resources of the School by the method which your readers probably all know, and which at best results simply in sending one more student out to learn archæology, and calling him home again when he has learned a little of what the director ought to know. The general opinion is, that nothing could be expected of such an institution, and my own experience, like the testimony of the students, is that nothing worth the trouble is achieved. The sending out of a professor who knows nothing but ancient Greek to teach in Athens what he can just as well teach at home, may be very pleasant for the professor if he needs change; but to suppose that a school of Hellenic studies can be started in this way, is as absurd as the hypothesis that the United States of America can establish a diplomatic body by sending meritorious politicians abroad for a term of four years and then replacing them by a new lot.

If the object of the School in Athens is to teach the ancient Greek, it is a mistake altogether, for ancient Greek can be better learned in Germany than in Athens; if to teach modern Greek, an American professor or school is quite superfluous; and, so far as philology is concerned, therefore, the School is sheer waste of labor and money. Students come to the French and German schools to learn archæology, and for this Athens is peculiarly adapted in being the centre of ancient Greek life, and of that sphere of investigation which is calculated to throw light on Greek polity, sociology, letters, and art by new discoveries through excavation and exploration. To send a man who knows nothing of archæology to direct the School for even a year is mocking the young men who come here to study, for it only gives them a fellow-student no wiser than they. It is a perfectly useless expense, and the same end would be gained by having a housekeeper who should keep the building in order and see that the books were not stolen. And if there are no idle ambitions to be gratified, a better disposition of the money, I should say, would be to employ it in coöperation with the English Society for a school open to students of all qualified English and American universities.

It is not purely on à-priori grounds that I judge the American School to be thus far a conspicuous failure, but on the testimony of the students themselves, who, so far as I have heard their evidence, have found it an utter disappointment and illusion; and it is even in response to repeated requests from the students of this year that I have promised to ventilate the matter in the *Nation*. If they came here without any connection with any school, they could have the advantages of the Greek, German, and French libraries, and the advice of the directors and senior students of the schools, all given generously to all students who seek them; and our School is therefore no advantage to them.

The first requisite, even before a building, is to provide the School with a competent permanent head, who shall have had opportunity to learn at least as much of archæology as one of the scholars will acquire in one season's work. As a matter of course he must know ancient Greek thoroughly well, and be a master of epigraphy, because in most cases a thorough knowledge of Greek epigraphy is the key of archæology, as far as it is a positive science. Other nations generally make such positions as this would be, provision for their able scholars who have not private means to follow classical studies, and whose enthusiasm for them is sufficient to induce them to accept teaching positions: they are the recognized compensation for lives devoted to erudite research. To wait till we have an accomplished archæologist and epigraphist at once, educated in America, would be to postpone the utility of the School to the Greek Kalends, for it is only in the classical world that such an education can be obtained; but what we can hope for is, that somebody may be found who will be able to take the American student, arriving full of enthusiasm and ready to be put in the right path and started off intelligently, and prevent him from losing heart and enthusiasm and wasting his opportunities through finding no kind of instruction in response to his demand—save the bland permission of his director to make use of the library whenever the director and his family have no use for it. The general opinion of the students this winter, as well as of the local archæologists, so far as I have had any conversation on the subject, indicate Dr. Sterrett as the person to fill the position which the existence of the School supposes. As an explorer and epigraphist he is not only our best, but he has attained a reputation among the first of his generation, and his knowledge of archæology is far beyond the stage at which our young students must begin their work at Athens. I do not know any other American scholar half so well qualified by study and enthusiasm in his science to fill the place which must be filled if the School is not to remain the mockery it now is. I understand that Dr. Sterrett has been offered a professorship of Greek in some Western college; and as his means do not allow him to remain in the pursuit of classical discovery, in which he has shown such indefatigable enthusiasm and attained such splendid success, we may have the misfortune of losing him from the field where our national vanity, if not our national recognition of merit, should maintain him. It is most probable that in America Dr. Sterrett is less known than to Hellenists in Germany and England; but certainly he must have become sufficiently well known to our scholars to call out more authoritative recommendation than mine, though none may be better able than I to state the needs of the School, or judge how utterly it fails, under its present organization, to respond to any part of the plan of its founders and supporters.

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Athens, May 27.

PUBLIC MANNERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In M. Zola's last book, 'L'Œuvre,' among the many extraordinary descriptions of Paris and Parisians—extraordinary alike from the scenes themselves and from the power of their delineation—there is one which is perhaps worth a moment's attention on the part of those persons who are not likely to read the book. It is worth attention because M. Zola writes not as a romancer, but as an historian, or, one may say more accurately, as a scientific traveller; and if we may accept (and in some measure it would seem that we must accept) his observations as documentary evidence of what can be witnessed in the centre of the highest civilization, it may well give us pause as to the meaning of "the highest civilization."

The page I am about to translate is the account of the "manners" of a crowd at an exhibition of pictures, an exposition of the *rejected* pictures of the Salon of the year. I must confess that it is impossible to translate the style of M. Zola; but the following is the substance of the passage.

I must premise that the "great work" of the hero of the story, a landscape with figures, is among these pictures; and he, tragically uncertain whether or not the public will recognize his genius (as the jury of the Salon has not done), and bestow on him the praises really his due, goes to the Palais de l'Industrie (the place of exhibition) agitated with excitement. As he enters one after another the various halls, he hears everywhere the laughter of the public, "the contagious hilarity of a crowd come together for amusement"; but, by a deceptive accident, gaining courage about his success as he advances, he comes at last to his own picture. And looking at it with clear and intelligent eyes he finds it is quite other than it had seemed to him in his atelier, and perceives it is a failure, but a failure redeemed by touches of genius:

"He turned to Sandoz and said simply: 'They have cause to laugh, it is incomplete. No matter, some parts of it are excellent.' His friend tried to draw him away, but on the contrary he obstinately drew nearer. Now that he had judged his work he listened to the crowd and observed it. The explosion continued, increasing in an ascending gamut of wild laughter. As soon as the visitors were within the door he saw them become open-mouthed, and their eyes almost disappear in the breadth of their smiles; and then were heard the noisy chuckles of the fat men, the harsh cachinnations of the thin men, and dominating over these the little sharp titters of the women. Opposite, against the wainscot, young men threw themselves back as if they were being tickled. A lady let herself drop on to a seat, her knees drawn together, choking, trying to catch her breath behind her handkerchief. The report of this 'droll' picture spread; people crowded in from all quarters; they came in troops, pushing, trying to get in front. 'Where is it? Over there! Oh, what a joke!' And witticisms flew fast; . . . [as] 'Look! it has been dyed; the flesh tints are blue, the trees are blue; he has certainly dipped it into a blue-pot, this picture of his!' Those who did not laugh became angry; this bluishness, this new notation of light, they took as an insult. Was art to be thus outraged? Old gentlemen brandished their canes. A serious personage departed, out of temper, declaring to his wife that he did not like bad jokes. But another, a conscientious little man, looked in the catalogue for an explanation of the picture, and, read-

ing aloud, for the benefit of his companion, the title 'Open Air,' it gave birth to a formidable renewal around him of cries and hootings. The words were caught up, repeated, commented on: *Plein air, oh! oui, plein air! . . . tout en l'air, tra la la laire!* The crowd grew larger, and became more and more insulting; the faces, reddening in the increasing heat, had each the gaping, stupid mouth of those who are ignorant undertaking to judge of painting, and expressing all the sum of arrant blunders, of ridiculous reflections, of silly and malicious sneers that the sight of an original work draws forth from middle-class doltishness."

I should perhaps say that the sentences I have omitted indicate that the nature of the subject of the picture, as well as its treatment, displeased the spectators; but what I want to bring forward is the good taste and refinement, or, without irony, the odious vulgarity of such a scene.

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Notes.

We are glad to learn from the publishers, Belford, Clarke & Co., that the recent total destruction of their premises in Chicago did not involve the loss of the plates of Gen. Fremont's Memoirs, which were stored in Philadelphia.

D. Appleton & Co. have in press 'The Rear-Guard of the Revolution,' by James D. Gilmore ("Edmund Kirke"), a story of the pioneer settlement of Tennessee under James Robertson and John Sevier; and 'Studies in Modern Socialism and Labor Problems,' Sunday evening lectures by T. Edwin Brown, D.D., of Providence.

D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, have in preparation an illustrated work, 'Among the Lighthouses' (namely, of the Maine coast), by Mrs. Mary Bradford Crowninshield, wife of Commander Crowninshield.

Lotze's 'Outlines of Æsthetics,' translated by Prof. Geo. T. Ladd, will be published next month by Ginn & Co.

Next fall D. C. Heath & Co. expect to bring out a work on 'Manual Training,' by Prof. Woodward, of Washington University, St. Louis. It will give practical directions, based on long experience, as to the organization and conduct of manual training schools.

Ginn & Co. will issue, in season for the fall school term, 'Homer,' being the first part of a short history of Greek literature by Prof. R. C. Jebb of Glasgow University.

Mr. Henry George's 'Protection or Free Trade' (Henry George & Co.) is a restatement of his well-known views on the evils of private land-ownership. Real free trade, according to Mr. George, is exemption from all taxation, the public revenues of every kind being collected from land in the form of a rent-charge due to the state. The argument against protective tariffs is very strongly put, but its value is lost by a declaration that the abolition of such tariffs would be of no advantage to the workingman, since the land-owner would intercept and swallow up all the resulting gains. The land-owner is the robber who takes all that is not needed to keep the residue of the human race alive. Why this cormorant should allow even a bare subsistence to his fellow-men is not clear, there being no law compelling him to do so, nor any agreement among land-owners themselves to restrict their exactions at any particular point.

The seventh volume of the works of Alexander Hamilton, edited by Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge, has appeared (Putnams). It opens with a speech deprecating an attempt on the part of New York to recover Vermont, chiefly on the ground of expediency, but also because of the repugnance of forcible dominion over an unwilling people to ideas to which the Revolution had given currency. The eulogy of General Greene follows, and is a striking summary review of the military career of that commander. Most interesting of all the pieces in this volume are Hamilton's drafts of speeches and messages for Washington, including the Farewell Address. Criticism of Jefferson's message of December 7, 1801, fills a large space. So does the defence of Harry Croswell for his libel on Jefferson in the *Wasp*. An inedited fragment on the French Revolution is curious, but of slight importance. Not so is the elaborate defence of the Funding System. The volume closes with the private correspondence, which comes down to 1779, and will be continued in the eighth volume. Great pains have been taken here to insure correct transcripts from the original in the case of all the letters, whether heretofore published or inedited.

The odds and ends of Goldsmith will be found in the two concluding volumes of his Works (embracing five in all) lately added to the Bohn series (New York: Scribner & Welford). His biographies of Voltaire, Nash, Parnell, and Bolingbroke are followed by numerous specimens of his hack-work in criticism, by later collected essays, prefaces, and introductions, and—in deference to Mr. Charles Welsh's very probable vindication of Goldsmith's authorship—by Goody Two-Shoes. There is a copious index to the entire series.

No. 750 in Lovell's Library is 'Somebody's Story,' by Hugh Conway, which one may read in fair print first, and then afterwards in the facsimile of the author's minute MSS. Happily, the tale is short, or the latter reading would be destructive of eyesight.

Teachers should have their attention called to the following text-books issued by Macmillan: 'Johnson's Lives of Dryden and Pope,' with introduction and notes by Alfred Milnes, who sketches the life of Johnson himself; Dr. Buchheim's 'Heine's Harzreise,' expurgated and furnished with notes—like the foregoing, one of the Clarendon Press series; J. E. Nixon's 'Prose Extracts for Translation into English and Latin,' in which the extracts from ancient and modern authors are cleverly matched in spirit, and printed facing each other, as, Burke against Cicero, Robertson against Sallust, etc.; and the Rev. Ellis C. Mackie's 'Parallel Passages for Translation into Greek and English,' in which a similar juxtaposition is carried out.

A book which seems worth considering is De Fontaine's 'Condensed Long-Hand,' or a system of phonetic abbreviation designed for the use of the type-writer under dictation. The author anticipates for it an increase of speed on this instrument of from fifty to a hundred per cent.—in short, that a close approach can be made to the stenographic rate. The American News Company are the publishers.

The eighth issue of 'Zell's Classified United States Business Directory,' for 1886, has reached us from the American Reporter Co., 65 Duane St. As it dispenses with any prefatory account of annual revision, it appears to trust to its established favor with the public. The work is primarily classified by trades, etc., and the subordinate arrangement is of course geographical. At the close, some foreign countries are added—France, the West Indies, South America, Australia, etc.—with the reverse arrangement.

Booklore for June (D. G. Francis) begins a bibliography of English topographical works with those relating to Bedfordshire. The arrangement, singularly enough, is by authors and not places.

There are not a few eminent names among the contributors to the first volume of the *New Princeton Review* (A. C. Armstrong & Son), and the table of contents shows that current topics have been well looked after. No one but the editor could say to what an extent he has had to act as a purveyor, and to what extent as a sifter of articles spontaneously and unstintedly offered to him—in other words, whether the *Review* supplies a want, or merely enlarges the opportunities of those who make literature a profession. Nor is the close of a first volume a proper time to raise such a question.

The Appalachian Mountain Club, Boston, is about to issue advance sheets of its forthcoming map of the White Mountains, on a scale of 1: 50,000, by tracing what is now done of it, roughly lettering it, and copying by the blue-print process. A northern and a southern sheet will thus be supplied (apparently to members only) at about seventy-five cents each.

We have already had occasion to mention an illustrated paper on the movement cure in China, by Dr. Macgowan, which originally appeared in the series of Medical Reports issued by the Imperial Maritime Customs at Shanghai. There is in these reports much to repay the curious lay reader, and now and again one finds papers of only indirect or limited medical bearing. Such, in the issues (27-29th) before us, are the notes on the aborigines of southern Formosa, or those on black lime—amorphous graphite, used to mix with lime in making a capital mortar, or for dying cloths, and also capable of medical application. There are meteorological notes, too, and district health maps. Though foreign male physicians are seldom called in by the Chinese unless in extreme cases, their native practice is increasing, particularly the obstetric branch. But it is impossible to obtain bodies for dissection. One physician reports that not a few cases of injury from falls, as broken bones, burns, and scalds, arise from deformed feet; another, that leprosy is not contagious, contrary to the view which is fashionable on the Sand Lots.

A new and recast edition of Victor Duruy's 'Histoire des Grecs,' with 1,500 illustrations and 50 maps and plans, is now appearing in parts from the press of Hachette. It will make three volumes.

The admirable studies of Russian literature which M. Melchior de Vogüé has been contributing to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* are about to be republished in a single volume, 'Le Roman Russe' (Paris: Plon; New York: F. W. Christern). The preface on Realism in Literature is to be found in the *Revue* of May 15. It will delight the soul of Mr. Howells.

A year ago M. Ch. Gueullette made a little book out of his criticisms on the various performances at the Théâtre-Français, and it is good evidence as to the surpassing merits of that play-house that he has now put forth a second volume devoted to 1885, and is intending, apparently, to continue the series annually. His 'Répertoire de la Comédie-Française' (Paris: Jouaust; New York: F. W. Christern) is rather lightly written, but it is introduced by a very characteristic preface by M. Théodore de Banville, is beautifully printed by MM. Jouaust & Sigaux, and is adorned with an etched portrait by M. Abot of Mlle. Dudlay, the tragic actress whose reëngagement by M. Claretie has caused the resignation of M. Delaunay and M. Coquelin, the two best comedians of the Comédie-Française.

The British Museum has very recently acquired two manuscripts of considerable interest to students of the history of the American Revolution. One is an account of Burgoyne's campaign, written by a Lieut. Digby of the English Army, who describes briefly, in a dry, precise, professional tone, the various military movements of which he was cognizant. Those operations in which Digby was personally employed are narrated with rather more fulness, but the object of the whole is strictly military, and there is little reflection of the author's opinions or feelings. The other document, the title of which is at this writing the very last entry in the manuscript

catalogue of the Museum, is an account of some passages in his own life by Alexander Chesney, a native of Ireland who settled in the South Carolina up-country in 1772, and who served on both sides during the Revolution, but very reluctantly, if we may believe him, on the side of the colonists. In the later years of the war he was Captain of Loyalists, and distinguished himself, apparently, by his courage and enterprise. His story is told with sufficient modesty. He gives many interesting particulars of the partisan warfare in Carolina, and relates only too briefly his experience at the battle of King's Mountain, where he was wounded.

The eighth annual session of the American Philological Association will be held at Ithaca, N. Y., in the pleasant Botanical Lecture-room of Sage College, Cornell University, beginning July 15, at 3 P. M. President Peck's address will be delivered on the evening of that date. Members intending to be present are requested to notify Prof. W. T. Hewett, the local secretary; and those who will read papers, to send their titles to Prof. John H. Wright, at Hanover, N. H. The eleventh annual session of the Spelling Reform Association will begin at the same place on Thursday, July 15. President March's address will review "Ten Years of Spelling Reform," and should be interesting.

—The April number of the *English Historical Review* contains some articles that will command general interest. One of these we have already mentioned—Mr. Cunningham's paper upon "The Repression of the Woollen Manufacture in Ireland." The opening article, "The Growth of Plebeian Privilege in Rome," by Mr. Strachan-Davidson, does not cover the whole ground of the growth of plebeian privileges, but is confined to a single question—the establishment of the plebeian right of legislation by the Hortensian law, and the relation of this law to the Valerio-Horatian and the Publilian laws, which apparently enact the same privilege. The theory here presented is marked by the practical and commonsense character which we should expect from an Englishman. It is that the original power of the plebeian assembly, as shown in the Terentilian law and the Icilian law *de Aventino publicando* (both of them antecedent to the law of Valerius and Horatius), was that of petition; the petition being considered by the Senate and then adopted by the *Comitia Centuriata*, which was, "except for the addition of a handful of patricians, the same persons who had already voted in the assemby of the *plebs*." A foot-note points out the analogy of this action of the plebs to that of the Commons in the English Parliament of the fourteenth century. This proposition seems very probable, and in it "no power is ascribed to any person or body in the state, excepting such as from independent sources of information we know that they possessed." It does not seem to us, however, to exclude Mommsen's theory of the Valerio-Horatian and Publilian laws, according to which these laws had reference not to the plebeian assembly, but to the *Comitia Tributa* proper; and it seems altogether likely that the earlier of these laws (of 449) stood in direct relation with this assembly, which makes its first appearance at just about this time. On the whole, we prefer this explanation to that of Mr. Strachan-Davidson, who would make these laws mark steps in the process of converting the right of petition into that of legislation. Another article of general interest is by Mr. James Gairdner, upon "The Death of Amy Robsart." Mr. Gairdner exposes Froude's argument to a searching examination, and shows, by full citations from Mr. Froude's documents, that they do not sustain his conclusion that she was murdered by Leicester, but rather go to prove his innocence in the matter. Mr. Simcox's article on "Alfred's Year of Battles"; Miss Hamilton's graphic description of "Paris under the Last Valois Kings"; and Mr. Bent's account of "King Theodore of Corsica" also deserve notice. And one of the most important papers is to be found in the "Notes and Documents"—an examination, by Mr. W. Aldis Wright, of the authenticity of the Squire papers, a subject extensively discussed last year in the *Academy*. The article occupies thirty-seven pages, and comes to a conclusion in favor of their genuineness, largely on the ground of the intimate knowledge that Carlyle had with everything relating to Cromwell: "Was he then completely deceived by documents which others, certainly not better qualified to judge, can at once confidently pronounce to be forgeries? I confess that I find this very difficult to believe."

—Of the recent translation of Feuillet's 'La Morte,' by J. Henry Hager, entitled 'Aliette' and published by D. Appleton & Co., it may be noted first, that, after the fashion of the day, it is expurgated; then, that (in speaking of an *écuyère*) it renders "elle a une main étonnante" by "her seat is something wonderful," and renders "C'est un grand manoir à toits pointus et surbaissés" by "It was an extensive manor-house, surbased and with pointed roofs," not observing that *surbased* applies to the roofs and to the roofs alone —and this is only one of countless instances of similar carelessness or ignorance. It may also be noted that the tone is constantly misrepresented; *e. g.*, "Je voudrais que la mémoire [de son père] fût chérie et vénérable à tout le monde comme à moi," becomes "I could wish to have his memory as cherished and revered by you as it is by me"; this speech being made by a young girl to a young man, "the first time" that she talked with him "as to a friend rather than a passing acquaintance." Again, in talking of an old house, the speaker refers to "the aspect of your home, the style and quality of the household arrangements (*la tenue de la maison*)." This is translated, "the style, the tone, and *the conduct of the family*"! A charming and clever conversation on the men and women of the society of Louis XIV. is metamorphosed into something absurd by such touches as this: "All their passions, their weaknesses, their errors," says one of the interlocutors, existed in conjunction with "un fond sérieux et solide." "Beneath all this there was a substantial foundation of *earnest belief*," says Mr. Hager —which is inexpressibly mistaken. Mr. Hager should also be informed (and in no spirit of hypercriticism) that a bishop is never addressed as "your Highness"; "Votre Grandeur" is at best "your Grace," and may be "your Lordship." Also that the Miss Edgeworth-like "my dear" from wife to husband does not represent "mon ami." Also, that *savoir gré* is not "to know," but 'to take it kindly,' 'to be grateful'; and that *un oiseau bleu* is not "a little bluebird," but 'a creature of the fancy'—'a phantom of delight.' In turning the pages one's eye is incessantly struck by such and other blunders. "Fashionable life at Paris is a terrible machinery of wheels (*engrenage*)"; "a terrible *treadmill*" we have instead, which has no relation to the idea which the succeeding sentences fully develop. But perhaps the most entirely satisfactory rendering is this—"satisfactory" as making further criticism unnecessary: "Ma femme, dont la terrible beauté, malgré ses mélanges—peut-être, helas! à cause de ses mélanges!—n'avait pas cessé de parler fortement à mon imagination"; "whose terrible beauty, in spite of its inconveniences, perhaps, alas! on account of these very inconveniences, still strongly appealed to my imagination." It is only just to say that some passages in the volume are fairly well done; but the expurgations are unjustifiable, since unavowed.

—Karl Wilhelm Nitzsch was a scholar equally distinguished in the field of Roman and of German history, and one whose influence upon historical thought in these fields was far out of proportion to his fame or the actual amount of his written works. He did not write a history either of Rome or of Germany; but his writings upon both subjects are of so profound importance, and his courses of lectures upon both made so deep an impression upon his hearers, that we have, since his death, the publication of connected works upon each, prepared by his pupils for his papers and the notes of his lectures. The German history is a work of considerable extent, the 'Geschichte der römischen Republik,' edited by Dr. George Thouret (Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot) is in two thin octavo volumes. The central point of Nitzsch's researches, in relation to both Germans and Romans, is the social and economical relations of the peasantry; and his Roman history probably more than any other throws light upon the economical causes of the growth and downfall of the Roman Republic. He starts with the fundamental fact, overlooked by many writers, of the rural plebeians, as a class almost peculiar to Rome and the controlling fact of the Roman Republic. The existence of this class, the champion of the equality of the orders, and the source of the plebeian nobility, is a fact generally admitted, if not generally appreciated at its real value. What is peculiar in Nitzsch's theory is the view that these rural plebeians represented the policy of war and conquest, as opposed to the commercial policy of the old patricians; the Claudii were the leaders of this commercial policy, while the Horatii and Valerii allied themselves with the plebeian leaders. This theory is not to be accepted hastily; it gives, nevertheless, a helpful clue to the mazes of early Roman politics, and, whether true or not, will be suggestive and serviceable to students of the first decade of Livy.

—The name of the Bohemian scholar Vaníček is not an illustrious name. He himself claimed no higher position than that of being the "registrar of comparative philology," and the modest pamphlet which one of his friends has recently put forth in commemoration of him makes no extravagant demand for the man whose 'Etymological Dictionary,' whose 'Latin Grammar,' whose careful indexes to the works of Georg Curtius, are well known to all classical scholars, and have been found useful enough to insure their compiler a modest niche in the *columbarium* of philology. But here and there in the works of Vaníček there is a half-revelation of the frightful disadvantages under which this worthy scholar labored, and Dr. Glaser's pamphlet brings the painful details to the light. It is not needful to repeat them here: other and greater men have passed through like misery to high position. But the lesson of Vaníček's life has especial interest for American scholars, because, while none of them can possibly know the depths of poverty to which he was reduced, many of them know something of scarcity of books, many of them know the disadvantages of unfavorable surroundings. Here was a man of fair but not great gifts, with a mild vein of idealism to keep his spirit alive, who did good service to his department with as slender an equipment and as discouraging an environment as any American scholar can complain of. One thing, however, is worthy of note—that this man was brought into intimate relations with a brilliant genius, Aug. Schleicher, and into friendly contact with the luminous intellect, the serene balance, and the kind heart of Georg Curtius; and these two men, by their incitement and their encouragement, saved him from utter obscurity, and introduced him to the line of work by which

he is known. To the last-named steady friend he owed his appointment, after long years of waiting in unsatisfactory positions, to the professorship of Sanskrit and comparative philology in the University of Prague, which he held only a few months before he was struck down. It is this, after all, that makes the difference between so many American and so many European careers. It is not simply the lack of suitable environment, the lack of means, the lack of will: it is the absence of that early potent, personal influence, which is hardly possible under the formal constraints of the college classroom. Fortunately a better day is at hand, and the freedom of study in the higher ranges of college life, and the specialization of work in our American universities, will bring about, is bringing about, a closer contact, a warmer sympathy between master and disciple, and a more earnest purpose to advance the frontier of knowledge in every direction.

SCHOPENHAUER IN ENGLISH.

The World as Will and Idea. By Arthur Schopenhauer. Translated from the German by R. B. Haldane, M.A., and J. Kemp, M.A. Three vols. London: Trübner & Co. 1883-1886.

ALTHOUGH the publication of an English translation of Schopenhauer's principal work has not been heralded with such a flourish of trumpets as attends many an ephemeral book of one-thousandth part its value, it would nevertheless be difficult to name more than two or three works of the century that have provided the English mind with such a strong ferment as Schopenhauer's work is calculated to supply. In Germany, as is well known, Schopenhauer has practically eclipsed all his predecessors, except Kant, in influence, although Hegel, Fichte, and Schelling still continue to be lectured on by a few octogenarians at the universities. In France, too, as the *Revue Bleue* told us the other day, Schopenhauer is not only being diligently studied at present, but there is a current to make him the fashion in literary circles, as he is in Germany. For Englishmen and Americans something has been done in the way of magazine articles, and by Mr. Sully's book on 'Pessimism,' to familiarize the public with his thoughts; yet the best abstract of his works must always be to the original as chemical is to natural wine; and for this reason the present translation cannot be too warmly welcomed. Orthodoxy in philosophy and religion will, of course, be shocked by these volumes; but no one will be able to withhold his tribute of admiration from the most poetic and fascinating philosophic writer since Plato. To give a striking instance: Prof. Bowen of Harvard, though he "detests" Schopenhauer's system, admires him so immensely as a lucid writer and thinker that he not only forgives him his sins, but apparently teaches no other philosophic treatise so much *con amore* as Schopenhauer's.

It is well known that, notwithstanding these merits, Schopenhauer had to wait many long years for recognition. "Although I was only thirty years old when the first edition of this work appeared," he tells us, "I live to see this third edition not earlier than my seventy-second year." This was written in 1859; and again a quarter of a century had to elapse before the appearance of the first English edition. That the first volume, which was issued three years ago, did not excite much attention, is principally Schopenhauer's own fault. Not only is its style less crystalline and simple than in the later volumes, but it is much less attractive because it embodies the skeleton of his metaphysical system, while the second and third volumes represent the more inviting outside—the flesh, complexion and brilliant literary dress. The author prided himself chiefly on the skeleton—the alleged discovery that the "Will" is the "Ding an sich," the essence underlying all phenomena, and heretofore considered absolutely unknowable. The effort to prove his unprovable and self-contradictory theory involves him in numerous super-subtleties and obscurities foreign to his usual manner. But in the succeeding volumes his metaphysical hobby becomes less and less obtrusive, until it finally assumes the form of an inconspicuous thread on which he strings his pearls—very much as in the 'Parerga und Paralipomena,' which forms the continuation of his main work, and which it is to be hoped the present translators will now immediately take into hand.

Those who do not wish to make a systematic study of Schopenhauer, but would yet like to come under his magic influence, will do well therefore to merely glance over the first volume, picking up the general drift of his system, and then pass on to the second, in which, if so disposed, they may gather the main points of Kant's philosophy in a "criticism" of 157 pages, very much more lucid than in Kant's original. Then there are chapters on concrete and abstract knowledge, on rhetoric, the ludicrous, on mathematics; an ingenious argument to prove "man's need of metaphysics"; a chapter on the will in self-consciousness, etc. But it is in the third English volume that the reader will find the most inviting themes and the most brilliant treatment. The chapter on "Death" is an eloquent and poetic argument for impersonal immortality; "The Vanity and Suffering of Life" and "Denial of the Will to Live" are spicy essays on pessimism, lurid as Dante's "Inferno"; the chapter on "Imperfections of the Intellect" is full of the most subtle and lucid psychologic analysis; genius has never been so truthfully depicted as in chap. xxxi.: and in the "Metaphysics of the Love of the Sexes," the theory of complementary qualities is discussed in a manner to interest all but lovers, who, as Schopenhauer admits, will be highly displeased with it. In this chapter, by the way, Schopenhauer formulates for the first time the modern theory of instinct, for which he has never received due credit. Other modern thoughts are anticipated in his chapters on teleology, heredity, etc. Of exceeding interest are his chapters on the æsthetics of natural beauty, architecture, painting, poetry, and even music, though this last chapter is a medley of blunders. Students of Lessing will find a novel and plausible solution of the famous question why Laocoon is not represented in the statue as crying out.

But it would be absurd to attempt even a partial enumeration of the interesting topics touched on by the great pessimist. That there was hardly one on which he did not touch is shown by Frauenstädt's "Schopenhauer Lexicon," in two volumes, which constitutes an almost complete cyclopædia, invested, however, with a charm of "*genial*" individuality that no work of reference can give. And again we must revert to the style, which, when the author is not encumbered with metaphysical lumber, assumes a picturesqueness and lucidity which, as in the water of some of our Western lakes, seem all the greater on account of the depth of thought. Sometimes the profusion and poetic beauty of the illustrations are so great that the reader is apt to lose the drift of the argument, and to plunge into a reverie over one of the illustrations—for no philosophic writer is so suggestive as Schopenhauer; and for young writers who have difficulty in collecting their thoughts, nothing is so tonic in its effects and so apt to set the wheels of thought in motion as the perusal of a few pages of Schopenhauer.

The backwardness of the literary art in Germany is emphasized and illustrated by the fact that it took his countrymen so long to recognize his merits. He attributed the slow growth of his fame to the systematic ignoring and suppression of his name by envious professors of philosophy In this there may have been some truth; but the chief trouble lay in the fact that Schopenhauer refused to write in the philosophical jargon of the day. German philosophers of his epoch scorned to use words that were not of the doubly-distilled essence of vague abstraction. To descend to details, to vulgar, concrete, tangible cases, was considered a grave breach of philosophical etiquette. In a word, concrete writing was tabooed, and bad writing became fashionable and obligatory. By this fashion the metaphysicians did a great deal to demoralize the general literature of Germany, and one of the chief merits of Schopenhauer lies in this, that he turned the tide, and taught the Germans that philosophy and obscurity are not synonymous terms.

The translators' work has been admirably done. If any one compared all the 1,537 pages of the three English with the 1,376 pages of the two German volumes, he might discover errors. We have not found any in the pages we have examined, and everywhere the translators seem to have been successful, not only in giving Schopenhauer's meaning, but in preserving some of his individuality. Sometimes there is a little less compactness, and a little less attention to prose rhythm and the rule (which Schopenhauer strictly observed) of placing an emphatic word in an emphatic or accented place. The difficulties often presented by the choice of a word for a philosophical term which has no exact equivalent in English, have also been successfully met. The choice of the word "Idea" for the title, instead of the clumsy "Representation," must meet with every one's approval. One of the most difficult words is *Anschauung*. Our etymological equivalent, "intuition," has a subjective significance which makes it unavailable in translating Schopenhauer, who uses it with an objective, or, rather, sensuous meaning, roughly indicated by the original significance—"looking at." The word "perception," too, which is used by the translators, jars on the ears of those who know their Schopenhauer in the original; for it also seems to emphasize slightly the intellectual side of the process. In the chapter on "Genius," the word perception seems especially inadequate; yet it would be difficult to suggest anything better.

One advantage which the English has over the German edition is an index of nineteen pages. The translators might have made another improvement by translating Schopenhauer's numerous Greek quotations into English. Schopenhauer thought it sufficient to translate these into Latin, and the way he did this shows his thorough knowledge of these languages, which, he emphatically declared, every educated person ought to possess. But there are many things of interest in Schopenhauer to those who have never learned or forgotten their Latin; and to these the frequent Greek and Latin quotations will be impediments.

It remains to mention the synopsis of Schopenhauer's essay on "The Fourfold Root of the Principle of Sufficient Reason," which the translators have appended to the third volume. Schopenhauer claimed that the perusal of that was necessary to a full understanding of his work, as was also some previous knowledge of Plato and Kant. Indeed, he went so far as to assert that no one could fully appreciate him before he had read the whole work over twice, inasmuch as all the parts were so interlaced that the last chapters threw as much necessary light on the first as the first on the last. This, and much more, might be true, to convince any one of his metaphysical vagaries; but a much less arduous regimen is required of those who merely wish to enjoy the in-

exhaustible supplies of wit and wisdom stored up in these volumes.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Mr. Clement Bates's 'Law of Limited Partnership' (Little, Brown & Co.) is a valuable little treatise upon a highly interesting branch of American statutory law—one which has close relations to other parts of the law—to the law of trusts, of corporations, and, of course, to the law of general partnership. The author speaks of the notion of a limited partnership as originating in Italy, as developing extensively in France, and as being introduced into our system something over sixty years ago; "but the process of integrating it with the common law choked the exotic outgrowth in the germ, and produced a native system bearing no resemblance to the parent." "The American system, . . . adopted in all the organized subdivisions of the United States except . . . Arizona, Idaho, and New Mexico, is unknown to the rest of the world." The author has found, as regards this subject, what Mr. Stimson mentions in his work on 'American Statutory Law' as a general fact, that the legislation of our States falls mainly into groups; and it is possible, therefore, to present a fairly compact and generalized statement of the law of limited partnership as existing in all our States. It appears to be very well and carefully put together. Mr. Bates acknowledges the value of the large work of Troubat published a generation ago.

From the preface we learn that the writer has in hand a larger treatise on general partnership, and that the present work has grown incidentally out of that. His method seems to be one of great thoroughness, and justifies excellent hopes; but we trust that he will think many times before he adopts the form of book to which he alludes in speaking of "an ideal treatise, constructed, by the use of different sizes of type, so as to combine at once a small and general work of ultimate and fundamental principles in large type; a medium-sized work, by placing in smaller type under the general principles their corollaries, deductions, qualifications, and exceptions; and, lastly, an exhaustive statement of all decisions, with the minutest possible analysis." Mr. Bates is a law writer of too much promise to be allowed to commit himself to such a project as this, without a remonstrance. Let us beseech him to avoid it, as a delusion and a snare.

Mr. Edward P. Usher's 'Law Pertaining to the Sale of Personal Property, as Contained in the Statutes of Massachusetts, the Decisions of its Supreme Judicial Court, and the Statutes of the United States' (Little, Brown & Co.) is a very good book indeed, although not a little indebted to Benjamin's large treatise. It is a small octavo of near 400 pages, stating with great conciseness and yet great fulness of reference to the Massachusetts cases, the law of that State on the subject named in its title. There is at the end a full and very valuable "Bibliographic Note," which must have been prepared with much pains, giving references to American and foreign text-books and to monographs and magazine articles upon the subjects covered by this book. The fourth edition of Benjamin is not included in the list. The author wastes no words. There is a direct, brief, business-like method of stating his points, as of one who does not wish to waste anybody's time. It is perhaps in pursuance of a purpose simply to give to his readers what he finds in his books, that Mr. Usher abstains from any discussion of his authorities. This is to be regretted. So accurate and intelligent a writer might have helped matters a little now and then by doing something more than give us the not always well-considered expressions of judges, as *e. g.*, at ss. 113 and 117. At s. 128 it would have been well to cite the important but neglected provision of the Public Statutes, c. 3, s. 3, cl. 25, which runs back to the revision of 1836. S. 216 is not accurately stated.

The subject of copyright is dealt with in a manner careful, thorough, and interesting in Mr. R. R. Bowker's 'Copyright, its Law and its Literature' (New York: Office of the *Publishers' Weekly*). The quarto form of the book is perhaps to be regretted, and so is the insertion of several pages of the facsimile autographs of authors appended to a petition on the subject of international copyright. This last gives a cheap, catch-penny air to a book of solid merit. The nature and history of copyright, the common law and the statutory doctrines on the subject, both in England and here, the European local and international doctrine, and the isolated and regrettable case of the United States on the subject of international copyright, are all set forth in clear and brief chapters; and the existing statutes in this country and England are then given. An admirably full and careful bibliography of the subject is added, covering about sixty pages, nearly half the book. This is the work of Mr. Thorvald Solberg, Assistant in the Library of Congress. It contains not merely the books in all languages, but the articles in magazines and periodicals. There is, *e. g.*, a full index to the *Nation* upon the subject of copyright. The word "copy," it seems, is from the Latin *copia*. The judicial replies given on pp. 6 and 7 should not be styled "decisions"; they are merely advisory opinions.

'The Law of Field Sports' (O. Judd Co.), by George Putnam Smith of the New York Bar, is an excellent little manual which should not have been left without an index. The object of it is described as that of providing "the American sportsman with a succinct statement of the rules of law affecting him in the acquisition of his outfit and in the pursuit of game." After warning the sportsman in the first chapter how to steer his way amid the perils that beset him in acquiring his equipment, *e. g.*, in buying a dog that may have been stolen, five other chapters follow on "Dogs," "Trespass," "Property in Game," "Game Laws," and "Fish and Game Clubs." The last half of the book, some sixty pages, is devoted to a valuable appendix containing in a brief and clear form a summary of the game laws of forty-five States and Territories, and of the District of Columbia. The volume will prove interesting even to the unprofessional reader. The writer would perhaps have done well to emphasize a little more than he has sometimes done, the need of examining the local statutes, *e. g.*, in the chapter on dogs.

Mr. Martin Lehmayer, of the Baltimore bar, publishes a brochure (Baltimore: Cushings & Bailey) entitled 'Should Juries in Criminal Cases be Judges of the Law and Fact?' He is concerned mainly with the law in Maryland, where, since 1851, the Constitution has said: "In the trial of all criminal cases the jury shall be the judges of law as well as fact." In 1858, and again lately, the Court of Appeals held that this was merely declaratory of the preëxisting law. But Mr. Lehmayer seeks to show that this provision "is *not* declaratory of the common law, but is on the contrary directly derogatory to it, [*sic*] as juries in England never were the 'judges of the law in criminal cases,' and that it is furthermore unequivocally in conflict with the great weight and preponderance of authority in the United States." After examining and quoting through some eighty octavo pages the "common-law authorities," the "American authorities," including text-books, and the "Maryland decisions," the writer ends his labors by submitting that "the clause of the Maryland Constitution above considered is a standing reflection upon the judiciary of the State. It conveys the inference that our courts cannot be trusted; it is contrary to reason, opposed to authority, and should be expunged from the law of the land."

This little book is useful as having a considerable collection of cases, and we are disposed to agree with its main opinion. But it is far from being an adequate discussion of the well-worn theme which it treats. The dispute upon this question is in a considerable degree a matter of terms. Nobody disputes that a jury had at common law, and still has, generally, in criminal cases, by giving a general verdict of not guilty, a power to close the case beyond any control; the Government cannot have a new trial. This is called a power, and so by some a legal right, to decide law as well as fact. Others call it by a different name. If Mr. Lehmayer is not acquainted (and we judge that he is not) with the extremely learned consideration of this general subject by Mr. Horace Gray, jr. (now Mr. Justice Gray of the Supreme Court of the United States), in a note to the case of Erving *v* Cradock in Quincy's Reports, 553, he will be glad to be referred to it. Mr. Gray, who declares for the common-law right of the jury to pass upon the law, appears to have ranged over all the cases; and after a profusion of citations, he ends his long and very valuable statement with these striking words:

"It is worthy of notice how the history of this question after the English Revolution of 1688 repeated itself in America nearly a century later. The great constitutional lawyers and judges of either Revolutionary period—Somers and Holt; Adams, Jay, Wilson, Iredell, Chase, Marshall, Hamilton, Parsons, and Kent—with one voice maintained the right of the jury upon the general issue to judge of the law as well as the fact. But they had hardly passed away, or fifty years elapsed since either Revolution, when the courts of the new Government began to assert as much control over the consciences of the jury as had been claimed by the most arbitrary judges of the monarch whom that revolution had overthrown. The analogy recalls the motto from Grotius, placed by Mr. Dallas upon the title-page of his reports: Atque eo magis necessaria est hæc opera, quod et nostro sæculo non desunt, et olim non desuerunt, qui hanc juris partem ita contemnerent, quasi nihil ejus præter inane nomen existeret."

Perhaps no entirely satisfactory statement upon this subject can be made until the full history of the English jury is written—a work demanding far more learning than has ever yet been applied to it.

'The Student's Kent: An Abridgment of Kent's Commentaries on American Law' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is prepared by Mr. E. F. Thompson, and has a brief introduction by Mr. Justice Nelson of the U. S. District Court for Massachusetts. We do not fully share the favorable opinion of the work which is given in this introduction. It undertakes to present the meat of 2,253 pages in 315, which are considerably smaller than the original ones. This, of course, is a formidable task. A careful comparison of the editor's treatment of the subject of Sale, in compassing the last eighty-nine pages of Kent's chapter xxxix within eight pages of this work, shows that the task has been done with skill; but it reveals also the fact that the "student" gains literally nothing of all that the last half-century has contributed to this important branch of law. What that means will be understood by any lawyer who reflects that Blackburn on Sale was printed in 1845. All the old ambiguities, and the antiquated interpretations of some points in the Statute of Frauds, are here repeated, and an intolerable air of quaintness is imparted to the pages by the citations (taken from Kent), of which not one is less than about fifty years old. If this work was worth doing at all, it should have been done better. No doubt there is advantage in having a

readable summary of the law, good for the earliest use of a student and for the general reading of laymen. What Chancellor Kent would furnish to-day for such a purpose would be indeed most valuable; but a condensation of what he said half a century ago and more, with little or no adaptation to the modern law, is an ill-judged enterprise.

A second edition of the 'Treatise on the Trial of Title to Land,' published in 1882 by Arthur G. Sedgwick and Frederick S. Watt, has now appeared (Baker, Voorhis & Co.). This fact (and the work, we are told, has been out of print for a year) indicates that it has met a want of the legal profession. Although it is cast in a form that relates to procedure, it really incorporates a great mass of substantive law. The treatise is intended as a handbook for practice, and it is a very good one. While some parts of the extensive subject are dealt with in a manner which, from the point of view of a specialist, leaves much to be desired, it is also true that, as a whole, the work is prepared with an unusually skilful combination of learning with sound judgment as regards the needs of a practitioner. The first two chapters furnish an instructive history of the action of ejectment and real actions in the United States. "The system of real actions," say the authors, "is practically extinct in America, excepting in parts of New England. It may be stated generally that our modern remedies constitute a single general system of procedure, disguised under a variety of names." This circumstance has enabled the authors, while making wide citations, to give to the book a unity of character which is often denied to general treatises in this country. It is really a treatise on the *American* law of the subjects dealt with. The present edition has been enlarged by adding four new chapters and twenty-six hundred cases.

A third edition of Angell's well-known treatise on 'Highways' (Little, Brown & Co.) is published. It is edited, as the second edition was in 1868, by George F. Choate, one of the probate judges of Massachusetts. The larger part of this work was written, not by Angell, but by Thomas Durfee, now Chief Justice of Rhode Island, who took up the unfinished plans of his deceased friend, and completed them by the addition of many more pages than Angell left behind him. All this, indeed, appeared in the preface to the first edition, in 1857, but it seems a pity that some hint of Chief-Justice Durfee's highly important labors should not have been preserved in the accepted title of the book. There is no need to discuss, at this time of day, the characteristics of a treatise so well known as this. It is useful and trustworthy. In looking through the chapter on the "Laying Out of Highways by Legislative Authority," one finds himself doubting whether something be not lacking in the way of acknowledgment to others who had previously published careful work upon that subject.

A new edition of Stephen's 'Digest of the Law of Evidence' is published by Little, Brown & Co. from the fourth English edition, which was out five years ago. This edition, besides being thus slow in coming, is prepared in a manner quite unworthy of the house that publishes it. The new editorial work is too scant and too poor. The fairly good notes of the former editor are preserved. A far better edition, indeed a very good edition, of this work was published last year by Prof. Chase of the Columbia Law School. Both books have unfortunately omitted Stephen's important and very characteristic preface to his third edition. He himself omitted it in the fourth. It is too important to be left behind; it helps a careful reader to estimate justly this useful but dangerous and over-praised guide to the law of evidence.

In Dr. Erwin Grueber's 'Roman Law of Damage to Property' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) the learned author, who is Reader in Roman Law at Oxford, has presented "a commentary on the titles of the Digest *Ad Legem Aquiliam* (ix, 2), with an introduction to the study of the Corpus Juris Civilis." It is a pity that the author has neglected to give an index. The body of the work consists of two parts, (1) a "commentary" on the text of the Lex Aquilia, which gives, by sections, the Latin, a careful translation, and then a short explanatory and illustrative passage by the author. This fills a hundred and eighty pages, and must be highly useful to students of the Roman law. The last hundred pages of the book are taken up with the second part, "a systematic exposition of the Roman law of damage to property" and a convenient summary of the same. The author handles his topic with minute care. The student of English law will find this volume instructive. It will introduce him to the methods of treatment and illustration used in the Roman law, and thus not merely will satisfy his curiosity, but will broaden his conceptions.

English Merchants: Memoirs in illustration of the Progress of British Commerce, by H. R. Fox Bourne, author of 'The Life of John Locke,' 'The Romance of Trade,' etc. London.

THIS book is an excursion into one of those byways of history which, as a rule, are attended with results far more profitable and interesting than are to be found along the broad and beaten highway. When we speak of "byways of history" we speak after the manner of historians, for, assuredly, in the history of Great Britain there are few factors of greater interest and importance than the "growth of British commerce." It can be spoken of as a "byway" only because historians have chosen to give an arbitrary prominence to wars, dynastic revolutions, and parliamentary conflicts. Mr. Fox Bourne's narrative bears in every page the indications of long and laborious research, and the only complaint that we have to make against him is, that he has endeavored to compress the results of his wide and varied studies within too narrow a compass. It is at times difficult to see the wood from the closeness with which the trees are planted together. The best portions of his book are the general surveys of British commerce which he takes from time to time, and we incline to think that he has cut down these with an unsparing hand in order to obtain the more space for his biographical details. Especially interesting is his account of the growth and development of Liverpool, and we could wish that he had entered as fully into the growth of London, Bristol, Hull, and other of the great commercial centres of past times.

Curious is it to note how, at almost every stage of their history, Englishmen have striven desperately to obstruct and impede the growth of their commercial greatness by rules and prohibitions inspired by the most ingenious perversity. For example, this:

"In a regulation of the City of London, made some time before 1237, it was laid down that all foreign merchants, and especially merchants coming from Normandy and Picardy, if once they entered the Thames, 'might not and should not, according to the ancient customs and franchises of the city and the realm, come to, or anchor at, any other place than London only.' They were forbidden to have any dealings with foreigners or residents of other English towns, 'seeing that all their buying and selling out do take place within the city, and that only with the men of the city.' They were not, however, to stay in London more than forty days, and at the end of that time they were to go back to their own place, or, at any rate, to retire to some part as distant, and they were to see that within the forty days all their wares were sold or exchanged in open market—'as, when the term had expired and it was his duty to depart, the merchant might not hand over any portion of his stock to his host or to any other person.' Nor might he carry aught away with him. Whatever was found in his possession after the time appointed for its disposal was forfeited for ever."

From another passage we learn that the "Fair-Trade" craze was as rabid in England in the days of Charles II. as in those of Queen Victoria.

"The immense importation," writes a Fair Trader of that olden time, "into England of French wares of various kinds gave just umbrage to all wise people, as occasioning a vast annual loss in point of the general balance of England's trade; some say to at least one million sterling, others to considerably more, because while we were wantonly and without measure importing and using the produce and manufactures of France, the wiser French Ministry were from time to time laying heavier duties upon the English manufactures and produce. Hereby, the English foreign trade in general languished, rents fell, and all ranks began sensibly to feel its bad effects."

Under this impression, Mr. Bourne tells us, an act was passed in 1678 declaring the importation and sale of French goods in England to be "a common nuisance to this kingdom in general, and to all his Majesty's subjects thereof," and ordering that for the future French goods should not be admitted into any British port or dependency.

There are, in all, three chapters in this volume devoted to the subject of British commerce generally. The remainder, as the title indicates, consists of biographical notices of the most illustrious among the great merchant princes of Great Britain from the days of the Plantagenets until our own time. The series begins with the De La Poles of Hull—the leaders of British commerce in the days of King Edward III.—and closes with an account of the Gurneys of London. It is a various and remarkable company to which the reader is introduced, but he will not fail to be impressed by the sterling honesty, the zealous patriotism, and active spirit of benevolence which inspired by far the greater portion of these men. But for the self-sacrificing coöperation of the De La Poles of Hull, it would have been impossible for Edward to carry on his French wars, which, barbarous, bloody, and futile as they seem to us, were in his day accounted achievements of the highest utility and honor. After these we are introduced to the famous Richard Whittington of London, and then through a series of Cannynges, Thornes, and Greshams, until we arrive at those bold mariners of the Elizabethan age who combined the business of merchant with those of discoverer, pirate, and sea-captain in the service of the Virgin Queen. Their method of forcing a trade, when one could not be had spontaneously, was peculiar. Of Sir John Hawkins we are told how he "proposed to exchange his negroes for the hides and sugars of Rio de la Hacha":

"But seeing that they would, contrary to all reason, go about to withstand his traffic, he would not it should be said of him that, having the force he had, he was driven from his traffic perforce, but would rather put it in adventure, whether he or they should have the better, and therefore he called upon them to determine either to give him license to trade or else stand to their own defence."

The townsmen, after deliberation, answered that they would buy his negroes for half the sum he asked—

"Whereupon the captain, weighing their unconscionable requests, wrote to them a letter, saying that they dealt too rigorously with him to go about to cut his throat in the price of his commodities, which were so reasonably rated as they could not by a great deal have the like at any other people's hands; but seeing that they had sent him this to his supper he would in the morning bring them as good a breakfast."

This breakfast, Mr. Bourne adds, had the desired effect upon the Spaniards, and "they made their

traffic quietly." It is not the least of Mr. Bourne's merits as an historian of past times that he has a keen relish for the incomparable force and quaintness of the English written by our ancestors, and allows them to speak freely in their own language.

As we draw to later times, the composite character of commerce gradually ceases. The British merchant divests himself of his buccaneering attributes, and becomes a citizen with no greater flavor of war about him than comes from being sworn in, once in a way, as a special constable in some momentary emergency. The fortunes amassed by several of Mr. Bourne's heroes would be accounted large even at the present day, but their benefactions, it must be acknowledged, were in not a few instances upon a scale in proportion to their wealth. Few rich men have lived whose wealth was devoted to such noble uses as that of Edward Colston, of Bristol. Mr. Bourne mentions the following as among his "casual charities":

"On one occasion he gave £1,000 towards the relief of the poor in Whitechapel; and in 1701 he sent another £1,000 to be spent in maintaining the poor children of the same parish, then as now one of the wretchedest parts of London. Twice every week, we are told, he had large quantities of meat and broth prepared for distribution among the paupers in his neighborhood. Every year he went through Whitechapel Prison and the Marshalsea, to empty his purse in liberating the most deserving debtors for small amounts; and at one time he spent a lump sum of £3,000 to relieve and liberate the poor debtors in Ludgate Prison. In 1709, again, a year of famine, he sent a noble present of £20,000 to be applied by the London Committee in helping the starving poor of the city."

Worthy to be ranked, in respect of public munificence, with Edward Colston, is William Brown of Liverpool, a merchant of our own century. After a life spent in good works, his last act was to present the people of Liverpool with a free library, built and furnished at a cost to himself of £40,000. The political services rendered to the country by others in Mr. Bourne's roll of great merchants were hardly less conspicuous than the charities of the more wealthy among them. Indeed, the general impression left by the book is that the influence of commerce and commercial men upon the political destinies of Great Britain has been greatly underrated or altogether unknown to historians hitherto. Mr. Bourne lets in considerable light upon this neglected subject in the volume before us; but the reader feels, all through, that want of space has obliged him to withhold much—perhaps more than he has imparted. His chapters, none the less, abound with curious and instructive information respecting Old World times, and we commend it to the attention of all students of history.

Massacres of the Mountains: a History of the Indian Wars of the Far West. By J. P. Dunn, Jr., M.S., LL B. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. Pp. 784.

This is hardly a systematic history, and at first glance would seem to have too many of the elements of sensational writing for popular use. A more critical examination of the book, however, shows that a good deal of conscientious labor has been bestowed upon it, and that it may fairly claim to be the "History of the Indian Wars of the Far West" which, as a secondary title, is affixed to it. The period covered is that which begins with the Mexican war and the acquisitions of territory which followed it. The chapters are not strictly chronological, but take up the more striking incidents connected with the conflicts with various tribes, making the division of the subject topical from the standpoint of the Indian organizations and the locality of the disturbances.

The writer concludes, as many have done before him, that nothing more inconsistent, more vacillating, or more dishonest can be found in human history than the record of our Governmental dealing with the aborigines of the great West. He finds the Indian Bureau generally in the wrong—doing the things it ought not to do, and leaving undone the things it ought to do. Yet he does not wholly approve the military policy which has been pursued by the War Department, though he would probably have favored the plan of making the army the general administrator of Indian affairs as well as the power to suppress outbreaks by force.

We take it, however, that the book was not written with much expectation of offering a "solution" of the problem. Its less ambitious purpose seems to be to give such graphic descriptions of the Indian wars of the West as will enable the reader to comprehend, and in some degree to realize, what were the horrors of those frontier struggles which have accompanied the gradual subjugation of the red men of the plains and mountains. The problem has solved itself, after a fashion. The buffalo are gone, the smaller game is fast going. The Indians themselves are surrounded by overwhelming numbers of white settlers; they are mainly supported by "Government rations," and the remaining question is whether they shall dwindle away as perennial beggars and vagabonds, or take on some part of civilization and its thrift as a condition of survival in their present environment.

The retrospect is not flattering to our wisdom or our humanity; but the history is one which cannot be greatly varied in any case of conflict between civilized and uncivilized man. Neither can understand the other. Neither can honestly judge the other. There is no common tribunal. Desperadoes of either race have always the opportunity to stir up war, and each will almost necessarily charge the responsibility upon the other. A popular government cannot resist the general current of popular feeling; and whether it be a Chief Joseph unwillingly dragged into a war which he foresees will be the destruction of his tribe, or a President seeing with shame a horde of miners and adventurers breaking in upon Indian reservations, we see in either case phases of the same struggle for existence in which the alien contestants cannot be just to each other, and in which the worst elements and worst passions give character to the conflict.

Mr. Dunn's book has the great merit of sincere effort to bring the actual situation and the prejudices and habits of both sides into view, so that even in the most bloody wars we may see something of human nature in both parties to the contest. We could wish that he had spared us some of the revolting particulars of barbarous practices by both red and white savages; for there are limits of decency which no writer ought to pass, and where the common law of literature in all ages has tolerated at most a suggestion of things which must not be too plainly spoken. The fearful facts are part of the history of the subjugation of a continent by invaders of a more progressive race than the aboriginal stock, but, in spite of the fascination of the tale of mingled heroism and suffering, the intelligent reader must close the book with a sense of shame that a great nation could find no other way to solve such a problem.

Among the numerous woodcuts in the book, the portraits of both Indians and American officers are authentic drawings from photographs, and many of the landscape views are spirited and accurate.

Economics for the People. By R. R. Bowker. Harper & Bros. 1886.

The number of elementary treatises upon political economy has become of late years so considerable that we should have supposed that the supply must be fully equal to the demand. The author of this little book, however, says that it was written because there seemed to be a need for it, and, after a careful examination, we are inclined to commend his judgment. Of course, there is no room in such a book for original research or development of doctrine, but the style is throughout so lucid, the illustrations so abundant, and the treatment so thorough, that the beginner will find it a very satisfactory guide. We cannot agree with the cheerful statement of the writer that economics "is really a simple matter," but we may properly say that he has done a great deal to present it in simple language. His reading has evidently been very wide, and it is certainly surprising that such a diversity of topics can be so adequately treated within the compass of less than three hundred duodecimo pages.

In view of the comprehensiveness of the author's purpose, we think, indeed, that he has been rather unusually successful in avoiding serious inaccuracy. In one or two cases, however, readers unacquainted with political economy might be misled. Thus, at page 46 we read that Ricardo's law of rent is that the amount of rent does not affect price. This is rather a corollary than the law itself, and although it is recognized as true by the writer, he in several places speaks of rent as entering into the cost of production. At page 112 we read that our national-bank currency is protected usually by about 12 per cent. gold reserve, a statement that is in several ways misleading. To say (p. 123) that the doctrine of Malthusianism "holds that population, increasing in much greater proportion than food, will finally outrun food, so that most of the human race must starve to death unless population is checked," is to give an account of this doctrine that no Malthusian would accept. And to say (p. 251) that the 'Wealth of Nations' assigns to the state a wide function as to education, is enough to make Adam Smith turn in his grave. It is a much more serious matter to lay it down that the wages-fund doctrine is now exploded. The notion that wages are paid out of the product of the labor for which they are paid is utterly fallacious, and is probably the source of most of the mischievous doctrines of the Socialists. Wages must necessarily be paid out of previous and not out of anticipated accumulations of wealth. Otherwise it is impossible to escape the absurd conclusion that if a million dollars is paid in wages to the laborers that dig a mine that proves worthless, this amount of money is realized from a product that has no value. The consequences of the prevalent error upon this point are much more grave than is commonly supposed, and must be considered by all who interest themselves in "profit sharing" schemes.

The book is thoroughly optimistic in tone, and is well calculated to arouse the hopes of those who may be inclined to despair of the republic. We must confess, however, that the condition of affairs described in the following statement seems to us as unlikely of attainment as it is desirable: "The American people will probably come, within a generation, to the simplest form of taxation, levying a single tax on land, at its fixed place, not where the owner lives, by which, probably, the national as well as State and local taxes will be collected on one system by the same tax-gatherers, half-yearly or quarterly, and each taxpayer will know all he pays and how it is spent." That is a capital description of the ideal system of taxation, but if there is a shred of evidence showing the existence of the slightest tendency in this direction in any recent legislation, we have failed to discover it.

Gesammelte kleinere Schriften, Reisegedanken und Zeitideen: Ein Lebensbuch. Von Wolfgang Kirchbach. Munich and Leipzig: Otto Heinrichs; New York: Westermann. 1886. Pp. 494.

THE miscellanies here gathered together into a volume have been given the name of a "Lebensbuch," not because they are intended to furnish any one with a substitute for the venerable volume which is often called the Book of Life, but simply because they are supposed to reflect at various stages the intellectual life of their author. The book consists of essays, reviews, addresses, sketches of Italian travel, and a large batch of reflections in the vein of Theophrastus Such. To this list must be added a satirical *jeu d'esprit* at the expense of Paul Heyse, who has often been charged by his critics with an inclination to pose as a modern Goethe. In this piece, which is certainly witty enough in the details, whatever one may think of the central *motif*, Heyse is made to appear before Apollo and the Muses on Parnassus, and to undergo a process of disinfection before he is admitted to the circle of the immortals. In the presence of all the classical magnates of German literature, he descants majestically upon the dramatic shortcomings of Goethe and Schiller, and, by way of showing how he has improved upon his predecessors, recites the plot of his own "Alkibiades." Wieland charges him with having stolen his (Wieland's) inventions. Lessing is called in by Goethe as judge in the case. Heyse proceeds to set forth the points of difference in dramatic theory between himself and the judge. Lessing thereupon pronounces the defendant guilty, and sentences him to recite the plots of all his dramas without blushing and without showing signs of weariness. After that he is to commit to memory the 'Hamburgische Dramaturgie.' Apollo then declares the disinfection complete, and Goethe requests the Muses to bestow a few caresses upon Dr. Heyse, saying graciously: "I shall not be jealous; it would take half a score of such new Goethes to supplant me in your affections."

Of the serious portions of the book (and seriousness is emphatically the author's normal frame of mind) we feel no call to speak at length. The subjects treated represent a wide range of study, and the treatment is usually thoughtful and suggestive, though it is occasionally marred by a certain quality for which there is perhaps no more suitable name than bumptiousness. Critics and criticism, poets and poetry, music, painting, the Homeric question, mind-reading, Hindu philosophy—these are only some of the matters upon which the essayist sets forth his opinions; opinions which pretty uniformly turn out to diverge sharply from those held by representative authorities upon the particular subject under consideration. Thus, by way of example: German criticism has all run to rhetorical phrase-making, and has utterly lost touch with the intellectual life of the nation. Nowhere else is the influence of the higher criticism upon the public taste so feeble as in Germany. Again: The 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey' are indubitably the work of one man, and each poem is dominated by one controlling artistic purpose; a man who can't see this is a literary noodle, and the future is going to put him to shame. Other illustrations might be given of Herr Kirchbach's independent way of looking at things, but we forbear.

We cannot refrain, however, from calling special attention to one essay, a seriously meant performance, which we at any rate have found considerably more diverting than the humorous "Munich Parnassus," already spoken of. It is the short chapter upon the merits of the German as compared with the Roman printed character. Our author is an uncompromising partisan of the former. He defends the German print not only on practical and patriotic but also on high æsthetic and psychological grounds. It is not only that the German letters are the more beautiful, being the natural outgrowth of the mediæval Germanic effort to embellish the stiff and graceless legacy of the Romans, but these highly embellished letters are, if one would but admit it, clearer and easier to read. "All our reading," says Kirchbach, "is in great measure divination (*Erraten*). This divination is facilitated by the highly evolved form of the German letter, whereas the Roman letter impedes it. It is precisely the advantage of all those little hooks and crooks and angularities that they promote rapid divination in the same way that the runes were formerly divined." Equally precious, in the essayist's judgment, are the capitals at the beginning of every substantive:

"Frenchmen and Americans," says he, "make merry over our intricate sentences. Well, it is precisely in virtue of our initial capitals that we can indulge ourselves with these intellectual prodigies. We do not need to prattle in short sentences like children, but, like Demosthenes, the Greek, and like that people of intelligence generally, we can in our might put forth a whole Gothic cathedral of syntax at one powerful mental effort. These initial capitals are bound up with the best part of our intellectual life, since they permit us to anticipate the general import of long sentences. . . . After a fashion they symbolize the nouns, or thing-words, as things, and so come to the aid of our fancy. *Wir sind ein Phantasievolk, und wollen es bleiben mit unseren schönen, geistvoll erfundenen, deutschen Lettern.*"

One may perhaps look indulgently upon this philosophy of the initial capitals, but really it seems as if that of the "hooks and crooks" were a case for the favorite ancient prescription, a dose of hellebore.

Woman in Music. By George P. Upton. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1886. Pp. 221.

SIX years ago Mr. Upton wrote a book on woman's influence in the musical world, but only a few copies got into circulation, as the plates were destroyed by fire. He has now enlarged and reprinted the work, which makes very pleasant summer reading. Though he admits that no woman "has written either an opera, oratorio, symphony, or instrumental work of large dimensions, that is in the modern repertory," he yet succeeds in showing that to woman's influence we owe many of the finest inspirations in musical literature. For great musicians have generally been great admirers of the fair sex, and, like the poets, have written their masterpieces under the influence of love. Mr. Upton adopts two methods to show woman's influence on composers: first, in a series of short biographies of Bach, Handel, Beethoven, Haydn, Mozart, Schubert, Mendelssohn, Schumann, Chopin, Weber, and Wagner, in which we learn that some of these shining lights were almost always in love or at least influenced by admiration and affection; secondly, by an appendix giving a list of works dedicated by these musicians to various women. Thus Beethoven—who was constantly a victim of the tender passion, was twice refused, and more than twice made up his mind to marry—has 36 pieces dedicated to more than 20 different women; Chopin, "whose very name suggests the name of woman," has 39 compositions dedicated to 36 different women; Schumann, who, in his early years flitted from one flower to another, has 35 dedications to almost as many women; etc.

As an interpreter of music, woman has done even more for its advancement than through her influence in rousing the energy of men. The list of great female singers is larger and more imposing than that of tenors and basses. But in instrumental music the relations are reversed, great female players being comparatively rare. And in composition, as already intimated, woman cuts a sorry figure. Mr. Upton gives a list of four female composers in the seventeenth century, 27 in the eighteenth, and 17 in the nineteenth; and of all these the only names generally known are Clara Schumann, Fanny Hensel, and Elise Polko, who, however, got her reputation by her stories rather than by her songs.

The first chapter of Mr. Upton's book is devoted to an analysis of the probable causes which have prevented any woman from being as great in original composition as a few have shown themselves in art and literature. Four reasons are suggested: (1) woman's essentially emotional nature prevents her from "projecting herself outwardly," whatever that may mean; (2) she loses her interest in music with age, while man's seems rather to grow; (3) woman cannot endure the discouragements of the composers—the great battles they have to fight against traditional and prevailing taste; (4) music is not only an art, but an exact science, requiring for its mastery long years of patient toil and continuous application. Concerning the third reason assigned, it is to be said that it does not account for woman's failure to produce works of second-rate merit in the fashion of the day. These are appreciated and pay; but even of these the list is absurdly small. The fourth reason—woman's inability or unwillingness to apply herself to music as a science with sufficient concentration—is the most approximate solution of the question. Musical composition, for orchestra especially, involves an amount of brain power, by reason of its excessive complication, which few who have not tried it can realize. But perhaps the chief reason of woman's failure lies in the fact that music is an impersonal art. Woman's interests are chiefly limited to personal or human relations; hence they excel, to a certain point, as novelists, whereas musical ideas, though they may serve to embody human emotions, are in themselves exceedingly impersonal. Women, though they may study harmony and counterpoint for years, seldom even learn to improvise interestingly.

The Fresh-Water Fishes of Europe: A History of their Genera, Species, Structure, Habits, and Distribution. By H. G. Seeley, F. R. S., etc. Cassell & Co. 1886.

MR. SEELEY has given in this book, we believe, for the first time, a systematic and classified description of the fresh-water fishes of Europe, including the migratory species, such as sturgeon, salmon, and trout, whose existence is divided between inland waters and those of the seas. Owing to the occasional presence of many fish not distinctively migratory in fresh water, which pass most of their time in salt, brackish and salt, and brackish water, and vice-versa, it is difficult to define clearly all the species belonging in the province of fresh-water fishes. While there are trout which pass their entire lives in fresh water, others visit it only for the purpose of spawning, and we think it reasonably certain that a good many salmon rarely, if ever, return from the sea to their native streams. Mr. Seeley mentions "the presence in the brackish waters of the Baltic Sea of perch, pike, roach, and other familiar fresh-water types, making it probable that after a fish has once become a denizen of fresh waters it may again return to a salt-water life." There are also certain of the flat fishes, like the flounder, the plaice, the sole, whitebait, and many others, which come into the shallow and sheltered places at the mouths of rivers to spawn; and as some of them make their way far up the waters, they occasionally become acclimatized, and in any case may be mentioned as fishes found in fresh waters during their wanderings. The sole, though essentially a marine fish, we are told on page 88,

has been kept in confinement in fresh-water ponds in Guernsey, much to its increase in growth, and it frequents the River Arun in Sussex, where it breeds, and attains, as in the Guernsey ponds, a much greater weight than its salt-water brother.

After a few pages devoted to the principles of classification, which are simple and easily understood, we come to the "table of geographical distribution" and the classification itself, which gives the orders, families, genera, species, and principal varieties. Nothing could be better than this preliminary arrangement, which brings what follows easily within the scope of the unscientific reader. The Salmonidæ, as the most important family, is given the greatest space. The waters of Europe are much richer than those of this country in varieties of trout; Mr. Seeley mentioning twenty-nine principal varieties, while we have, so far as known, less than half as many. We make up, however, somewhat for the deficiency in the comparative number of species of trout by the excess in those of salmon, of which our Pacific Coast has five or six well-defined varieties, while only one—the Salmo salar of the Atlantic—is to be found in European waters. The habits of this interesting fish are given to the extent that they are known, though much still remains to be learned. Mr. Seeley is decidedly of opinion that it feeds in fresh water, and gives as instances of its remarkable growth in salt water the case of a grilse kelt of two-pounds' weight, marked on going down to sea, which was captured four months later weighing eight pounds, and a marked salmon of ten pounds increasing to seventeen pounds in six months.

In the chapter on the Pike is narrated what Mr. Seeley says, "if true, is one of the most curious incidents of natural history," as occurring in some of the Swedish lakes, where large birds of prey are in the habit of swooping down on the pike basking at the surface of the water. In these cases, if the pike is more powerful than the bird, the latter, unable to extricate his talons, is borne to the bottom and drowned.

"Incredible as the story seems, Eckström, the Rev. M. Möller, and other writers state that the flesh of the pike heals with the talons of the bird in its back, while the bird becomes converted into a skeleton, which is carried about by the pike. One skeleton, which had long been exhibited by a pike in Lake Wetter, had acquired a greenish tinge, and was regarded by the fishermen as a harbinger of misfortune. Mr. Lloyd tells of another skeleton carried by a pike in Lake Fryksdal, which was known to the fishermen for some time as the Sjötroll, or water sprite, and they fled from it in fear. It is said to have appeared like the horns of an elk or reindeer moving rapidly over the water; but at last Lieut. Lekander put a shot in the pike which carried it, and solved the mystery by proving the water sprite to be the skeleton of a sea eagle."

The book has a general index, an index to specific names and one to common names, and contains many illustrations.

A Stork's Nest, or Pleasant Reading from the North. Collected by John Fulford Vicary. Frederick Warne & Co.

Once in a great while there is a waif of a book, blown to one from some unexpected quarter, which is as refreshing as a cool breeze in summer; it has naturalness and humor and a touch of quaintness, and is so good a "care-charmer" that one forgets all about realism and Paris and Russia, and reads just as if the vast sophistication of modern literature was a thing of naught. This collection of short Danish tales has afforded this happy experience to us. There is a foreign burr in the style, half-a-hundred or more lapses of English, but they need offend no one; if he wants the pure idiom, let him search for it in our popular novelists and bless his stars if he find it there. Here are a number of plain, downright stories, without any theory of life or art, told simply to please the old-fashioned taste in man for a narrative. They are so simple that one thinks they must be meant for children. No steppes, nor slums, nor spiritualists; only homely people in country places, common loves and hates, provincial customs, folk-lore superstitions, humors independent of time and place—surely this is not for grown folks, at least for such as have matured enough not to like Sir Walter Scott. It is all very charming, however, and the thought flitted through our mind that it was like Italian pastoral, with a difference—the difference there is between the Dutch masters and the Italian idealists in painting. But, not to push praise or fancy too far, it is a human book out of the Danish soil, and has fed on pure air; and so we leave it to those who are old-fashioned enough in their literary tastes to relish plain food.

The Pleasures of a Book-Worm. By J. Rogers Rees. George J. Coombes. 1886.

This little volume, which belongs typographically to the catalogue of *Deliciæ Literarum*, is not meant for all comers, but only for those initiated into the art and mystery of literary epicurism. There is a sort of confession in its looks which says: "Don't meddle with me unless you have my weaknesses." The "worm" is a different species from the old kind, the Disraeli breed, which devoured knowledge; it is not of the Dibdin variety either, which feeds on vellum, rare bindings, and unique engravings; it is very modest, very restricted in range, and one suspects that the choice of its diet is determined by its youth and inexperience, since it seems to have got its color principally from the library of the Charles Cowden Clarkes, man and wife. The books of the late Georgian time, Lamb especially, are its sanctuary, and it has made a pretty web out of some poets' dedications, and it has a few bits of quotations on out-of-the-way matters. It loves authors more than books—a quite improper human quality in it; the "worm" of the true stripe does not care a rap for mankind. "Fresh woods and pastures new" is the best wish—and advice—we can give it.

Heraldry, English and Foreign, with a Dictionary of Heraldic Terms. By Robert C. Jenkins, M.A. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1886. 16mo, pp. 111.

At first sight there would seem to be no especial need of another manual of heraldry. Within the past twenty years there has been a revival of interest in the subject, and works like Boutell's have given fresh instruction in an attractive form. The old manuals issued by the book trade have also been retouched, and, while no simple and concise treatise has appeared, the old ground is well covered. This work by Canon Jenkins does not fill the want, but it has a distinct value and interest to the student. He has devoted his labors to a branch of the subject hitherto neglected in English heraldry, but largely considered in Continental heraldry—that is to say, to those varied divisions of the field of which the gyron, the pile, the point, and the mound are examples. In English heraldry, the lines of the divisions are usually straight. The chief, the bend, the pale, the chevron, and the cross are the principal ordinaries. In German and French heraldry the lines are often curved, and much use is made of interlaced or combined ordinaries. So, also, the effective arrangement known as counterchanging is largely used. On these topics our author has much to say, and it may well be that he will thereby enlarge the scope of English heraldry. His book will interest the student, and deserves to be issued in a larger form. But, we must add, his woodcuts are a disgrace to his publisher. The designer evidently was making his first essay in heraldic engraving; and we are not sure but that he was trying his 'prentice hand with the graver on any subject for the first time.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anson, Sir W. R. The Law and Custom of the Constitution. Part I. Parliament. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Brady, J. E. Die Lautveränderungen der neugriechischen Volkssprache. Göttingen.
Buchheim, Prof. C. A. Heine's Harzreise. Vol. VIII. of German Classics. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Cervus, G. I. Cut: A Story of West Point. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippicott Co. 50 cents.
Conway, H. Somebody's Story: John W. Lovell Co. 10 cents.
Crawford, F. M. Dr. Claudius: A True Story. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Drumont, E. La France Juive. 2 vols. Boston: Schoenhof.
Fall, C. G. A Village Sketch, and Other Poems. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Fontalne, F. G. de. Condensed Long-Hand and Rapid Writer's Companion. American News Co. $1.25.
Forde, Gertrude. In the Old Palazzo: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Freeman, Prof. E. A. Greater Greece and Greater Britain, and George Washington the Expander of England. Two Lectures. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Fuller, E. Fellow-Travellers: A Story. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. $1.50.
Grousset, René. Œuvres posthumes. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.
Gunsaulus, F. W. The Transfiguration of Christ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Hayes, Helen. Aspirations. Thomas Whittaker.
Hinton, J. The Mystery of Pain. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Janes, E. Human Psychology: An Introduction to Philosophy. Revised ed. Baker & Taylor. $1.50.
Jenkins, E. The Secret of Her Life. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Laing-Mason, M. Sir William's Speculations; or, the Seamy Side in Finance. Scribner & Welford.
Le Plongeon, A. Sacred Mysteries among the Mayas and the Quiches, 11,500 Years Ago. Their Relation to the Sacred Mysteries of Egypt, Greece, Chaldea, and India. Free Masonry in Times Anterior to the Temple of Solomon. Illustrated. Robert Macoy.
Macmillan, Rev. H. The Olive Leaf: Sermons. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
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Moore, Helen. Shelley, Mary Wollstonecraft. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
O'Meara, K. Un Salon à Paris: Mme. Mohl et ses intimes. F. W. Christern.
Plato. The Trial and Death of Socrates. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Praed, Mrs. Campbell. The Head Station: A Novel of Australian Life. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Putnam, Eleanor. Old Salem. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Radestock, Dr. P. Habit, and its Importance in Education. From the German. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 65 cents.
Raymond, G. L. Modern Fishers of Men: A Tale of the Various Sexes, Sects, and Sets of Chartville Church and Community. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Reimensnyder, Dr. J. B. The Six Days of Creation; the Fall; and the Deluge. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.25.
Rhodes, Dr. M. Vital Questions Pertaining to Christian Belief. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.
Rosengarten, J. G. The German Soldier in the Wars of the United States. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Rossetti, Maria Francesca. A Shadow of Dante. Being an Essay Toward Studying Himself, His World, and His Pilgrimage. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.50.
Schopenhauer, A. The World as Will and Idea. Vols. II. and III. London: Trübner & Co.
Scudder, H. E. Stories and Romances. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Sergeant, Adeline. No Saint. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Sill, J. M. B. Practical Lessons in English. A. S. Barnes & Co. 70 cents.
Sketch of the Women's Art Museum Association of Cincinnati. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke.
Smith, G. P. The Law of Field Sports: A Summary of the Rules of Law Affecting American Sportsmen. O. Judd Co. $1.
Southern Bivouac. New Series. Vol. I. June, 1885, to May, 1886. Louisville: B. F. Avery & Sons.
Stevens, H. Recollections of Mr. James Lenox, of New York, and the Formation of his Library. London: Henry Stevens & Son.
Theuriet, André. Hélène. F. W. Christern.
Thompson, G. C. Public Opinion and Lord Beaconsfield. 1875–1880. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $9.
Thompson, Sir H. Diet in Relation to Age and Activity. Scribner & Welford.
Traill, H. D. Shaftesbury (the First Earl). D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Wentworth, Dr. J. B. The Logic of Introspection; or, Method in Mental Science. Phillips & Hunt. $2.
Whitney, Mrs. A. D. T. A Summer in Leslie Goldthwaite's Life. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Wilcox, Ella Wheeler. Perdita and Other Stories. J. S. Ogilvie & Co.
Wilson Fowler. The Principles of Morals. (Introductory Chapters.) Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Wilson, J. G. Lyrics of Life. Caxton Book Concern.
Winter, J. S. Army Society: Life in a Garrison Town. Illustrated. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Wolff, A. La Capitale de l'Art. Boston: Schoenhof.
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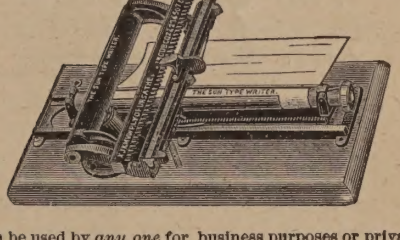

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 24, 1886.

The Week.

THE Democratic platform of 1884 pledged the party to "revise the tariff in a spirit of fairness to all interests," on the principle, however, that "all taxation shall be limited to the requirements of economical government." The Republican platform of the same year in like manner "pledged the party to correct the irregularities of the tariff . . . by such methods as would relieve the taxpayer without injuring the laborer or the great productive interests of the country." So that both parties acknowledged that there were irregularities in the tariff which ought to be corrected, and pledged themselves to correct them; and that the duties levied by the tariff were too high, and ought in some cases at least to be reduced, and pledged themselves to reduce them.

It is now just two years since these pledges were made; Congress has sat for two winters, and nothing has been done to redeem the pledges by either party. Revising bills have been introduced each winter by the Democratic Committee of Ways and Means, have been more or less debated, and then unceremoniously voted down. On Thursday the last of these bills came up, at the end of a long session, on the question, not whether it should pass, but whether it should be considered, and even consideration was denied to it by a vote of 140 to 157. The opposition to consideration was made by 122 Republicans and 35 Democrats, while it was supported by 136 Democrats and 4 Republicans. It will thus be seen that if the Democrats had kept their pledges, or shown any desire to do so, a revision of the tariff would, as far as the House could do it, have taken place. If the Republicans had kept theirs, the revision of the tariff would have been at least discussed, and the voters would have ascertained what, from the Republican point of view, the "irregularities of the tariff" spoken of in the platform were, and by what "process" the party proposed to reduce the surplus instead of "the vicious and undiscriminating process of horizontal reduction," and what "the methods" were which would "relieve the taxpayer without injuring the laborer or the great productive interests of the country." Regarding all these things the country is now as much in the dark as ever. The irregularities in the tariff are admitted on all sides, but there appears to be no power in the nation capable of correcting them. Neither party seems to be willing to become responsible for any useful legislation. Beyond a lavish distribution of pensions, and a bootless quarrel with the President about nominations to office, Congress has nothing in either house to show for its salaries, or for the trouble and expense of electing it. Moreover, it appears to be clear now that, no matter what a man's views on the tariff may be, he can do nothing to carry them out by voting for either party. Both refuse to touch the tariff at all.

A fortnight ago the House rejected a motion to starve out the Civil-Service Commission by refusing to make appropriation for their salaries, only 18 members out of 325 voting for it. On Friday the Senate voted to postpone indefinitely, which is equivalent to rejecting, a bill to repeal the Civil-Service Law, only 6 members out of 76 recording themselves in the negative. To understand what these overwhelming defeats of the spoilsmen in the two branches of Congress mean, one must recall the fact that only a dozen years ago a Republican House, with but little opposition, refused to make any allowance for the expenses of the Commission appointed by President Grant, and thus for some time blocked the progress of the movement. Even the spoilsmen at last appreciate that the reform "has come to stay," and only the blindest politicians any longer venture to fight it. Nothing more fortunate for the cause could possibly have happened than the recent assaults upon the merit system by Mr. Randall in the House and Mr. Vance in the Senate. They have provoked a discussion of the subject by the press, which has shown that the Democratic voters heartily support the President, and have no patience with his assailants, and that, in the words of the Galveston *News*, the leading Democratic paper of the strongest Democratic State in the Union, "any interference with the reform law, except in a spirit of progress, and to extend its efficiency, would be considered odious by the country." The President proposes to meet this popular demand for an extension of the law's efficiency, and the announcement that the rules will soon be so revised as to widen the scope of the competitive system, is only a proper response to a popular demand. It would thus appear that the "clean sweep" so often announced by the *Sun*, and for which, according to the "gentleman who claims to know the facts," all the preparations were recently made, has again been indefinitely postponed.

Mr. Springer made a speech in the House the other day on the treatment of the civil service by the present Administration, in which he said, apropos of the charges of partisanship and "clean sweep" made against Col. Black, the present Commissioner of Pensions, that the late Commissioner of Pensions, Col. Dudley, took the eligible list furnished him by the Civil-Service Commission, and appointed from it for one year eighty-five special examiners, all Republicans. The remainder of the 150 provided for by the law of 1884 had been taken by promotions from among those already in the service. In 1885 Col. Black came in, and the term of these 150 expired during the year. Seventy-five of the vacancies, Mr. Springer says, Col. Black filled from those already in office. For the remainder he drew on the list of eligibles of the Civil-Service Commission, which sent in to him (Col. Black) the whole list, without reference to the rule confining the choice for each vacancy to the first four names on the list. It is charged, and we believe admitted, that he filled seventy-one of the remaining seventy-five vacancies with Democrats. Mr. Springer's defence of this is that, in doing so, he did no worse than Col. Dudley had done. This may be true, but if it be, it is true also that when he selected these candidates because they were Democrats, he violated both the spirit and letter of the law; but the Commissioners connived at, and indeed facilitated his offence, by sending him in indiscriminately the whole list of eligibles. The case is a good and useful illustration of the way in which the Randall rider would have worked.

Mr. Springer gives a most tantalizing list of good fat offices in the classified list still held by Republican appointees. We may as well say, however, for the information of lazy, good-for-nothing Democratic politicians, that they are all or nearly all offices requiring special training of some kind, such as a rockribbed Democrat or a political "worker" hardly ever possesses. There is also a formidable list of Presidential offices not covered by the Civil-Service Law, to which Mr. Cleveland has not made new appointments. We will not say what the number is, because it would excite the bad passions of tens of thousands of worthless Democrats, and perhaps prevent their making another attempt to take up some line of honest industry. Suffice it to say that their number is such as to furnish a striking proof of the President's resistance to the abuses of the old system.

Gov. Robinson of Massachusetts has done the whole country a service by the forcible and effective way in which he has frustrated the attack of the demoralized Republicans of that State on the State Civil-Service Law. There, as at Washington, "the soldier element" is used to breed and spread a spirit of hostility to all reform, and a disregard of the condition of the public service.

The President sent another batch of vetoes to the Senate on Monday. One of them stopped a bill which was almost a grotesque illustration of the carelessness with which Congress passes these measures. It directed the name of a soldier's widow to be placed on the pension roll, subject to the pension laws. It turns out now that her name *is* on the pension roll under the law already, and has been there since February of this year, her pension dating from November of last year; so that the bill seems to have been drafted and passed in sheer ignorance of the facts of the widow's case. To send up such a bill for the President's signature is, of course, to say the least, disrespectful. Another of these bills puts on the pension roll the widow of a commodore in the navy who died of heart disease ten years after the war, and her application had been already rejected by the Pension Bureau because of her failure to show that the disease of which her husband died had any connection with the war. Another gives a soldier, already in receipt of a pension, $9,000 of back pension, for a period of fifteen years, during which he had made no claim on

account of incapacity from disease, and removes the limit of time fixed by the law of 1879, or in other words repeals it for the benefit of this one man. Another gives a widow a pension on account of the death of her husband from inflammation of the stomach ten years after the war, and disregards the fact that her application is pending before the Bureau. Another provides for the erection of United States buildings at a cost of $100,000, at Sioux City, Iowa, not because the business of the Government at that point calls for them, but because the population is growing rapidly, and there is already a considerable number of other buildings in the town. Another orders a "substantial and commodious public building, with fire-proof vaults," at a cost of $100,000, with an open space around it to protect it from adjacent fires, which is to provide accommodation for the post-office, and internal revenue office, and pension office, at Zanesville, Ohio, though the only Federal office in the place is the post-office.

The Republican Senate did a good piece of work on Friday in passing the joint resolution providing for the submission to the States of a Constitutional amendment extending the period of the President's term and the session of the Fiftieth Congress until April 30, 1889, and substituting April 30 for March 4 as the beginning in future of the Presidential and Congressional terms. The Democratic House should promptly concur, and thus send the amendment to the Legislatures of the various States, which will undoubtedly ratify it. The measure is non-partisan; there are sound arguments in its favor, and no valid objections to it, and its adoption would fittingly commemorate the hundredth anniversary of Washington's original inauguration.

The way in which the Canadians have behaved to Blaine, Frye, Butler, and the Gloucester fishermen is one of the basest acts of treachery in political annals. As our readers know, they issued on the 1st of May an order forbidding foreign vessels to come within the three-mile limit for any purposes but shelter, repairs, and obtaining wood and water. American ships could not under this order obtain bait or other supplies, or men. This was a most useful arrangement to the Maine politicians, and they prepared to base on it a beautiful and stirring war with Great Britain, which would revive industry, ruin the Administration, enrich our fishermen, and give the White House to its rightful owners. Blaine, Frye, Hale, Reed, and all of them wanted war, and war to the knife. They were going to arm themselves and all their neighbors, and fight eight hours a day, but with a half holiday on Saturdays, until Canada crawled on her belly and England was brought to her knees. Now what have the Canadians done, after considerable expense had been incurred on our side, but rescind the order, and issue another allowing Americans to get everything they please within the three-mile limit as long as they do not stay over twenty-four hours? The baseness and cunning of this does not call for comment from us. It deprives the fishery issue of all value in our politics at one stroke, and without a cent of compensation to its owners.

The failure to punish Mr. Edmunds in Vermont for his conduct towards Mr. Blaine during the canvass of 1884, is one of the numerous bad signs which have attended the reproduction of the latter gentleman's "boom." Nothing would have been more effective in support of Mr. Blaine's claims at the Convention of 1888 than such proof as Mr. Edmunds's loss of the Senatorship would have afforded, of the danger of doubting Mr. Blaine's value as a Presidential candidate. In fact, what is most of all needed to make his reappearance really successful is a striking example of ruin overtaking some Republican politicians who opposed him, or failed to support him cordially, or else of Mugwumps really sorry for having opposed him, and honest enough to confess it. Thus far nothing of the kind has appeared. In fact, we have never heard of any evil consequences to any Republican for not supporting or for opposing the Republican nomination of 1884, except the cancelling of some lecture engagements which had been made with Mr. Schurz and Mr. Beecher, in very rabid districts, and these demonstrations occurred immediately after the election. To-day we presume their authors are rather ashamed of them. Not one Mugwump has come forward to say that if he had known in 1884 what he knows now, he never would have voted for Mr. Cleveland. We have never heard or read of such a person. On the other hand, we presume everybody has dozens of persons within the circle of his acquaintance who are willing to confess that the political reasons which led them to swallow Mr. Blaine's unsavory personal character were not well founded, and would not again influence their judgment.

The Vermont Republicans seem to have found it pretty hard to get proofs of Democratic unfitness to control the Government. Their platform cites as evidence that the Democratic party is opposed to civil-service reform, the fact that a "rider practically annulling the civil-service rules was attached bya Democratic committee to an important appropriation bill," although, as everybody knows, the rider was rejected, and a motion to starve out the Commission by refusing to appropriate for their salaries, such as Gen. Butler carried through a Republican House a dozen years ago, received only eighteen votes. The platform also condemns the "extravagant appropriations made by the Democratic House," although the truth is that the extravagant legislation of the session has been initiated in the Republican Senate, which passed by large majorities Mr. Blair's $77,000,000 Educational Subsidy Bill and his Pension Bill, which would take out of the Treasury anywhere from $50,000,000 to $200,000,000 a year —the Vermont Senators in each case being recorded among the majority.

The Tennessee Republicans were very frank in their treatment of the prohibition question at their recent convention. A platform was reported in which there was a resolution favoring the submission to the people of a prohibitory constitutional amendment. There was a lively debate upon this, and the outcome of it was the adoption of the following as a substitute: "Resolved, That the Republican party of the State of Tennessee recognize the right of the people to have the prohibition amendment voted upon at the ballot-box." This resolution was the production of Congressman Houk, who made a speech explaining its purport, in which he said: "I believe in the right of the people to vote on this subject if they want to. I tried to make the resolution look both ways, to straddle. It is the people's prerogative. When you look in it you don't say which side is right." This speech was received with uproarious laughter, and the resolution was regarded as a fine bait for prohibition votes. That there may be no question of Mr. Houk's party orthodoxy, we quote the following sentence from his speech at the opening of the convention:

"Suppose Jim Blaine had been elected. [Continued applause.] If James G. Blaine and John A. Logan [cheers] had been elected and either occupied the White House to-day, would we have what is virtually civil war in strikes in so many parts of the country?"

Ohio is making another experiment at regulation of the liquor traffic. The State Constitution prohibits the licensing of the business, and the difficulty has been to place any restriction upon the traffic which did not amount to a license in the eye of the law. Two attempts of this sort in recent years have been overruled by the Supreme Court, but the last Legislature made another trial which it is hoped will stand the test of the courts, the present law imposing a reasonable tax upon the saloon-keeper. The liquor-dealers at first talked about resisting the enforcement of the law, upon the plea that it had not been legally adopted, as the Senate which adopted it had not a quorum by reason of the absence of the Democratic members, who, it will be remembered, left their seats and ran out of the State. The Supreme Court, however, has just decided that the Senate was legally constituted when it passed the law, and the saloon-keepers appear generally disposed to accept the situation. Ohio has had a sad experience with liquor legislation during the past decade, and it will be a great thing for the State if it has at last got an efficient system of restricting the traffic.

There has been a good deal of discussion as to whether the prohibition law is enforced in the State of Maine. The Prohibitionists of Maine cannot be suspected of a disposition to misrepresent the facts to the disadvantage of the policy which they advocate. The platform just adopted by the Prohibition State Convention at Portland says: "In Portland, Bangor, Biddeford, Lewiston, Bath, Augusta, Hallowell, and other cities and towns of the State, so far from the impartial enforcement of the law being adhered to from principle, the law is enforced or not as the personal will of the officer or party exigencies demand."

The Massachusetts Senate has closed the Field trouble by adopting unanimously the

House resolution giving Mr. Field "leave to withdraw." It appears, too, that four members of the Committee which signed the report pronouncing both the Governor and Mr. Field blameless, were seduced into that absurdity by being told untruly that all parties would be satisfied with this result, and they now regret their action. In the Senate the affair was fully ventilated, with the above consequence. Mr. James G. Blaine, too, appears to have taken a hand in the matter, and suffers through Mr. Field's failure. There is a rumor from London that Mr. Field has telegraphed from that city that he is going now to bring a libel suit. But he will only do this to keep himself in good standing with Canon Farrar while he is in England. He will not push the suit after he comes home.

The workingmen are finding out by bitter experience that professional "friends of labor" are their worst enemies. In all parts of the country, strikers who resorted to boycotting and violence to enforce their demands are being fined and sent to the penitentiary. Even the high dignitaries of the Knights of Labor are not exempted from the rigor of the law. The other day a Master Workman of a district assembly of Knights at Pacific, Missouri, was sentenced to two years in the penitentiary and fined $500 for trying to wreck a freight train during the strike. On Thursday at Pittsburgh, twenty-four coal miners who had assaulted non-union men, and committed other offences during a strike, were sentenced to eight months' imprisonment in the county workhouse. Fourteen of them are married men. One of their leaders thus bewails his fate: "The idea that I have to spend eight months of my short life in the workhouse in company with felons and criminals of every class, away from my sick wife and helpless family of eight children, makes me shudder. Particularly is it so when I consider that my crime, if crime it was, was that of presiding over a mass meeting at which I scarcely expressed an opinion. We may well ask: Where are our boasted liberties?" He has learned that this is a land of law as well as of liberty, but he does not seem to have realized yet that every man who breaks a law, whatever his motive in doing so, is a criminal. The idea that the cause of labor was so sacred that the laws of the land could be violated with impunity in its name, has, we trust, been severely shaken among the laboring classes as well as in the newspaper offices.

Some speculators in Confederate bonds recently tried to get up a "boom" by hiring a New York lawyer to go before a Congressional committee and with a serious face make an argument for the payment of the bonds by the Federal Government. The bloody-shirt organs hailed the performance with the greatest enthusiasm, and some of the more sanguine apparently expected to carry the fall elections upon this issue. Unfortunately for these plans, however, the Southern press refuses to take the matter seriously, the Richmond (Va.) *Dispatch*, a thoroughly representative paper, declaring that "talk about the payment of Confederate bonds is 'unmitigated rot.'" When the "rebels" themselves ridicule the idea of paying "rebel claims," even the most stupid of Republican organs must realize that this issue is unavailable.

The opponents of compulsory prayer at Harvard College have at last won a victory in securing the concurrence of the Board of Overseers with the Faculty in ordering its abolition, with the support of the Plummer Professor of Christian Morals and the college preachers. A more curious example of the power of conservatism it would be hard to find anywhere than the stubbornness with which this change has been opposed by the Overseers. The only argument against it which would bear a moment's examination was the probability that the respect for religion on the part of his elders shown in compelling a young man to go to prayers, whether he wished it or not, would somehow, after a while, make such an impression on him that he too would begin to respect religion; but there was probably hardly a man in the Board who did not know, as a matter of personal experience, that it was worthless. Of course the notion that the Deity would be pleased or placated, and induced to pour out blessings on the University or any individual member of it, by having a few hundred youths forced every week, under temporal penalties, into a house of worship, to listen, in a thoroughly irreverent and rebellious state of mind, to some one else praying, would not bear examination at all.

The *Times* says:

"Our contemporary, the *Sun*, is making war upon the indecent photographs and lithographs so plentifully exhibited in the windows of cigar stores. Its criticisms are just and proper. These pictures are becoming more and more immodest. They are not a legitimate advertisement, for it cannot be shown that they increase the sale of cigars and cigarettes; and they offend the public sense of decency."

The vendors of indecent photographs and lithographs have, however, exactly the same arguments in their favor as the vendors of minute "worked up" accounts of rapes, seductions, elopements, and scandals of all kinds. What these last plead in their own defence is that the public demands this sort of thing, and that it, therefore, increases "sales." We feel quite sure that the indecent photograph men have the same excuse. They do not exhibit their wares for pleasure, but for profit, and they find their account in it. They have probably learned that decent photographs and lithographs sell only moderately, while the indecent ones go off like hot cakes. They are therefore in precisely the same category with the indecent newspaper men. The *Sun*, which printed the filthy revelations of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, is a funny critic of the poor fellows who exhibit the indecent lithographs. Men and brethren, as Horace Greeley used to say, are not these things sickening?

Mr. Gladstone has, all accounts agree, opened the campaign most auspiciously. His worst enemies admit that they did not look for anything like the popular enthusiasm which his presence everywhere calls forth. He has put the Tories on the defensive from the first moment by laying hold of Lord Salisbury's foolish abuse of the Irish as no better fitted for self-government than "the Hottentots," and his proposal that they should be coerced for twenty years before receiving even a modified control of their own affairs. This has furnished Mr. Gladstone with his electioneering cry—"Salisbury and Coercion, or Gladstone and Conciliation." Accordingly, Lord Salisbury is now trying to explain every day that coercion is not what he meant; but it is very awkward to open an excited canvass with a protest against misconstruction. Mr. Gladstone also has performed on the Whigs and on the Chamberlainites the process known, in our slang, as "putting them in a hole"; that is, he has frankly abandoned his bill. He says it dies with the present Parliament as a matter of course, and all that the constituencies have to decide is whether Ireland is to have a Legislature of her own, and whether Mr. Gladstone is to be charged with framing a new measure for that purpose. Now a large number of the Whigs and all the Chamberlainites are committed already to the principle of home rule, and are estopped by long service under him from denying Gladstone's ability to deal with the question, if the constituencies desire it to be dealt with. It was the bill they attacked, and, the bill being now gone, they will, if they continue the contest, be reduced to the necessity of opposing home rule on the stump and denouncing Gladstone for proposing it in any shape.

The reported lack of funds and candidates among the Gladstonian Liberals is rather alarming for them. In England the election expenses are rigidly fixed by law, and anything beyond the legal maximum exposes the candidate not only to the loss of his seat on a trial before the courts, but possibly to a term of imprisonment. But they are nevertheless so heavy that a poor man cannot face them without assistance. In a borough, if the number of electors on the register does not exceed 2,000, the candidate may spend for all purposes, except personal expenses and the returning officer's fees, $1,750. If the number exceeds 2,000, then $150 for every additional complete 1,000. In Ireland the candidate is allowed to spend on a somewhat more liberal scale—that is, $1,000 for 500 electors, and $1,250 for any number between 500 and 1,000, and $1,375 for any number between 1,000 and 1,500. In the counties where the number of electors does not exceed 2,000, the candidate may spend $3,250 in England and Scotland, and $2,500 in Ireland If the number exceeds 2,000, then he may spend $3,550 in England and Scotland, and $2,700 in Ireland, and an additional $300 in England and Scotland, and an additional $200 in Ireland, for every complete 1,000 electors over 2,000. In all these cases the things on which the money may be spent are rigidly defined. Now, the Tories and Whigs are not nearly as rich as they were, but they are still far better able to supply money and candidates to meet these demands than the Radicals or Home-Rulers are, and they make no secret of the fact that they rely on their superior money power to save "the unity of the empire"

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 16, to TUESDAY, June 22, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC

THE Senate on Friday by a vote of 33 to 6 indefinitely postponed Mr. Vance's bill to repeal the Civil-Service Law. Of the thirty-three yeas eight were cast by Democrats. The nays were by Berry, Call, Eustis, Harris, Jones of Nevada, and Vance. Had they not been paired Beck, Kenna, and Saulsbury would have joined these six. The Senate passed Mr. Frye's bill "for the encouragement of the American merchant marine and to promote postal and commercial relations with foreign countries." This is the proposition to subsidize American vessels carrying the United States mails. The Senate also, by a two-thirds vote, passed the joint resolution introduced by Mr. Ingalls providing for the submission to the several States of a Constitutional amendment extending the period of the President's term and the session of the Fiftieth Congress until April 30, 1889, and substituting April 30 for March 4 as the commencement in future of the Presidential and Congressional terms.

The Senate Committee on Indian Affairs has finally reported favorably on the nomination of Morris A. Thomas to be Indian Inspector.

The House on Wednesday added a clause to the Legislative Appropriation Bill increasing the pay of the scrubwomen employed in public buildings throughout the country from $15 to $20 a month, and giving them a vacation with pay for thirty days each year.

In the House on Thursday Mr. Morrison moved that the House go into Committee of the Whole to consider the revenue bills. In answer to Mr. McKinley he stated that his purpose was to consider the general Tariff Bill. Thereupon Mr. McKinley said that he concurred with Mr. Morrison in his demand for the yeas and nays, and the Speaker ordered the clerk to call the roll. Mr. Morrison's motion to go into Committee of the Whole was defeated; yeas 140, nays 157. Messrs. Hewitt, Adams, Belmont, Beach, Felix Campbell, James, and Mahoney of the New York Democratic delegation voted for consideration, and Messrs. Arnot, Bliss, Tim. Campbell, Davenport, Dowdney, Merriman, Muller, Spriggs, Stahlnecker, Viele, and Pindar voted in the negative. The Speaker voted for consideration. Great applause greeted the announcement. Mr. Morrison gave notice that he would renew his motion on Tuesday, and Mr. McKinley stated that the opponents of the bill would be on hand. Thirty-three Democrats in all voted against consideration.

In the House on Friday Mr. Kelley (Rep., Pa.) read another important letter from the late Secretary Stanton to the Rev. H. Dyer. In it he said: "In respect to any combination by Mr. Chase, Mr. Seward, and myself against Gen. McClellan, it is utterly false. For reasons not necessary to mention, fire and water would as soon combine. Each does his duty as he deems right. In respect to the imputation of selfish or ambitious motives denial is needless. Those who make the imputation do it ignorant of my principles of action or with prejudiced feelings, and, like all other public men, I must expect and patiently bear misconstruction and false report. In respect to the present condition of affairs, all I can say is that the whole power of the Government is being put forth with more vigor, and, I think, more earnestness, on the part of military commanders, than at any former period. Treason is encouraged in the Northern States by the just discontent of the people. But believing our national destiny is as immediately in the hands of the Most High as ever were the Children of Israel, I am not only undismayed, but full of hope."

The President sent to the House on Saturday the Dingley Shipping Bill, with the Frye amendment, approved. He accompanied it with a message calling attention to some omissions in the bill which would prevent the First Comptroller from auditing some of the necessary expenses under the law, and suggesting supplementary legislation. Mr. Dingley and Mr. Frye are confident that the supplemental legislation will be enacted without opposition.

The House passed the Naval Appropriation Bill on Monday. The Senate disagreed with the House amendments to the Army, and Consular and Diplomatic bills.

The conference of Democratic Representatives in Washington, on Monday night, to secure action on the tariff, voted, on motion of Mr. Morrison, to appoint a committee of one Representative from each State that furnished Democratic votes for the motion to consider the Tariff Bill, to formulate an address to the country explaining the position of the party, and to secure votes for the consideration of the tariff measure. Mr. Morrison did not move to call up his bill on Tuesday, anticipating inevitable defeat.

It is said that Mr. Randall has prepared a bill reducing the tariff in accordance with his own protection ideas.

President Cleveland on Monday sent fifteen vetoes to Congress, most of them referring to private pension bills. In one of them he says: "With the Pension Bureau fully equipped and regulated by the most liberal rules, in active operation, supplemented in its work by constant special legislation, it certainly is not unreasonable to suppose that in all the years that have elapsed since the close of the war, the majority of the meritorious claims for pensions have been presented and determined. I have now more than 130 of these bills before me awaiting Executive action. It will be impossible to bestow upon them all the examination they deserve, and many will probably become operative which should be rejected. In the meantime I venture to suggest the significance of the startling increase in this kind of legislation, and the consequences involved in its continuance." In vetoing the Senate bill to provide for a public building in Zanesville, Ohio, he says: "While a fine Government building is a desirable ornament to any town or city, and while the securing of an appropriation therefor is often considered as an illustration of zeal and activity in the interest of a constituency, I am of the opinion that the expenditure of public money for such a purpose should depend upon the necessity of such a building for public uses."

The Tennessee Republicans on Wednesday nominated Alfred A. Taylor for Governor. The platform favors the passage of the Blair bill, the protection of American labor, and a protective tariff, and demands the repeal of the internal-revenue system, that corporations shall pay their employees in money and not in scrip and merchandise, and favors a better mechanics' lien law and home rule for Ireland.

The Vermont Republican State Convention on Wednesday nominated Ebenezer J. Ormsbee for Governor on the first ballot. It was a victory for the Edmunds men in the Convention.

The Maine Prohibition Convention on Thursday nominated Aaron Clark, a farmer, for Governor.

The Massachusetts Senate has voted in favor of the House resolve giving Cyrus W. Field leave to withdraw by 26 to none.

Gov. Robinson of Massachusetts on Monday vetoed the bill exempting soldiers from the provisions of the Massachusetts Civil-Service Act.

The Harvard Overseers, after a protracted debate on Wednesday, concluded action on the prayer petition. They voted to concur with the President and Fellows in their action as follows: "Voted, on the unanimous recommendation of the Plummer Professor and the preachers to the University, that the statute numbered 15, concerning religious services, be amended by striking out the clause by which the attendance of students is required."

The statue of Daniel Webster presented to the State of New Hampshire by Mr. Benjamin Pierce Cheney of Boston was dedicated on Thursday at Concord with imposing civic and military ceremonies.

Edwin Percy Whipple died on Wednesday of pneumonia. He was born in Gloucester, Mass., on March 18, 1819, and in early life was a bank clerk in Boston. He became Superintendent of the reading room of the Merchants' Exchange at its foundation, and continued to hold the position until 1860. A poem which he delivered before the Library Association in 1840 was full of humor, and made a decided hit. In 1843 he published his essay on Macaulay, which secured from the historian a letter expressing high regard. He contributed a number of essays to the *North American Review*, *Christian Examiner*, and other publications which were collected in book form. Mr. Whipple was some years ago one of the most popular lecturers in the field, and as such journeyed all through the Middle and Northern States. Whipple's published works include 'Essays and Reviews' (2 vols., 1848), 'Lectures on Subjects Connected with Literature and Life' (1849), a 'Life of Macaulay' prefixed to an edition of his essays (1860), 'Character and Characteristic Men' (1867), 'The Literature of the Age of Elizabeth,' a course of lectures delivered in 1859 before the Lowell Institute (1869), and a new volume of essays (1871). There is a comparatively new edition of his works in six volumes.

Benjamin Moran, ex-United States Minister to Portugal, died in Essex County, England, on Monday, at the age of sixty-six. He was Secretary of Legation in London from 1854 to 1874.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone left London on Thursday morning on his campaign journey to Midlothian. The scenes at the station were unparalleled in enthusiasm. When Mr. Gladstone arrived at Edinburgh 40,000 people lined the route from the railway station to the hotel. He was cheered incessantly. At all the towns on the way enormous crowds greeted him. At Carlisle Mr. Gladstone made a speech, in which he said that he should like to ask Lord Carnarvon what he told Mr. Parnell in the interview at Dublin, and to whom he imparted the conversation. If Lord Carnarvon knew his duty as a Cabinet Minister, he must have revealed the conversation to Lord Salisbury. It would have been treachery for him to hold such talk with a person in Mr. Parnell's position, and not tell Lord Salisbury. He (Gladstone) should therefore feel convinced that Lord Carnarvon did his duty until the latter should deny that he repeated the conversation. It was necessary for the nation to be exactly informed on this subject.

In Music Hall, Edinburgh, on Friday evening, Mr. Gladstone spoke before a very large and enthusiastic audience. He spoke for an hour and a half, and at the end of the speech a vote of confidence in him was carried unanimously. In the course of his address he said: "Well, gentlemen, the real rival policy is coercion. We won't quarrel about the word, but it means a policy of special repressive criminal legislation for Ireland to the exclusion of the remainder of Great Britain. You must choose between a policy of coercion and a policy of conciliation. Lord Salisbury describes my reference to his policy of twenty years' coercion as one of the most deliberate misstatements on record. Well, I hold by it; I mean to hold by it, I mean to repeat it, I mean to impress it upon the country, and I mean that the country shall fairly have the means of coming to an issue on it, and to know whether it is true or false. The Salisbury Government on the 26th of January announced in both houses a policy of coercion in Ireland. The Queen's speech, which had previously heralded such announcement of the intention to use the severest measures to re-

press the National League, was received by the Tories with frantic cheers, which rang long and loud. Lord Salisbury may deny that he advocated coercion, but his own words and acts prove that he did. He vainly endeavors to escape, but he is caught in a net wherein he is inextricably coiled. His other alternatives are simply quicksands, ever slipping, ever vanishing. Do not, gentlemen, do not stand upon those quicksands, however imposingly named. There are only two policies before the country, and it remains with you to decide between them."

Mr. Gladstone addressed another large and enthusiastic public meeting in Edinburgh on Monday. He asked: "What would you think, gentlemen, if on any subject vitally touching your interests, sixty of your seventy-two representatives with one voice made a distinct demand in behalf of Scotland—in respect to which it was clear that the interests of the empire were not threatened—what would you think of the rejection of that measure?" Mr. Gladstone spoke in Glasgow on Tuesday and then returned to England.

Lord Salisbury spoke at Leeds on Friday evening to an audience of 5,000. In his speech he said: "We may say that criminal law is all coercion. If Mr. Gladstone is opposed to it, we must presume that he sympathizes with criminals against whom efforts are being made. Our coercion, which he denounces, was directed against robbery, murder, mutilation, terrorism, and a system of organized intimidation which made life bitter to thousands of innocent persons. I wonder if he ever thought for a moment what following our Cabinet by an anti-coercion Cabinet meant. All we desire is that the law be sufficiently business-like and efficacious to carry out its own behests. Coercion means nothing else in our mouths, and to compare that with the coercion that Mr. Gladstone exercised at Kilmainham is a mere juggle upon words. You ask whether I am prepared to answer the demand for local government in Ireland. My reply is that local government and home rule have nothing whatever to do with each other. I have always advocated a good system of local government for England, Scotland, and Ireland, the essence of which is that it is under the control of the central Government and undertakes the duties consigned to it; that it passes by-laws, not laws, and should not be independent. Men can manage their local affairs better, or at least more to their taste, than those at a distance can manage for them; and they can also learn in the practice of local government their duties to the imperial Parliament. I thoroughly admit all this in the case of Ireland. But, unfortunately, Ireland is in a diseased state, and powers given her for a government might be used for oppression, or as a lever to press the imperial Government to give her possession of imperial powers. Earl Spencer warned us of this danger, and therefore I cannot treat it as chimerical, but as a subject for necessary precaution. I believe that the extension of local government to Ireland—I mean a good system—would have effect, though I fear it would take a long time of training to bring them gradually into the habits of mutual forbearance necessary for a civilized community."

Mr. Chamberlain, addressing his constituents at Birmingham on Saturday, significantly said: "Mr. Gladstone in Edinburgh said the bill was dead. If that is so, what are they fighting for? If there is a new plan, why is it not produced? It is impossible to criticise a bill lacking clauses, preamble, or schedule. I hope it will still be possible to reunite the Liberal party, and that they may find themselves agreed in the autumn upon some large measure for home rule and local government for Ireland; but I will not pledge myself blindly to accept and swallow whatever may be offered." The London *News* thinks that Mr. Chamberlain's speech indicates that he may be found supporting the Home-Rule Bill in the autumn.

Lord Hartington in his manifesto to the Rossendale electors says: "Parliament ought to continue to represent the whole and not a part of the kingdom; powers which may be conferred upon subordinate local bodies should be delegated, not surrendered; the subjects delegated should be clearly defined, and the right of Parliament to control and revise the action of subordinate legislative and administrative authorities should equally be clearly reserved; and, lastly, the administration of justice ought to remain in the hands of authority responsible to Parliament. It is asserted that such a limited measure will not satisfy Ireland; but if a majority of the people of the United Kingdom distinctly and firmly declare that they will not assent to any measure which would loosen the bonds of union, it remains to be proved whether the Irish people can be persuaded to maintain a hopeless and unnecessary contest."

Lord Randolph Churchill's manifesto takes the form of a violent attack on Mr. Gladstone, in which he says: "Mr. Gladstone has reserved for his closing days a conspiracy against the honor of Great Britain and welfare of Ireland, more startingly base and nefarious than any of those numerous designs and plots that for a quarter of a century have occupied his imagination. Nor are the results of the repeal of the Union a matter of moment to him. No practical responsibility will fall upon his shoulders."

In a speech on Wednesday evening Earl Spencer intimated that the Land Purchase Bill would not be dropped.

Mr. Parnell will speak in a number of English and Scotch cities.

A considerable sensation was created in London on Tuesday morning by the announcement that Mr. Chamberlain and his friends of the new Birmingham caucus have put down £20,000 as a guarantee fund for the election expenses of their candidates. The Gladstonians have no such fund at their disposal.

Parliament will be prorogued on June 25, and dissolution will occur the next day.

Sir Charles Edward Trevelyan, father of George Otto Trevelyan, is dead at the age of seventy-nine. He was Financial Master of India in 1862 and was created a baronet in 1874.

Honorary degrees were conferred upon Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes at Cambridge, England, on Thursday in the presence of a brilliant assemblage.

It is officially announced in London that the report that Col. Lockhart's expedition to the Afghan Boundary Commission had been captured by hostile natives was untrue.

The French Senate on Tuesday passed the Princes Expulsion Bill by a vote of 141 to 107. A decree will be immediately issued expelling the Princes.

Louis Laurent Simonin, the French surgeon and traveller, is dead at the age of fifty-six. He visited the United States a number of times and wrote much about it. Among his books are: 'The Mineral Riches of France' (1865), 'The Great West of the United States' (1869), 'The American' (1870), 'American Society' (1876), and 'Gold and Silver' (1877).

Advices from Noumea, the capital of New Caledonia, confirm a report that France has annexed the Hebrides. The officers of a French man-of-war say that the expedition landed troops and hoisted the French flag over the islands of Sandwich and Mallicollo. After establishing the military posts deemed necessary for the protection of French interests, the residents, irrespective of nationality, were informed that France had taken possession. In the House of Commons on Thursday night, Mr. James Bryce said that the Government had instructed Lord Lyons to draw the attention of M. de Freycinet to the reported hoisting of the French flag and occupation implied thereby, as well as to the excitement caused in Australia by the reported seizure. The Paris *Temps* asserts that merely temporary measures have been taken to protect French subjects. Other reports say that France has interfered in the New Hebrides because several agents of a French company were murdered there last March, and the demand of France for the surrender of the guilty persons was not complied with.

King Ludwig of Bavaria was buried on Saturday with great honors in St. Michael's Church, Munich. He left no will. Dr. Schleiss denies giving an opinion upon the King's condition. He says that the chronic inflammation of the cerebral membrane justifies the theory of Ludwig's insanity, and that the normal condition of the cerebellum explains the faculty of clear judgment possessed by the King in spite of the fact that in other respects his mind was diseased.

The Spanish Cortes, by a majority of 200 votes, has declared that no Government of Spain will ever give autonomy to Cuba.

The elections in Holland have resulted in the return of forty-seven Liberals and thirty-nine anti-Liberals. The previous Chamber was a tie.

Fifty thousand acres of crops and two villages have been destroyed by floods in Hungary.

Hobart Pasha (the Hon. Augustus Charles Hobart), Marshal of the Turkish Empire, is dead. He was the third son of the Earl of Buckinghamshire and was born April 1, 1822, entering the British navy in 1836. His career was a brilliant one, and by 1862 he had risen to the rank of post-captain. In 1868 he was appointed to a high position in the navy of Turkey. A year later he was sent to Crete in command of the Turkish fleet, with unlimited powers, and obtained high praise for his conduct of delicate negotiations in the cause of general peace. On returning to Constantinople he was made by the Sultan a full Admiral, with the rank of Pasha. Soon afterwards he became Inspector-General of the Turkish Navy. In the latter position he organized the navy of the Sultan in such a manner as to bring it to a high state of efficiency, and established naval schools, with training and gunnery ships. On account of international complications his name was struck from the British navy list, at the instance of the Foreign Office, in 1867, but in 1874 he was reinstated to his former rank as Captain in the Royal Navy, and placed upon the retired list. When the war between Russia and Turkey broke out, Admiral Hobart Pasha was given the command of the Turkish fleet in the Black Sea. He then formally withdrew from the British service. In the course of the war, at great risk, he ran the blockade of the Danube in a Turkish gunboat. He was raised by the Sultan to the rank of "Mushir" and Marshal of the Empire on January 8, 1881, being the first Christian to receive this honor.

It is reported that an important change has been made in the policy of the Dominion Government in regard to the fishery question. Six weeks ago a fleet of cruisers was established, and instructions given the captains and all collectors of customs for a vigorous enforcement of the Treaty of 1818, including the power to seize American vessels buying bait or other supplies, shipping men or transhipping cargo. A few days ago these instructions were, it is said, modified by omitting the following sentences contained in the first circular: "For other purposes than those of shelter, repairing damages, purchasing wood, obtaining water; and if violating the provisions of the treaty by shipping men or supplies, or trading." Under these instructions American vessels can apparently go into Canadian ports, buy bait, secure supplies, and ship all the men they want during twenty-four hours. If at the end of that time, having been warned, they do not go outside the three-mile limit, an officer will be placed on board and the facts telegraphed to Ottawa. United States Consul Phelan regards the change as a vital and complete admission of the justice of the convention of the United States on the question of commercial privileges.

The total popular majority in Nova Scotia for secession from Canada is 12,000 in a vote of 60,000.

THE "VIEW-WITH-ALARM" PLANK.

FOR the last ten years before its overthrow the strongest reliance of the Republican party in every campaign was the dread of the Democracy, which it cultivated so sedulously. No platform was constructed which did not enlarge upon the ruin threatened to the country if the Opposition should come into power, and the "view-with-alarm" plank was always the one which aroused the party organ-grinder and stump speaker to the most powerful efforts. Especially popular was that count in the indictment which charged the Democratic party with a purpose to "bankrupt the national treasury" by paying "rebel claims," to the extent of thousands of millions of dollars, in case it should ever acquire power.

To go no further back than 1876, we find the Republicans of Vermont resolving that their party was "the only one under which we can hope to obtain an honest and effective maintenance of the Government, as well as the defence of the Treasury against unjust demands and expenditures growing out of the rebellion." The same year the Pennsylvania Republicans "arraigned" the Democrats for a long list of offences, chief among which was "the repeated indications of their purpose, only controlled by fear, to open the Treasury of the nation to the alarming and unjust pecuniary demands from the insurrectionary States." In New Jersey the party held that "the safety and honor of the nation, and its peace and prosperity in the future, can only be assured by intrusting the control of national affairs to the keeping of that party which saved the nation," and that "these would all be imperilled by committing our national interests to the hands of the Democratic party." The national platform of 1876 "charged the Democratic party as being the same in character and spirit as when it sympathized with treason," and "warned the country against trusting a party thus alike unworthy, recreant, and incapable."

The "rebel claims" proved so popular with the Republican managers that in 1878 Mr. Blaine had his Maine Convention adopt a "view-with-alarm" plank entirely restricted to this count; Eugene Hale reporting a resolution which declared that "the evident purpose of the Democratic party, if it should come into full power, to pay the *hundreds of millions* of suspended war claims of disloyal men" made it "doubly important" to elect a Republican House to hold in check the Senate, then "soon to pass under Democratic control." Not to be outdone by his Maine rival, Mr. Conkling, at his New York Convention in the same year, "arraigned" the Democratic party at much greater length, and resolved that in "this great exigency" the Republican organization is "the only efficient bulwark against national repudiation and disgrace."

The "alarm" of the platform-makers grew with the lapse of time. Mr. Conkling's third-term convention at Utica in 1880 declared that "the safety of the nation is again imperilled," that "in the presence of these grave and threatening dangers it is the duty of the Republican party of the Union, in its united strength, to meet and prevent them"; and "to this end" Grant ought to be again elected President. The Vermont Republicans, although having no sympathy with the third-term movement, found in the record of the Democrats "occasion for a just alarm on the part of the friends of a republican form of government," and resolved that "the Republican party must be sustained, as the only effective barrier to the success of treasonable schemes." The Kansas Republicans, who were for neither Grant nor Edmunds, but thought Blaine the man for the hour, considered the occasion equally critical. They found that "under the name of Democracy are arrayed against the civilization of the age men who, having striven by rebellion and open war to destroy the nation, are now endeavoring to seize the Government by force or fraud," and declared that "in the approaching Presidential campaign there will be no middle ground upon which timid patriots can stand, and those who are in favor of the perpetuity of the Union, the preservation of liberty, and the promotion of civilization are Republicans, and of necessity must vote for the Republican candidates; and those who are in favor of violence and anarchy, the dissolution and utter destruction of Republican government, will vote for the success of the Democratic candidates."

The campaign of 1884 found Republican platform-makers still in a terrible frame of mind. In electing delegates to the National Convention of that year, the New York Republicans put on record their confidence in the success of the party in the coming Presidential election, "because of the necessity for the continuance of Republican administration of the affairs of Government, which Democratic inability and incapacity would imperil." In New Jersey the Republican platform declared that "the Democratic party, although masquerading now as a party of patriotism and reform, is essentially the same as when it declared the war for the Union a failure." The Massachusetts Republicans declared their well-grounded confidence in the success of the party, because they believed "the people will not place the Federal Administration under a control which involves financial, industrial, and commercial peril."

Republican State Conventions have just been held in Maine and Vermont for the first time since the contest of 1884. A Democratic President has been in the White House for a year and a quarter, and the character of his administration has been fully established. Sufficient time has elapsed to disclose what are its aims and purposes, and to show whether those aims and purposes involve harm to the nation. And yet, when, according to all their past predictions, Republican resolution-drawers ought to find a superabundance of indisputable evidence that the country is far advanced on the road to ruin, and their platforms should tremble beneath the load of proofs which it ought to be easy to cite, a careful study of these two deliverances shows the remarkable fact that they contain, for the first time, no "view-with-alarm" plank whatever. The Vermont Republicans no longer, as in 1876, resolve that their party is the only one under which can be secured "the defence of the Treasury against unjust demands and expenditures growing out of the rebellion." The Maine Republicans no longer, as in 1878, declare that it is "the evident purpose of the Democratic party to pay the hundreds of millions of suspended war claims of disloyal men."

The extraordinary significance of these omissions will not be fully appreciated until the fall campaign is well under way—nor, indeed, in all their bearings, until the next Presidential contest is fought. For years the "view-with-alarm" plank has been the chief reliance of the Republican managers. When everything else failed to dissuade doubtful voters from supporting the Democracy, the claim that the Republican party must be sustained "as the only effective barrier to the success of treasonable schemes," to use the words of the Vermont Republicans in 1880, was expected to do the business, and generally did. Garfield would not have won in 1880 if "timid patriots" had not been assured that there was "no middle ground" between his election and "the dissolution and utter destruction of republican government." Blaine would have lost nearly if not all his plurality over Cleveland in Massachusetts in 1884, but for the charge that the latter's election would "place the Federal Administration under a control which involves financial, industrial, and commercial peril." The loss of this bugbear is a loss of campaign material such as no party in our history ever so suddenly suffered.

Every well-wisher of his country must rejoice at the change which has come about. The "view with-alarm" plank was an indictment against popular government. The Kansas Republicans in 1880 resolved that "those who are in favor of the perpetuity of the Union, the preservation of liberty, and the promotion of civilization are Republicans, and of necessity must vote for the Republican candidates; and those who are in favor of violence and anarchy, the dissolution and utter destruction of republican government, will vote for the success of the Democratic candidates." The count showed 4,454,416 votes for the Republican candidates and 4,444,952 for the Democratic. In other words, out of 9,000,000 voters only 9,464 more were "in favor of the perpetuity of the Union, the preservation of liberty, and the promotion of civilization" than were "in favor of violence and anarchy, the dissolution and utter destruction of republican government." Soberly to state such a proposition is to show what an absurdity the "view-with-alarm" plank was, and what a blessing it is to have it smashed.

MASSACHUSETTS REPUBLICANISM.

THE widely accepted opinion that Oliver Ames will receive the Republican nomination for Governor in Massachusetts is an impressive sign of the demoralization of the party. It is three months yet before the convention, and the prospect may change in the meantime, but the important fact is that the selection of such a candidate is seriously canvassed and earnestly favored by many if not most of the party leaders. Such a development may well engage the attention of the country.

Mr. Ames is a man of amiable disposition, who is esteemed by his neighbors and respected by the community in which he lives; but he is devoid of those qualities of mind which, in Massachusetts more than in any other State, have always been deemed essential in the aspirant after high office. He is the very embodiment of the commonplace in point of ability, and by virtue of his personality would never exert any influence beyond the circle of his intimates. He lacks the capacity to make a presentable appearance on public occasions; and his failures when, as Lieutenant-Governor, he has represented the State at such times, have been almost pitiable. In short, he is the sort of man whom, a generation ago, it would have been considered preposterous to suggest as a possible occupant of the highest office in the State. But Mr. Ames inherited the control of a great manufacturing industry and is a very rich man. Like so many rich men nowadays, he longs to hold public office, and when the Republicans wanted a generous contributor to the party's campaign fund in the fight with Butler four years ago, they put him on the ticket as Lieutenant-Governor, and they have re-elected him ever since, everybody supposing that this honor would satisfy his ambition. But, so far from this, the enjoyment of the second office has only made him eager for the higher place, and this year, Gov. Robinson having announced his purpose to withdraw from public life Mr Ames seeks to become his successor.

There has, perhaps, never been a case where the mere possession of wealth was so baldly advanced as a reason for giving a man the highest honor at the disposal of a State. His service in the Lieutenant-Governorship has established his lack of the proper qualifications for public service, and emphasized the absurdity of preferring him to such a man as ex-Congressman Crapo, for instance, who, under the old traditions as to the choice of Governors, would naturally have come to the front as the Republican candidate this year. And yet in the year 1886 there is nothing which should surprise anybody in the prominence of Mr. Ames in the Republican party of Massachusetts. His nomination would only be carrying out the same policy which has governed party management ever since Mr. Blaine was accepted as the Presidential candidate in 1884. The debasing effects of this lowering of the standard became apparent last year, and have been still more obvious this year. A conspicuous illustration was presented in the Legislature of 1885, chosen on the day of the Presidential election. The lower branch passed a so-called Dynamite Bill, which proposed new safeguards against the use of the explosive for the unlawful destruction of life or property, "within or without the Commonwealth," the motive being the then recent explosions in London. The measure went through by a vote of almost two to one, without attracting great attention, but, before it could become a law, a "Blaine Irishman," who had a seat in the House, became aroused to the significance of the act, and demanded a reconsideration. He boldly declared that the Republicans must choose between the friendship of the Irish voters, who, like himself, "were convinced by Republican arguments and voted for Mr. Blaine last year," and the duty of denying dynamiters the right of making Massachusetts their base of operations against Great Britain; in other words, they must abandon the attempt to do their duty as civilized men, or lose the support of the dynamiters. The issue was clearly made, and when the House, with 166 out of its 240 members Republicans, was called to meet it, it declared three to one in favor of the dynamiters on a *viva-voce* vote, while the small minority shrank from going on record when a demand was made for the yeas and nays.

The bid for the "Irish vote" by the last Legislature has been followed by bids for all sorts of votes by the present body. After for many years consistently and persistently opposing the proposition to repeal the poll-tax qualification for the suffrage, both branches, with large Republican majorities, have this year shifted their ground and voted for its abolition, for no other reason than the fear that the Democrats might gain a few votes if the Republicans did not go over to their platform. An arbitration bill came up not long after, and, because it was thought to be a good way of capturing the Knights of Labor vote, both branches sanctioned the rank injustice of restricting the choice of the arbitrator who represents the employees in any controversy, to members of labor organizations. A bill exempting soldiers from the necessity of passing competitive examinations, which was truthfully described by the Boston *Journal* as being "an assault upon the State civil-service system every bit as deadly" as the abortive assault of Mr. Randall upon the Federal law, went through both branches with the approval of a majority of the Republican members. The nomination by the party of a rich man and nothing else for Governor would be simply a fitting culmination of such a record.

In the days when the Republican party represented something, Massachusetts used to boast of her leadership in the party. She retains that leadership in these days of the party's degeneracy. The ruling idea of the Republican leaders now apparently is to bid for votes of various classes, by various devices of demagogism, and to buy with money such as cannot otherwise be got. Under this régime the fact that a man "is a perfect bonanza," as an admirer has styled Mr. Bodwell, the rich granite contractor in Maine, is the strongest argument for nominating him as Governor. The prominence of Mr. Ames in the canvass for the Republican candidacy in a State having the traditions of Massachusetts, is the most alarming symptom of a disease which seems to have secured a death-hold upon the party.

MONT-DORE AND ITS WATERS.

Is there any more exhilarating way of travel than riding upon the *banquette* of a diligence among picturesque valleys and over perfect roads? The tourist who has the true tourist's instinct will always appreciate this means of locomotion, and the more as routes on which it may be enjoyed grow fewer. With each decade, almost with each new season, some diligence route succumbs, in France, to the steady development of railroads—a transformation which, if it is not so rapid as with us, is quite as inexorable. Throughout France the steel-rail network is gradually extending itself up the mountain valleys and over the upland plains; and, worst of all (at least from the picturesque tourist's point of view), where the steel rail can gain upward no longer, the tunnel pierces the mountain, and you are given gross darkness, a Cimmerian whirl and roarings instead of mountain height, and stream, and distance.

But in central and southern France many of the old-time routes remain; and two of these, upon which the voiture will not soon be abolished, are those which lead mountainward from Clermont-Ferrand and from Laqueuille stations, on the new railway from Tulle, to La Bourboule and to Mont-Dore in Auvergne respectively. The old route by Clermont-Ferrand is the longer, and probably even finer than the one which I chose, the new route by Laqueuille; a station which you reach by a long sweep around the Auvergne mountains, thirty-nine miles west of Clermont-Ferrand. At this point the Auvergne railway has won an elevation of some two thousand feet; already there is a sweet mountain wildness on the hills. The diligences set off at sunrise up the valley of the Dordogne: as you advance, the mountains rise somewhat sternly on either side, but with a wild charm. The higher slopes are purple with long tracts of flowering heather, most beautiful of mountain vestments; the stream winds below, between tracts of yellow-green turf, more wonderfully vivid in hue, last August, than any that I have seen elsewhere, except, perhaps, at the Lakes of Killarney, much earlier in the season. There is every appearance of great fertility. The inhabitants claim, indeed, that this is the most fertile valley in France.

Certainly it is one of the most beautiful. The country could not well be more *accidenté*. For thirteen miles the road is tossed up and down among the hills; it passes through La Bourboule station, where the diligence lets off the morning contingent of visitors. You cannot avoid being struck by the names of places; it is a country of queer names, some of them more Gaulish than Latin in their look. The friendly guide-posts of the Club Alpin Français point out the way to the mountain passes from wild hamlets with still wilder names—Queureuilh and its cascade, Murat-le-Quaire, Banne-d'Ordanche (in the Gaulish tongue, *benna* meant a wagon), which is the name of the conical mountain, 4,970 feet high, that looms beyond the valley to the northeast. And what a land of patois! The curious local names are but the beginning of oddities; the local speech is a survival. Do not imagine that your pure Parisian French will help you to understand the talk of the driver with his mate, or of the peasants at the relay stations. They are talking a language which was probably thousands of years old when Julius Cæsar's veterans toiled up the same road. One word out of four, perhaps, you can understand; the other three are the rolled débris of the ancient Gaulish speech, the linguistic jetsam of these mountain shores, and here only to be found in Continental Europe, though the Celtic speech in Ireland is related to them. These words, or many of them, so the philologists say, are the words which Vercingetorix used in rallying his Arverni to make their unavailing stand against Cæsar.

The modern Auvergnat, however, is by no means restricted to his patois. Speak to him in French, or even in any American or Anglican version of that language, and he will answer you in French that is fairly good, though rustic. But this French is not so much his native tongue as his acquired accomplishment; the Gaulish dialect of Vercingetorix—which of course is not a patois, correctly speaking, but a survival—is his native and preferred speech. I need hardly add that the speech of cultivated people in Auvergne, as elsewhere throughout France, differs no more

from the French of Paris than the Bostonian's English differs from the Baltimorean's. It is a mistake to think that outside of Paris a patois is generally spoken. This common error comes from the American traveller's usual avoidance of the provinces in his journeys. It is true that every French province, almost every French commune, even, has its patois; but this is confined to the uneducated classes. If a patois is spoken in the kitchen, good French is the language of the drawing-room in every part of France.

Half an hour beyond La Bourboule the diligence sets us down in the bustling square of Mont-Dore, and upon the Dordogne River near its mountain sources. We are at an elevation of 3,445 feet above sea-level; excepting only Barèges, Mont-Dore is the most elevated mineral spring in France. I may add that it has another distinction: its name is misspelled with a more curious persistence than that of any other spring. Since the name of Gustave Doré became familiar it has not been given to any English or American compositor to abstain from adding the acute accent to the last vowel of Mont-Dore; even in the Index of the usually accurate Poole this error occurs. At first sight the mountain village of Mont-Dore has a somewhat severe aspect; the roofs of it are covered with hewn stone instead of tiles to resist the winter storms. Its two hundred houses are huddled together on the right bank of the upper valley of the Dordogne, still an infant stream, not far from its point of origin in the cascades of the Dore and the Dogne. Some thirteen hundred people live here all the year round; the number of the summer guests is several times as large. On either hand rise fantastically shaped mountains. The top of the Pic de Sancy, a few miles away, 6,181 feet high, is the most elevated point of the mountains of Central France. The springs have been known from great antiquity; here the Arverni had their *piscinæ* before history began, and here the Romans disported themselves after the fatigues of oppressing the Gauls. Then, during the dark ages, Mont-Dore, the *Mons Duranius* of the Romans, was forgotten; for a thousand years you will find but one mention of the place in all literature. This occurs in a letter written by the good Bishop of Clermont, Sidonius Apollinarius (agnomen of prandial suggestiveness), in the fifth century to his friend Oppert; in this epistle he refers to the springs of Mont-Dore at the *Calentes Baiæ*.

Early in the present century these waters began to resume their ancient importance. The inflow of patients led to the construction of new establishments. The new establishments in turn attracted new patients, convincing many doubting invalids that they could really afford the luxury of being ill. Hotels sprang up rapidly; and now, in place of the mountain rudeness, one finds at this station every convenience, and nearly every luxury, that the most determined and self-regarding invalid can desire, besides every means for the administration of the thermal waters. Baths, douches, "pulverizations," *piscinæ*, and all the modern therapeutic bathing appliances are here developed to their fullest perfection, and I need not attempt their description.

The climate of Mont-Dore is a true mountain climate, not dissimilar to that of Davos or of Saint-Moritz in Switzerland—that is to say, it is cool in the morning and evening, and generally warm during the day, with variations of the thermometer almost but not quite as sudden and trying as those of New York, Philadelphia, or Boston. But it is the tonic coolness and the agreeable warmth of the mountain air, without the seaside humidity. The season lasts from mid-June to mid-September; July and August are perhaps the pleasanter months to choose, though the crowd is then greater. There are charming days in early September; but after the 15th, winter is apt to leap down any night from the heights of the Pic de Sancy. At the elevation of Mont-Dore the mean barometer is but 26.58 inches, and this lessened pressure is well recognized as a beneficial influence in certain diseases which are specially treated at this station. In pulmonary phthisis the effect of elevation is still a controverted question among physicians. I am of those who believe that lessened atmospheric pressure is almost always beneficial in the earlier stages of phthisis and before there is any danger of hœmorrhage. In the later stages lessened pressure is mechanically dangerous, bringing too great a strain upon the pulmonary tissue, and inducing arterial ruptures. But it is only the earlier stages of phthisis that ever should be treated at Mont-Dore.

The springs are nine in number, with a daily yield of 100,000 gallons. Eight of these are thermal, ranging from 38° to 45° C. (100° to 113° Fah.); the other, the Sainte-Marguerite spring, flows at 10½° C. (51° Fah.). This spring contains little but carbonic-acid gas, and is used mainly in diluting wine. All these springs have their source in the rock at the foot of a mountain of granitic lava, the Angle. Their mineralization is not strong; they contain the bicarbonates of lime and soda, besides arsenic and many other less important constituents. The waters are taken *intus vel extra*. Internally a glass every half hour until the noon breakfast is the ordinary form of exhibition. As baths, inhalations, sprayings, the application is a very elaborate affair, and choice is made among the appliances according to the indication of the special case. Taken internally the waters quicken the pulse, awake the functions of the skin, and increase the bronchial secretions. At first they cause a freer expectoration in sufferers from pulmonary disease; then, in favorable cases, they check or stop it. After drinking the waters for a fortnight the moment of what is called "saturation" arrives; the appetite is for the first time checked, aversion for the mineral waters is felt; it is the moment to discontinue their use. A longer sojourn among the hills will help to complete the cure, unless the patient is possessed with the restlessness which leads him to fatiguing changes of habitat during the summer.

And for what complaints is the cure at Mont-Dore to be prescribed?

(1.) Affections of the respiratory organs are the main diseases treated at Mont-Dore. The reader need not be reminded that of all diseases of maturity these form the most extensive and the most fatal class. They include bronchitis, laryngitis, asthma, pharyngitis, catarrh, both bronchial and post-nasal; and last, but most important of all, phthisis, here treated in its early stages.

Chronic bronchitis is one of the affections most commonly and most satisfactorily treated at Mont-Dore. There are usually complications, as with asthma, pulmonary emphysema, dilatation of the bronchial tubes. Such cases are often sent as a last resort to Mont-Dore; but it rarely happens that a material improvement is not effected by the thermal treatment. The inhalations act directly upon the bronchial mucus, and check its secretion; and as a drink, the waters have a tonic and alterant effect.

With "dry" or "nervous" asthma, that obdurate form, namely, of this persistent disease, which is caused by muscular spasm of the smaller bronchial tubes, a three-weeks' course at Mont-Dore gives relief, sometimes cure; but in a certain number of cases repeated yearly visits are necessary. My friend Dr. Emond of Mont-Dore reports a considerable number of such cases, in which a perfect cure was brought about. In moist asthma the results are still more encouraging. In a case known to me—that of a lady who was sent from New York to Mont-Dore a few years ago by one of our best-known city surgeons—the most persistent symptoms were entirely cured; in this instance there was much dyspnœa. Chronic bronchitis and laryngitis, or "clergyman's sore throat," finds here, as at Royat, an excellent sanitarium; the difference being in the cooler climate of Mont-Dore, which for certain constitutions is more powerfully tonic than that of the other station.

Post-nasal catarrh, the most distinctively American of diseases in its frequency, and one of the most stubborn to treat, will seldom succumb to anything but energetic local measures. The tissues that are affected must be attacked; and these local applications require to be supplemented, in cases where there is a scrofulous, arthritic, or other constitutional tendency, by tonics and by general treatment. At Mont-Dore, at Aix-les-Bains, and at some other smaller places, both local and constitutional treatment are combined successfully; it is for the physician to choose among these places, according to his patient's special need. They are the appointed *sanatoria* for this distressing disease.

It remains to speak of phthisis, the master-malady of northern countries—the cachexia with which physicians and pathologists have struggled with but partial success. The bacillus theory of the origin of the disease remains to be proved by the pathologists; the cure of the disease, when once it is fully established, remains to be sought. It is a rare, though an occasional, triumph of the physician; and in some constitutions nature triumphs over even well-advanced cases, and leaves the sufferer of early years to a healthy old age. But the experience of nine cases out of ten is that the malady, if checked at all, must be checked before it has made much headway.

There is no doubt that in many cases this can be done. My own observation leads me to believe that pulmonary consumption could be arrested in four or five cases out of ten if it were taken early in hand, and if the proper conditions could be commanded for the patient. But the lot in life of the majority of sufferers makes this command of favoring conditions impossible. A cure that requires the entire change of the patient's way of living is not one that can be generally available; sometimes it is impossible on account of the expense required, sometimes impracticable on account of the invalid's natural unwillingness to suffer transplantation. One of my patients once said to me, "I would rather die in the North than live in the South." But, after all, these cases are exceptional; and summer transplantation to spots like Mont-Dore, Eaux-Bonnes in the Pyrenees, or Aix-les-Bains, is one of many beneficial influences that will sometimes arrest the early stages of consumption. In the later, the invalid is generally the better for staying at home. Exile, under sentence of death, is the most cruel of prescriptions. It is of little use to leave home unless the invalid can command the conditions of contentment, as well as of comfort abroad.

(2.) It remains to add that rheumatism in its milder forms, nervous paralysis, and uterine derangements not depending upon grave lesions, are all treated at Mont-Dore, and sometimes cured. Drs. Emond, Cohadon, and Alvin may be consulted with full confidence.

TITUS MUNSON COAN.

AFTER THE BATTLE.

LONDON, June 8, 1886.

"TELLERS for the noes, Mr. Brand and Mr. Caine." The House of Commons never refuses a mild joke, and the odd juxtaposition of names sent honorable members smiling and chuckling into their respective lobbies. Up to the last moment, everything was possible; and when the

clerk handed to Mr. Brand the slip of paper which is the symbol of victory, there arose a storm of excitement which carried everything before it. No such scene has been witnessed since 1866, when a combination of Whigs and Tories threw out Mr. Gladstone's Reform Bill. "These violent delights have violent ends"; the Whig victory of 1866 was followed by the Conservative surrender of 1867, when Tories and Radicals combined to set up household suffrage. Some of the older Liberal members sat silent last night while the two parties opposite were trying to shout one another down. Perhaps they were trying to discover which of the jubilant ex-Ministers on the front Opposition bench would rise in 1887 to introduce an Irish Government bill conceived in the spirit of Tory democracy. The Government accepted defeat without any sign of emotion; they must have known what was coming, and their plans must be already almost matured. Will they dissolve or resign? It is generally believed at present that Mr. Gladstone will resign, and that Lord Hartington may be induced to form a government; but dissolution cannot be long delayed. Setting aside the enthusiasts on both sides, there is but little expectation that a general election will produce a decisive change in the balance of parties. Even if Mr. Gladstone were to come back with a compact majority of British home-rulers, it is almost certain that the House of Lords will reject, once at least, any measure of home rule sent up from the Commons. We have before us the far from pleasant prospect of a series of short and barren Parliaments; the strife of parties and sections may continue until at last, in sheer weariness, we accept some unsatisfactory compromise of the Irish question. For the Liberal party the outlook is very gloomy. We are most seriously divided, and instead of discussing quietly the principles now at issue, we are wrangling furiously over the question who is to blame for what has happened. The Associations are all for making an example of Mr. Chamberlain; but Mr. Chamberlain is not in the least frightened. He goes about with the air of a good man basking in the sunshine of prosperity. He told us what would happen if his advice should be neglected, and now his prophecy has been fulfilled.

To speak seriously, Mr. Chamberlain has not greatly distinguished himself in the course of this great controversy. He has shown himself a consummate debater, but he has been very inconsistent and very superficial. In his speech on the second reading, he declared for a Constitution on the Canadian model, but he seemed to be unaware of the scope of his own argument. He has fallen back on federalism in order to save the supremacy of the Imperial Parliament. Yet who can doubt that the federalization of the United Kingdom would alter the position of Parliament much more radically than Mr. Gladstone proposes to alter it? Even in making his citations from the British North America Act, Mr. Chamberlain managed to show that he has not made a thorough study of his subject. He quoted the general words of the section which defines the legislative authority of the Dominion; he took no note of the general words which define the legislative authority of the Provinces. Nor does he seem to have heard of the decisions of our courts by which the Canadian Provinces have been upheld in the exercise of independent powers such as he would probably deny to Ireland. Mr. Chamberlain stands on dangerous ground as a party man. He has given up his hold on the Associations; he has inflicted a conspicuous humiliation on his own friends. He might therefore have been expected to make his constitutional platform as safe as possible, instead of which he has done his best to convince us that his platform is not one on which any practical politician can stand beside him. He has succeeded in his immediate purpose, and now, where is he to go? If he takes office under Lord Hartington, he will finally alienate his Radical friends. If, on the other hand, he means to remain unattached till this Irish difficulty is settled, he may find himself classed as a sort of Radical Goschen—one of the small band of distinguished impracticables who are always with the Liberal party.

But if Mr. Chamberlain deserves censure as a party man and as a statesman, there can be no doubt that the chief responsibility for our present confusion must rest on Mr. Gladstone. We are sometimes told that our failure to respond to his proposals is another proof of our national inaccessibility to ideas. That is hardly a fair statement of the case. Mr. Gladstone had certain ideas about home rule which he continued to expound with great vigor for fourteen or fifteen years. He told us on many occasions that the Imperial Parliament was both competent and willing to make good laws for Ireland. He pointed out the difficulty of separating between British and Irish affairs. He said he would never give Ireland any home rule except such as might be given to Scotland. He "would never condescend to the prejudices of the Home-Rulers"; he would never consent to "disintegrate the capital institutions of the country"; and if Irishmen made unreasonable demands he would remind them that "there is a higher law than the law of conciliation." So late as May, 1884, Mr. Gladstone argued that the franchise might safely be extended in Ireland because "there is a security for the loyal minority in the composition of the House of Commons." These were the ideas which found access to the mind of the Liberal party down to the end of 1885. About that time Mr. Gladstone parted with his old ideas, and laid in an entirely fresh stock. He became convinced that Parliament could not legislate for Ireland, and that if there was a higher law than that of conciliation, it was not for us to apply it. We must meet the prejudices of the Home-Rulers against "foreign" law, by disintegrating Parliament, and by giving them a legislature of their own. These new ideas may have been perfectly sound, but they could not be expected to penetrate all at once into minds already occupied by the Gladstonian ideas of 1871-85. This, however, is a kind of difficulty for which the Prime Minister had no consideration. He had himself not only discarded, but honestly forgotten his old opinions, and he felt sure that he had the heart of the people with him in his new venture. He allowed no delay; he scouted the notion of prolonged inquiry; he paid no attention to differences of opinion in his own party. His new principle occupied his mind to the exclusion of everything else; trusting in that and in his own powers of management and persuasion, he went right forward and broke up his party.

What the effects of the split may be, we cannot yet foresee. Some of the Whigs desire to organize themselves strongly as a party of Liberals opposed to home rule, state socialism, and disestablishment of the Church. Radicals of the Labouchere type profess to look with satisfaction on the Whig movement. They hope to recapture Mr. Chamberlain, but they would like to force Lord Hartington and his friends into the Conservative camp. It is not at all likely that they will succeed, but if they do, they will probably be disappointed by the result. I do not believe that Radicalism in this country is strong enough to stand by itself without the help of the moderate Liberals. All the recent triumphs of the Liberal party have been due to the fact that Mr. Gladstone commanded the confidence of Whigs and Radicals alike. There is hardly any one among his possible successors who can command the support of both sections. Perhaps Lord Rosebery might manage it, but then he has the great misfortune to sit in the House of Lords. A single leader is not absolutely necessary for the maintenance of unity; but after enjoying the services of a leader who makes perhaps the best party hero on record, Liberals will hardly know how to do without a chief of one sort or another. In the meantime they make light of their difficulties, and they fight out their domestic quarrels with perfect indifference to the presence of the Conservatives. And the Conservatives have not done much to shake the confidence of their opponents. Lord Salisbury has had a splendid opportunity, and he has missed it, not for want of ability, but for want of a little elementary politics. His recent speeches have been very able, but they might have been expressly composed in order to confirm the popular impression that the Tories are a party of coercion, totally destitute of sympathy with the Irish people. His phrase about not giving self-government to Hottentots was of course only a figure of speech, but Irishmen believe that he has compared them to Hottentots, and that is enough. Again, Lord Salisbury's recommendation of twenty years of "firm" government was perfectly well meant; but nothing he can say will persuade British Radicals that he meant anything but twenty years of repressive legislation. Lord Salisbury also has the misfortune to sit in a House whose members are not brought directly into contact with the people; and that is one reason why he is so extremely weak as an electioneering agent. The difference between the Lord Beaconsfield of 1880 and the Mr. Disraeli of 1874 was not merely a difference of age. R.

THE DEFEAT OF MR. GLADSTONE'S BILL.

DUBLIN, June 12, 1886.

MR. GLADSTONE'S Home-Rule Bill has been defeated, and defeated by a larger majority than either supporters or opponents anticipated. This is only what we might have expected. It was not reasonable to suppose that a measure could be rushed through at once which has been advanced by British statesmen only within the past few months, and advanced almost without British party and press support—rather in the face of party and press opposition—and without the animating influence of a vigorous British public agitation. In this respect and as regards a measure of first importance, it appears to me that Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Morley stand out in (as Mr. Healy put it) their "almost divine courage." The defeat is only what we might have expected, and it need not be deplored. It is better that the English people should have time to consider the question and appreciate the wisdom of the change. They will be more likely to give home rule their moral support, and less likely to consider it as still an evil—if only the least of two evils. As to Irish Home-Rulers, the delay is altogether an advantage. It is not good for the country generally that the present disorganization should be continued, and continue it will until matters are taken in hand by an Irish Administration; but it is well that the thinking portion of the country should appreciate and be made to accept the position to which the Irish party has now brought the question.

Reviewing the past eight years, since Mr. Parnell fully undertook the unravelment of the Irish skein, we must acknowledge that in a certain sense parties in Ireland have been manœuvred rather than persuaded into accord. Mr. Parnell has "drawn all men unto him," not so much by the force of argument as by making each man think that he, Parnell, agreed with him—or at least was not opposed to him. Hostility and outspoken denunciation are generally the attitude of an earnest political or moral leader towards

those followers who only partially unite with him, or accept his guidance with reserve. To keep all the abuse for the enemy has been Mr. Parnell's policy. Eight years ago the Irish cause stood, as it generally had stood, shivered into fragments. There were the Fenians and the Fenian sympathizers, the simple Repealers, the Federalists, the moderate and the advanced Home-Rulers—agreeing in nothing but in hating each other more than they hated the common foe. Mr. Parnell has, by the power of his statesmanship, fused these heterogeneous elements apparently into one. In some respects the process has not been ennobling. There appeared more simplicity and honesty in the old bungling straightforwardness—every man saying what he thought and acting accordingly. There was, however, no result, and we must give the credit to the man that has at length made the egg stand on end. But the Irish party, and Mr. Parnell especially in his speech before the final division, in their full acceptance of Mr. Gladstone's bill as a final settlement of the quarrel between the countries, have put a strain upon the extreme sections of supporters, abroad and at home, whose effects it is important that we should have time to appreciate. Were the measure carried precipitately through, extreme sections might say they had been jockeyed, repudiate their part in the settlement, and try to use it as a fulcrum for further agitation. The delay of a few months will be a test. What will our countrymen in America and Australia say? how will our countrymen at home vote, now that it is beyond all question apparent what the party are going in for? I shall be agreeably surprised if there be not an appreciable cooling down of enthusiasm in some directions, but entertain no fear as to the verdict of the average Irish common sense. The atmosphere has been cleared and purified. After all, humanity more easily loves than it hates. Good feeling is taking the place of animosity on both sides of the Channel. Mr. Gladstone's alchemy of justice will be as effective in this case as justice has been always and everywhere.

The majority of Irish Protestants, adherents of the Irish Loyal and Patriotic Union—among whom must be included, as a rule, the wealthy and the most refined classes and some of the best educated and most elevated natures—never felt more bitterly than they do at present. One of their principal mouthpieces in Parliament, Major Saunderson, exclaimed, "Hear, hear," when Mr. Parnell said, in the course of a late speech, "One would think that the Protestants of Ireland were going to be handed over to the tender mercies of a lot of thugs and bandits." Regarding the defeat of the bill, the (Orange) *Dublin Evening Mail* wrote:

"Yesterday, when the result of the great debate was known, the streets presented a curious phenomenon to the observer. Every person you met, whose appearance indicated even a moderate social standing, looked as if he had recovered the key of his front door from the hands of a gang of burglars."

"Are we idiots or are we fools?" cried Mr. Healy the other day. No, these Protestants regard the masses of the people as the fools and idiots, and the leaders as thugs and bandits, and consequently do not believe one word regarding the acceptance of the principles of the bill by the Irish party: they consider it is all pretence. And yet, perhaps, they do believe the leaders are "idiots and fools," to play such a game. Discuss the question candidly with an honest friend on the opposite side, as any one living in Ireland must occasionally do who has definite opinions of his own, and who does not wish to close his mind to reason and argument, and the differences always resolve themselves into these points: Are the intentions of Mr Parnell and his friends in the main honest or malevolent? Are the mass of the Irish people likely to be swayed by ordinary motives, or are they bent on a lawless democracy? Can religious freedom be maintained under a government mainly Catholic?

As to Mr. Chamberlain and his "cave-men," I see no reason to suppose that they are actuated by dishonest motives. It would have been easier for them to follow their natural leader, Mr. Gladstone. A year ago Mr. Chamberlain sought the opinions of Irish Nationalists regarding a feasible settlement of the home-rule question. His rejoinder to at least one of the communications he received, showed that his conceptions of a settlement were far behind Mr. Gladstone's present plan. He and his friends are the exponents of what may be called the Cavour policy regarding Ireland. It must be forty years since Count Cavour visited this country and published, in a pamphlet of extraordinary vigor, his impressions regarding the Irish problem. He maintained that what Great Britain owed to Ireland was a system of national education, an efficient police, the disestablishment of the Church, and the thorough reform of the land laws; but that under no circumstances would it be safe for her to permit the establishment, even for local affairs, of a separate Irish Legislature. Twenty years later, in the height of the Fenian agitation, and while home rule was still in the air, this pamphlet was translated by Dr. W. B. Hodgson of Edinburgh (whom to know was to love), and widely circulated. It is doubtless to be found in all the public libraries, at least on this side of the water. Before and since that publication the *Spectator* newspaper has been the most powerful exponent of the Cavour policy—perfect justice to Ireland, but, in Mr. Froude's words, "England an extinct volcano" before the establishment of a separate legislative assembly in Dublin. Such were the views of nine English Liberals out of ten until within the past few months. We have no right to suppose that those who retain such opinions are disingenuous, and this party will die hard—harder, perhaps, than is now supposed.

There is one matter which the discussions of the past few months have made clear, and that is the position of "Ulster"—not of "Ulster," for the Ulster fallacy has exploded, but rather of the three corner counties. If the Protestants of these corner counties are willing to leave their coreligionists who are scattered over the rest of Ireland to the tender mercies of the Catholics, the Nationalists of the rest of Ireland will never consent to leave their friends in those three counties to the tender mercies of the Orangemen.* Ireland must stand or fall intact. And, indeed, regarding Ulster Protestantism things are not as hopeless as they appeared some months ago, when one of the most intelligent Protestants in Ireland put down the number of Irish Protestant Home-Rulers at "under thirty." An apparently vigorous Irish Protestant Home-Rule Association has been established in Belfast; branches are in course of formation at least in Dublin and Cork, and the publication of a collection of 'Opinions of some Protestants regarding their Irish Catholic Fellow-Countrymen' shows that home rule has taken a wider and deeper hold among Irish Protestants than was supposed.

Journalism on either side has not been playing a very dignified part in the discussion. Seeing that the average human mind cannot bear the state of indecision and the strain upon its self-esteem (apart from the consumption of time) necessary for the study of papers on both sides of the question, both sides might feel it incumbent upon them to be a little fairer than they are. Few readers have ever been so privileged as were the readers of Garrison's *Liberator* in having a column reserved as a "Refuge of Oppression." But a new evil has been added in sensational journalism, and of that we had a good example in the *Pall Mall Gazette* of the 31st ult., when it devoted four pages to an elaborate muster-roll—infantry, cavalry, and artillery, engineers and rifles, divisions and brigades, active and reserve forces—of the "enrolled Orange army of 73,561 men." Such journalism can serve no end but to "sell the paper"—for the time; and it does immense harm in flattering the vanity of those who would desire the establishment of such an army, and in making Englishmen generally believe that in the interests of peace and order in Ireland no form of home rule would be safe.

We are now to have a general election. If home rule carries the day, we shall doubtless have a measure much better than the bill just wrecked—for that it needed alteration in many important respects, only the necessities of party unity prevented many of its supporters from admitting. If home rule be defeated, we shall have a prolongation of the contest. In either case, the Conservative and the Cavour parties will make a desperate fight, and the House of Lords is also to be passed. The delay of a few years, another trial of coercion, are possible before the inevitable is accepted. In any case, until this question is decided, it will be difficult to accomplish any other important business in the Imperial Parliament.

D. B.

* The *Graphic* maps of June 5 cannot be too highly commended as an aid to the consideration of the Ulster question. It is much to be regretted, however, that the colorist did not adhere to one shade of tint for "best" or "worst" in all the maps.

A RADICAL VIEW OF THE ITALIAN ELECTIONS.

ROVIGO, May 29, 1886.

THE general elections are over, leaving confusion worse confounded, the excitement intense, the disappointments numerous, the surprises most surprising of all. The worst feature of the elections is that a fewer number of electors have taken part than in past times, which proves a growing sense of the impotence of present institutions as now working to promote the general interests of all classes. Hence numbers of peaceable citizens say: "If we belong to an electoral committee, if we take a prominent part in public meetings or in private electoral reunions, we are sure to make no end of enemies, and by no means so sure of gaining any friends." Then, again, with the exception of the Radicals, there has been no programme patent to the ordinary mind, no special measures to carry to which a certain party is pledged, the opposite party opposing them. Every one expected from Depretis the announcement of a future policy at home and abroad, but in his only speech, made at the Roman banquet, he spoke entirely of himself, of the calumnies hurled at him, of friends turned foes, of his excellent intentions, of the reasons which had prevented him from carrying them into effect.

It cannot be said that even a personal programme has been kept before the electors. You are aware that here we have what they call the *scrutinio di lista:* instead of the one-membered colleges, each province elects a number of members proportioned to its population, which system has the benefit of preventing wealth and land from carrying the day exclusively. In 1882, when this system was first adopted in most of the provinces, there sprang up three electoral committees—a Moderate, a Progressist, a Radical. In some, the Moderates and Progressists coalesced; in others, the Radicals and Progressists united; but during the present elections the members of the late Legislature cast about simply and solely for the best chances of keeping their seats, and in several we have had the immoral specta-

cle of Ministers, Ministerial supporters, and their stanchest antagonists uniting, in the hope of victory. The only excuse they alleged was their devotion to monarchy and their desire to save the institution; which simply rendered them absurd, since, if you except a small portion of the old "temporal sovereignty" papal partisans, and the new organization of workingmen (both fractions abstaining from electoral agitation), no one dreams of overthrowing monarchy to establish a republic.

What is the net result of the elections it is yet difficult to say. Both parties have lost some of their best men, their defeat in most cases being due to the aforesaid coalition. The Pentarchists, so styled from the union of their five leaders, Crispi, Nicotera, Cairoli, Zanardelli, and Baccarini, are all reëlected, but have lost some splendid officers and brave soldiers. The old Moderates march in a compact phalanx of a hundred and fifty; the so-called Ministerial supporters, Transformists and Moderate Liberals, are returned in an equal number; the Radicals pure and simple number forty-eight. Social reform is the programme of these last; and as the Pentarchists and Progressists are pledged to present measures for the regulation of strikes, for the reform of the charitable institutions, for bonifications (*i. e.*, draining of marshes, the cultivation of waste soil, and similar measures), they can count safely on the adherence of the Radical party. Hence it is difficult to even form an idea as to the future Government. Signor Minghetti, the acknowledged head of the old Moderates, has said clearly: We are now in a position to say to Signor Depretis, "You must make your choice: either form a Ministry of Moderates and Moderate Liberals, when you may count upon us, or go back openly to the Left, and we range ourselves in opposition." Signor Bonghi, who has written another article in the *Nuova Antologia*, entitled "The Programme of the Elections," sides with him entirely. Up to the present moment Depretis has made no sign; as usual, he "lingers shivering on the brink and fears to launch away." At a Cabinet council held in the King's presence, Signor Coppino, Minister of Public Instruction, said distinctly that he would not remain in a Government composed of Moderate colleagues. Signor Depretis made no reply. He would evidently prefer forming a Ministry with Crispi and Nicotera, but these generals, who have each served to their cost under Depretis as generalissimo, decline entirely the honor of his leadership. If, therefore, he persists in remaining at the head of the Government, he must dismiss at least one half of his present colleagues and general secretaries, and make room for Minghetti, Bonghi, and other pillars of the Moderate Church. The Transformists, whose law of life is, "Be on the winning side," will join their ranks, while in the opposite camp Pentarchists, Progressists, and Radicals will unite to give battle. In order to increase his chances, Signor Depretis has decided on an *infornata*—an ovenful—of new Senators (to the amount of thirty, it is rumored). Of course, these will all be chosen from his own friends and supporters who have either been left on the battle-field, or who, by vacating their colleges, will make room for some of his wounded soldiers. To-day the few "ballots necessary" will take place between the two candidates who received the largest number of votes after those duly elected, but did not come up to half of the total of the electors. These, however, are too few to affect the results. Later on will come the supplementary elections. Some of the Liberals are elected in three colleges, *e. g.*, Cairoli at Pavia, his native city, and at Rome. As he will choose the former, there is place for a new Liberal in Rome. Nicotera has been elected in three colleges, so there are two openings for his friends. Pantano and Cavallotti have also two, and the fallen leaders of the Liberals will also "live to fight again."

One characteristic episode of this struggle cannot be passed over, and that is the double election of Amilcare Cipriani, the "galley slave." This really remarkable man is a native of Rimini, who deserted the regular army to join Garibaldi after the peace of Villafranca in 1859. He distinguished himself at Naples and Sicily in 1860. In 1862 he had a narrow escape, seven of his companions who were attempting to join Garibaldi in Aspromonte being shot to death without even a form of trial by Major Villato, who was immediately promoted by the Piedmontese Government. For some time he remained in exile in Alexandria, Egypt, and took a notable part in the scientific expedition of Miani. In 1865 he distinguished himself as a cholera nurse, and, after the war against the Austrians under Garibaldi in the Tyrol, returned to Italy and labored actively with the Mazzinian party during and after Mentana for the proclamation of "Rome, capital of *republican* Italy." In 1871, after fighting throughout the French war side by side with Flourens, killed by the troops of Thiers, he fell crippled with wounds, and was condemned to be shot on the plains of Satory, but was transported instead to New Caledonia. Amnestied, he returned to Italy, where he was arrested and tried for shooting two gendarmes in Alessandria in 1868. It was proved that the act was committed in self-defence, the gendarmes having seized and maltreated him by mistake for a Maltese whom they were seeking to arrest. Nevertheless, he was condemned by the court of assizes at Ancona to twenty-two years of hard labor at the galleys. The first jurisconsults of Italy, Ceneri, Busi, Villa, Pessina (late Minister of Grace and Justice), publicly affirmed that every rule of right and justice had been violated; that the sentence ought to be suspended and a new trial take place. This act of justice was refused, and Cipriani's fellow-citizens of Rimini, while he is languishing in the galleys, have elected him their representative in the House of Deputies. The city of Forli has done the same. Not a justifiable proceeding, you will say, in common with a considerable portion of the Liberal party here; but there is not the shadow of a doubt that Cipriani was condemned not because in a stand-up fight of two to one the gendarmes succumbed to his extraordinary strength, but because he was an open, active, uncompromising republican.

This province of Rovigo from which I write has carried off the palm of victory for the Radicals. It was here at Crespino that Foresti and his fellow-Carbonari commenced their conspiracies against the Austrians in 1820. Five of their accomplices were hung and shot. Foresti, with Confalonieri and Silvio Pellico, was entombed within the Spielberg. Liberated, the greater part of his life was spent in New York; and, regarding America as his second country, even on his return to Italy in 1856 he never forgot the land that had adopted him. The Polesine, true to her traditions, sent out all her young men to fight under Garibaldi, and in 1866, when Venetia was liberated, Garibaldi was elected representative of Lendinara, the birthplace of Alberto Mario. But very soon the Moderates, all proprietors and wealthy men, got the upper hand, and for sixteen years, in Parliament, in the provincial and municipal councils, they reigned supreme. In 1882, after the extension of the suffrage, Mario, heading a compact band of Radicals, charged all along the Moderate ranks, succeeding in demolishing their general and substituting Dr. Agostino Bertani, the great surgeon-soldier, the man who, after Garibaldi and Mazzini, had done most and best for the creation of one Italy, free and independent. Mario died in 1883. Bertani, in the breach to the last, the dauntless flag-bearer of his party, died on the very eve of the elections, April 30, with awful suddenness, just as he had penned an appeal to Italy's greatest poet, Carducci, to stand "for Pisa, the city where Mazzini died," and another to Aurelio Saffi, urging him to lend his valor to the combatants. The Radicals of the Polesine felt it doubly incumbent on them to give battle with the old flag unfurled, and proclaimed their intention openly. On this, Moderates, Transformists, and Progressists formed a *holy alliance*. Sani, an arch-Moderate; Marchiori, Transformist and secretary-general of the Minister of Finance; Parenzo, Progressist, whose order of the day unseated Depretis; and Cavalli, a Liberal, allowed their names to be united on the same list. The Radicals chose Badaloni, a young but most distinguished surgeon and doctor, as a worthy successor of Bertani; Marin, the son of an old conspirator, soldier, fellow-prisoner of Calvi, shot by the Austrians—a mild, gentlemanly man of letters; Villanova, a young but distinguished advocate, who so successfully defended the Mantuan peasants in their late trial; Achille Tedeschi, noted chiefly for his zeal in promoting associations among the peasants. The Radicals fought valiantly against desperate odds, the allied opponents having the prefects, the mayors, the tax-gatherers, all the Government officials, wealth, power, and landed interest on their side. *They*, at least, had no doubt of winning, though many of the electors, while promising their vote "for the sake of party discipline," confessed that they should be heartily ashamed of their victory. Up to the eleventh hour their security lasted, when, like a thunder bolt falling from a serene sky, the telegraph from Rovigo flashed to every city, village, and hamlet of the province the astounding tidings: Victory along all the line for the Radicals. The morrow confirmed the tidings. At the head of the poll stood Badaloni, with 6,300-odd votes, against the secretary-general, who had little over five thousand, and so on to the end of the list. Precisely the same scene was reënacted in Milan, where Cavallotti, the democratic poet, heads the poll with 10,000 votes, with three Radical colleagues, leaving the Moderates nowhere. Rovigo, Genoa, Milan, and Rome, where the Radicals fought on the "no-compromise" platform, have reason to exult in their victory so far. It remains now to be seen what measures they will propose and stand to in the next Parliament for the amelioration of the classes neglected by all the parties who have hitherto triumphed in the Chamber of Deputies.

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL AT ATHENS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In Mr. W. J. Stillman's letter from Athens in the *Nation* of June 17, the principal argument seems to amount to this, that because the American School at Athens has not yet attained the outward form and the inward perfection which its founders anticipate, therefore it has no right to exist at all. This argument, which, if logically carried out, would exterminate the whole race of children from the earth, will be equally fatal to the British School at Athens in its early years, and is, to say the least, a very unpractical one. There is little or no real difference of opinion between Mr. Stillman and the managers of the School as to the ideal to be aimed at. Mr. Stillman's chief complaint against the School touches what is acknowledged on all hands to be its chief present weakness, the lack of a permanent director at Athens. For one, I am heartily glad to have this weakness "ventilated" and

kept before the public attention, even though I may regret the spirit in which this is done. I have myself repeatedly called attention to this defect, first, in my report as director of the School in 1882-83, and on many other occasions since, in language quite as strong as that now used by your correspondent. My own words were:

"Our school can never aspire to the rank which the French and German schools now hold, unless it can keep a director in Athens who can aspire to be the peer of Foucart and Köhler; and it is not too much to say that this can never be secured by sending a new man each year to take charge of the School. At the end of a year, our director will always feel that he has spent his whole time in preparation, and that he is just ready to begin his work in earnest; but he must then give place to his successor, who will repeat the same experience. But until we can secure our full endowment we must be content to remain under this disadvantage, and to depend a few years longer upon the annual directors with whom the liberality of our supporting colleges supplies us."

The last sentence states the only real difference between Mr. Stillman and ourselves. He would not be content to wait patiently a few years longer, but would shut up the School, or, rather, would never have opened it. We took the more practical view, that this was the only possible way of establishing an American School at Athens; and we have yet to see a man who really believes that we could have begun one in any other way. The French and German schools have behind them the French Republic and the German Empire, both of them ready and willing to pay whatever salaries are needed to secure the most accomplished scholars as directors. We have no public treasury to rely on; but we have a resource which has always in the end proved more efficient than even imperial bounty, the enlightened generosity of our own citizens, who are always eager to show that private munificence is a better foundation for learning than Government support, and take a noble pride in maintaining the scholarship of our country whenever it calls for help. The generous response which has just been made to our appeal for a building-fund is a renewed proof of this; and when the time comes for abandoning our present temporary system of annual directors, we are sure that there will be no lack of the means necessary for carrying out a better and more efficient plan of permanent organization. For this we must be content to wait, perhaps only a few years; but if we had begun with a declaration that we could not establish our school until we had a fund sufficient to build or hire a house and maintain a permanent director, it is absolutely certain that the nineteenth century would have seen no American School at Athens. The School, under its present constitution, far as it falls short of our wishes and our hopes, has still, we believe, more than justified our original expectations; and it will amply earn its right to existence and support if it leads the way to a school in the future with a more permanent organization and with higher aspirations.

WILLIAM W. GOODWIN.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 19, 1886.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. W. J. Stillman, in his letter of May 27, published in the *Nation* of June 17, expresses some opinions in regard to the American School at Athens which seem to me to demand, if not direct contradiction, at least qualification. Mr. Stillman says: "It is not purely on à-priori grounds that I judge the American School to be thus far a conspicuous failure, but on the testimony of the students themselves, who, so far as I have heard their evidence, have found it an utter disappointment and illusion." I fear Mr. Stillman has not taken great pains to hear the evidence of students, except in so far as some discontented members of the School may have poured their woes into his sympathetic ears. I was myself a member of the School during the year 1882-83, and derived the greatest benefit from it. I was, as indeed we all were, treated with the greatest kindness by the authorities of the German Institute and the Greek libraries; nevertheless, the library of the American School was the place where most of my work was done. The library was then much less complete than it is now, but, being open at all hours of the day and evening, it was the only available place for continued, persistent work. The meetings of the School, at which papers on various subjects were read (several of which were published in the first volume of 'Papers of the American School at Athens'), gave stimulus and direction to our work, which would have been entirely wanting had we been left to our own devices.

Mr. Stillman's comparison of the American School with the French and German schools may at some future time be justified; but at present it is simply absurd. The American students are, for the most part, graduates of American colleges, who know of Greek history, literature, and archæology what they have learned in college; that is, so much that if they were to work hard for two or three years, they might hope to take the degree of Ph.D. at a German university. The students or *Stipendiaten* of the German Institute have not only taken the degree of Ph.D., but have so distinguished themselves by their success in archæological studies as to obtain from the German Government a *Reisestipendium*, or travelling scholarship, which enables them to prosecute their studies and follow out lines of independent research. The members of the French School are of a similar character. The object of both these schools is the encouragement of original research in archæology. This is a point which we hope to reach, but have not yet attained. The primary object of the American School is, as I understand it, to aid young Hellenists, or even those who are as yet little more than would-be Hellenists, to acquire that familiarity with Greek topography and with the remains of Greek civilization, which shall enable and inspire them to prosecute their later studies with enthusiasm and success, and shall make them good and useful teachers at home. It is for this reason that the American School is called a school of classical studies, not simply a school of archæology. The directors of the School have been chosen from among the first Hellenists of this country; and, if not archæologists, they are men capable of assisting the students in the study of Greek polity, sociology, and letters. Judging from my own experience, I should say that it was the student's own fault if he failed to find the director useful.

Mr. Stillman is, however, not the first who has urged the necessity of a permanent director. Every one connected with the School has felt from the beginning that the present arrangement must be merely temporary, for, as the study of archæology gains ground in this country, it will be more and more necessary to have an archæologist in charge of the School at Athens. Such a director will undoubtedly be appointed as soon as the School has the necessary endowment; but meanwhile the School is doing, under great difficulties, work which entitles it rather to recognition and support from all true friends of Hellenic studies than to ungenerous fault-finding. I heartily concur in Mr. Stillman's praise of my friend Dr. Sterrett, and should feel as keenly as Mr. Stillman "the misfortune of losing him from the field where our national vanity, if not our national recognition of merit," might well desire to maintain him; but until the funds necessary for the support of a permanent director are obtained, the present arrangement offers greater advantages than any other. In this opinion I am sure that some if not all of the former members of the School agree with me.

Yours truly, HAROLD N. FOWLER.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 19.

"NO MORE THAN HE CAN HELP."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of your correspondent's query, in the last number of the *Nation*, as to the omission of the logically required negative before "help" in such sentences as "he will not do any more work than he can help," I venture to suggest that it is due to confusion with the simpler, though almost identical form, "he will not do any work that he can help"—a confusion facilitated, so to speak, by the fact that the preponderating idea is felt to be really an affirmative one, viz.: "he will avoid all that he can," the expression of which by a comparison of inequality between two negative statements becomes altogether too subtle and puzzling for the ordinary mind. The case here is in a sense the converse of the French confusion of ideas in "you are stronger than I didn't think." But even the Frenchman says, "you are not as strong as I thought," avoiding the insertion of a second negative. It would be interesting to know whether the solecism "I should not be surprised if it didn't rain" (which I happen never to have heard), is of more than merely local occurrence.

Since the French construction has been made the point of departure by "A. H.," it may be worth while to call attention here to a peculiar Old French idiom involving a complete ellipsis of the idea "to help." In a *resverie* of the thirteenth century, for example, occurs the following;

> "ja par dieu, que nous puisson,
> n'i enterrez" (Bartsch, *Chrest.*, 365, 28).

I. e., "Never, by Heaven, that we can (help it), shall you enter there." The same idiom occurs in Old Provençal.—Respectfully, H. A. T.

BALTIMORE, June 19, 1886.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As to the expression, "I should not be surprised if it didn't rain this evening," meaning, "if it *did rain*," I can only say that I am assured by intelligent persons from Virginia, West Virginia, North and South Carolina, that the solecism is perfectly familiar to them. Nor can it be a recent thing, for an old Virginia lady, upwards of seventy, says she has heard it all her life.

No doubt the geographical limits of this irregular "not" might be approximately determined, in case the matter should be deemed worthy of discussion in "your valuable journal," as correspondents always say, when they desire to tickle the editor into printing anything for them.—Respectfully, A. H.

TARIFF REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The lobby has scored another triumph in preventing the tariff-reform bill from even coming to a discussion, and that in the face of the fact, which was pointed out in an editorial of the 15th in the *Evening Post*, that tariff reform was made a cardinal point in the platforms of both the Republican and the Democratic parties at the last Presidential election. So far as the people are concerned, therefore, they may be said to have approved unanimously the principle of that reform, and of course they cannot prescribe the details. Popular agitation on the subject of free trade is, therefore, superfluous and useless. The people have done all they can do towards an instalment of it, and it is Congress which blocks

the way. The truth is, that tariff reform is not a financial but a political question. The real issue is not what articles shall pay duty and what duty they shall pay, but who is to govern in this country. The favorite and sonorous phrase is "a government of the people, by the people, and for the people"; but there can be no greater misstatement. It is a government of the lobby, by the lobby, and for the lobby, and such it will continue to be so long as Congress, having usurped all the power of the Government, remains as helpless as a child which has got hold of a sharp knife and can do nothing with it but cut its fingers.

"Oh, yes!" some one says, "we know what you mean; but what good would it do to have the Cabinet on the floor of Congress?" As that is a very important question, suppose we try to think out a little what good it would do. It is the month of December, and Congress has just assembled. It has elected a Speaker who is engaged in making up the committees, and the President's message and the department reports have been received. One morning, a few days after the opening, in accordance with a vote passed at the close of the last session, the Secretary of the Treasury walks quietly into the House, and, bowing respectfully to the Speaker and to the House, takes a seat which has been provided near the Speaker's desk. Presently a member from a free-trade district rises: "Mr. Speaker, the Secretary of the Treasury has said so and so in his report. I desire to ask him whether he is prepared to submit to this House a statement of the leading changes which he thinks desirable in the tariff." The Secretary modestly replies that the subject is in the hands of the Ways and Means Committee, but that it will of course be his duty to meet any expressed wish of the House to the best of his ability. "Then, Mr. Speaker, I move that the Secretary be requested to name an early day on which he will make such a statement, and that the question on this motion be taken at once"—or whatever the parliamentary form may be. How many members would like to vote, in full view of their constituents, against giving the Secretary a hearing?

But suppose the majority of the House was opposed to the Administration and to tariff reform, and did refuse. The work of the free-traders would be clear. Instead of beating the air with abstractions to which the people have already assented, their point of attack would be the tyranny of Congress. It had refused a hearing, not only to the official head of the finances, but to Mr. ——, a man of approved ability, integrity, and technical knowledge. They would see how much more quickly public opinion responds to personality than it does to abstractions.

The outcry of the press and the platform having warned Congress of its false position, a similar motion later in the season has been carried, and the Secretary names the 15th day of February as the time for making his exposition. It is hardly too much to say that that day would be looked forward to by the country with greater interest than any Congressional event since the war. In the debate which would follow the address, all the methods of administration of the custom-houses would be sifted and discussed, as well as the effects of complex and contradictory duties, and not improbably the evil methods by which the lobby governs the committees and the houses. As the session wears on, and it becomes evident that the intention is as usual to defeat all action, the free-traders would depute one of their number to point out the fact, and to move that the Secretary be directed to submit at the opening of the next session a bill, in full and definite detail, providing for a first step in tariff reform. During the whole summer, then, the Secretary, with all the light he could obtain from experts and subordinates, and under the impending public responsibility, would be preparing such a bill, while the free-traders would be educating their allies and adherents to support that particular bill, not as a finality, but as in the right direction, and all that could be obtained at the outset.

We might follow out the process of carrying the bill and watching its administration, but these would be subject to modification by circumstances. The benefits of the initial step would seem to be obvious enough to justify our effort in its behalf. G. B.

Boston, June 17, 1886.

DR. WALDSTEIN AND M. DE VILLEFOSSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I enclose a letter from M. Héron de Villefosse which he has authorized me to publish. As I believe that it will finally make clear the position of the authorities of the Louvre and of myself with regard to the question raised by M. S. Reinach, I beg you to publish it in your columns.

Yours faithfully,

Chas. Waldstein.

King's College, Cambridge, June 6, 1888.

Paris, ce 27 mai 1886.

Cher Monsieur et très-honoré Collègue:

Je suis absolument étranger à l'article publié dans le journal *The Nation* de New York; je n'en ai connu l'existence que par votre lettre du 24 mai 1886. Je ne vous ai pas envoyé le Bulletin des Antiquaires; c'est une faute, ou plutôt un oubli, que je répare aujourd'hui. Je supposais que notre ami commun S. S. Lewis, qui le reçoit à Cambridge, vous aurait mis au courant de ma communication. Croyez bien que je n'ai jamais songé à vous reprocher d'avoir ignoré ma note, dont la portée était toute locale: elle s'addressait à ceux qui, en 1882, accusaient le Louvre, connaissant parfaitement la mention insérée dans le *Journal Officiel* du 22 juillet 1881. Vous avez bien raison de supposer que je n'ai pas voulu soulever une stérile question de priorité. Vous savez que le département des antiques était constamment et injustement attaqué au moment où j'ai fait ma communication aux Antiquaires de France. J'ai tenu à constater que la perspicacité des conservateurs du Louvre n'avait pas été en défaut; c'était mon droit et mon devoir. Je le faisais avec d'autant plus de liberté que je n'étais pas personnellement en cause, puisque l'acquisition avait été faite avant mon entrée dans le Comité consultatif des Musées nationaux. J'ai raconté les faits avec la plus rigoureuse exactitude, et je me permets de joindre à ma lettre les épreuves d'un article qui vient de paraître, et dont j'aurai le plaisir de vous adresser le tirage à part très-prochainement. Vous y verrez que je rends pleine justice à vos intentions, et que je constate votre découverte dans des termes qui ne peuvent laisser aucun doute sur ma pensée.

En ce qui concerne l'exposition de la tête du Lapithe dans une vitrine éloignée de la salle où sont les autres morceaux du Parthénon, vous devez vous rappeler que les marbres réunis dans cette vitrine étaient accompagnés d'une étiquette portant ces mots: *exposition provisoire*. Une partie de ces marbres provenait d'acquisitions récentes, et avait été, pour ce motif, exposée, selon l'usage, dans cette vitrine. On ne pouvait donc les considérer comme des objets définitivement classés.

Je n'ai pas besoin de vous redire les sentiments d'estime que j'ai pour vous: vous les connaissez de longue date. Je regrette cette discussion à laquelle je suis mêlé à mon insu, et je vous prie d'agréer la vive expression de mes sentiments les plus cordiaux et les plus affectueux.

Ant.-Héron de Villefosse.

Je vous aurais répondu dès hier si je n'avais été pris depuis deux jours par la vente de la collection Hoffmann.

Dans votre réponse, je pense que la date 1879 doit être une erreur du copiste, car la tête n'a été acquise qu'en 1880.

Notes.

A member of the family of the late Schuyler Colfax, J. O. Hollister, has, with the approval and assistance of Mrs. Colfax, written a Life of that once prominent politician, which Funk & Wagnalls will publish by subscription.

A memoir of the late Prof. J. Lewis Diman, in preparation by Miss Caroline Hazard, is, we are glad to learn, soon to appear.

Ticknor & Co., Boston, publish immediately 'A Moonlight Boy,' by E. W. Howe, author of 'The Story of a Country Town'; 'Romance and Revery,' poems by Edgar Fawcett; and 'An Epigrammatic Voyage,' by Denton J. Snider.

We should have mentioned last week, in connection with our review of the translation of Schopenhauer, that the work is published in this country by Ticknor & Co., Boston, by arrangement with Trübner & Co. One volume of the American edition is already out; the other two will appear during the present month.

"Monographs on Education" is to be the title of a series of pedagogic papers midway between magazine articles and books in length and style of treatment, published by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. No. 1 will be 'Modern Petrography,' an account of the application of the microscope to the study of geology, by Geo. Huntington Williams, of Johns Hopkins University.

It is now ten years ago since we bestowed hearty praise on the first edition of Mr. Taswell-Langmead's 'English Constitutional History' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Three years later a second edition was called for, and, the author having died meantime, a third has just been brought out by his friend and Oxford fellow-student, C. H. E. Carmichael. The editor has verified the text and annotated it freely, and supplied a list of authors and editions cited. Furthermore he has added several appendices on Frank-pledge, the early history of Tithes in Western Europe, the Convocations of Canterbury and York, etc. Appendix G discusses the monarchical principle in the Constitution of the United States, with the help of Sir Henry Maine's 'Popular Government,' an article in the *North American Review* by Mr. Wm. Beach Lawrence in 1880, and a Virginian pamphlet of 1884; and we need not be surprised to find Mr. Carmichael unable to "forecast with any safety" whether the supposed existing sentiment here in favor of an hereditary monarchy "is likely to be adopted as the expression of the views of a party in the United States." We counsel him, before he edits a fourth edition of this useful work, as we hope he may yet do, to make a visit to this country—and eliminate his appendix on his return.

Two readings of 'The Faust Legend,' by H. Sutherland Edwards (London: Remington & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford), have left us with a decidedly unfavorable impression of the essay. In places Mr. Edwards's opusculum seems to show the work of a scholar measurably fitted for the task he has undertaken. In other places, however, it suggests the lucubrations of a sophomore who has been assigned the Faust legend as a theme to read up on, and who has incontinently published his notes without submitting them to pedagogical scrutiny. The pamphlet, while making some show of learning, teems with incredible literary crudities. A specimen will suffice. The author has been discussing the etymology of Mephistopheles. He has reviewed various derivations that have been proposed, and

pronounced them all unsatisfactory. So far so good, but he then adds: "It is a pity that Goethe himself was never questioned as to the derivation of the name Mephistopheles. . . . One looks in vain for a derivation of the name to the *Wörter Buch* of the brothers Grimm. Death caused that work to be abandoned before the letter 'M' had been reached."

Mr. Andrew Carnegie's 'An American Four-in-Hand in Britain' has been reissued in paper covers by Chas. Scribner's Sons.

'The Book of Berkshire,' issued by Clark W. Bryan & Co., Great Barrington, Mass., is the work of many hands, and fairly exhaustive in its details concerning every town and district in that most picturesque of Massachusetts counties. Occasionally the minuteness approaches to a house-to-house census. The book is freely illustrated in an inexpensive manner, and is accompanied by an excellent map for the high-road tourist.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. send us a new and revised edition of their 'Boston Illustrated.'

The Smithsonian Report for 1884 has just emerged from the Government Printing-Office. It contains the usual scientific record for the year, and accompanying valuable bibliographies, with an abundance of archæological illustrations. All the gifts to the Institution here acknowledged were in objects or in services, but, as usual, there was no pecuniary endowment. A curious offer was made, however, of an indefinite but apparently small sum of money by a person who was afraid his will would be contested.

The sixteenth of the Tenth Census volumes is off the press. It is Part I. of the Reports on the Water-Power of the United States, and deals with eastern New England, the region tributary to Long Island Sound, the Hudson River basin, the Ontario, Erie, and Huron basins, the Middle and Southern Atlantic watersheds, and the Eastern Gulf slope. Views, plans, sections (as of dams), etc., are freely interspersed.

Mr. Griswold's *Monthly Index* to nearly sixty periodicals, American, English, and Continental, is precisely the sort of current guide librarians should desire to have on the tables of their reading-rooms. Any thoughtful person, however, given to the study of a special topic or topics, would be apt to find his account in "taking in" this broadside, as our English cousins say. It does measurably for him what the "bureaus of information and research" effect which furnish you newspaper clippings on any subject indicated. A glance down the alphabetized list shows if the periodicals of the last three months have treated of the topic in question, and in what issue—sometimes upon what page. The subscription price is but twenty-five cents a year. Address the publisher, at Bangor, Me.

The *Magazine of Art* for July (Cassell) returns to the subject of the menaced Charter-house, with capital illustrations of the wings, courts, and interior of this lovable old building. An illustrated paper on the St. John River will do something to draw the attention of American tourists to its beautiful shores and waters, so little known or appreciated. Some excellent engraving is bestowed on specimens of East Indian wood-carving, and process work has done its best in reproducing the Niké of Samothrace and the Hermes of Praxiteles.

The most important illustration in the June *Portfolio* (Macmillan) is an etching, by Charles Waltner, after a sketch by Hogarth, "The Shrimp Girl," of which it is the first copy in black-and-white. Mr. Beavington Atkinson's paper on Bernardino Luini is more interesting for its subject than valuable as research or criticism. Mr. Hamerton furnishes his fifteenth paper on "Imagination in Landscape Painting," discussing many things by the way, as why *old* poetry is a better stimulus to the imagination than new. He answers, because "the older the association with the experience and feelings of mankind, the more poetical everything becomes." But this is rather a restatement than an explanation. Is it not that the imagination is more stimulated by the unfamiliar than by the common and usual thing—whether it be mode of expression or of thought, mode of life, locality, scenery, nationality, etc.? An American novel, with the plot of Tolstoi's 'Anna Karenina,' should à priori be less entrancing than that story of Russian society in our day of locomotives and railway accidents. But 'Anna Karenina' in turn yields in this respect to the same author's 'War and Peace,' with no railroads to facilitate either the defence of Russia or Napoleon's retreat from Moscow, or to prevent our imagination from yielding wholly to the spell of Tolstoi's.

The Salon of 1886 is taken in hand by M. Paul Leroi in Nos. 527–529 of *L'Art* (Macmillan). In the midst of his discourse he tells with indignation of a recent slight upon the French sculptor, Auguste Rodin, by the Royal Academy, which gave him "leave to withdraw" a work submitted for the spring exhibition. M. Rodin, unhappily, does not understand a word of English, and M. Leroi found him cherishing his notice to take away his group as if an exhibitor's ticket of admission. A chapter on Wagner and "Lohengrin," extracted from the forthcoming sumptuous Life of Wagner by Adolphe Jullien, is given, in advance of publication, in No. 528. A portrait of the composer in 1857, a view of his birthplace in Leipzig, scenes from his operas, and caricatures from many sources, justify the editor of *L'Art* in making this readable selection. Among the customary number of etchings and facsimile reproductions, we remark a study of Pasteur's head on a large scale in charcoal, and two subjects from Millet. The *Courrier de l'Art* for April 30 copies from the *Débats* the Geneva letter giving an account of the exhibition of the pastelles of Liotard, the prolific portraitist of the last century, whose best-known work is the Dresden "Chocolate Girl." Mme. d'Épinay, Dr. Tronchin and his homely wife ("Que fait Mme. Tronchin? *Elle fait peur*," as Mme. Cramer said), Mlle. Vermenoux, who came near being Mme. Necker, M. and Mme. Thellusson, the latter a famous beauty, are some of the personages enumerated in this interesting and veracious portrait gallery.

The Pitt Press series of French publications is comparatively little known here (Cambridge, England; New York: Macmillan & Co.). It now numbers about twenty volumes, most of which are excellent, and the more worthy of being known to instructors since many of them are books not hackneyed as school texts. Thus we find two separate volumes by Mme. de Staël, the essay on Daru by Sainte-Beuve, and several plays of which it would be difficult to find suitable editions. There is also Voltaire's 'Siècle de Louis XIV.' in three volumes, with notes by M. Gustave Masson. All the publications have notes, many of which are very good. The last published is a very welcome addition to school classics, namely, Augustin Thierry's 'Lettres sur l'histoire de France,' containing numbers xii to xxiv, which treat specially of the progress of the communal movement in France in the middle ages. There are over forty pages of notes by MM. Masson and Prothero, and a very clear map of France of the period treated. In point of execution the books of the Pitt Press leave nothing to be desired.

Miss Kathleen O'Meara's 'Madame Mohl, her Salon and her Friends,' with which American readers are already familiar, both as it was first presented to them in the pages of the *Atlantic* more than a year ago and in its later book form, has just been published in a French translation under the title 'Un Salon à Paris: Madame Mohl et ses intimes' (Paris: Plon; New York: Christern). It is an agreeable and faithful translation as far as it goes; but there are many necessary omissions, often of long passages which had their excuse for being in the original, but which would have been out of place in a work written for a French public. With a certain literary dishonesty, there is nothing in the volume to indicate that this is not the form in which it first appeared.

'Au Tonquin' is the title of a very neatly done, concise description of the latest colonial acquisition of France, by Challan de Belval, "Médecin principal d'Armée" (Paris, 1886). It is introduced to the public only by these prefatory words: "Je dis seulement ce que j'ai vu"; and a glance over its pages easily produces the impression that this claim of the author is entitled to credit. The little book is divided into two chapters, the first of which treats, in separate sections, of geographical features, climatology, towns and villages, cultivation of the soil, industry, physical and moral traits, etc., religion and funeral rites, government, and festivals and public games. These descriptive parts contain much generally interesting information, plainly and briefly presented. The second chapter is entirely devoted to a survey of the various diseases prevailing in the country, and includes warnings as to the proper treatment of the army of occupation. On the heeding of these the writer makes the ultimate success of annexation to depend. His prognostications are, however, patriotically optimistic.

The *Journal des Débats* of June 2d announced that MM. Plon & Nourrit were to publish on the 4th inst. a new volume, entitled 'La Littérature russe,' by M. le vicomte Melchior de Vogüé.

The Music Teachers' National Association is to hold its tenth annual meeting in Tremont Temple, Boston, on June 30 and July 1 and 2. Dr. G. Stanley Hall will read an essay on "Music Teaching from a Psychological Standpoint," Dr. Wm. Mason one on "Touch" in playing the pianoforte, and Mr. Albert P. Parsons one on "The Proper Utilization of Practice Time." The programme embraces several other papers on Church Music, the Voice, Music in Public Schools, etc. Tonic sol-fa will of course come up for discussion. Various concerts are arranged for.

—Halliwell-Phillipps writes to an American friend: "Warned by my sudden break-down last year, I have neglected correspondence in my anxiety to devote myself as much as possible exclusively to the preparation of the sixth edition of my 'Outlines,' so as to get it completed with the Index you were very properly and considerately determined to have, before I was compelled to give up. This is now done, the last batch of copy having at length been despatched; and the new edition, now in two volumes, with considerable additions both in printed matter and illustrations, will, I hope, be ready in two or three weeks. But there is a new attraction in my home here that would reconcile you and all true United States Shaksperians to a fare of bread and water. By one of the most singular accidents of the kind that have ever occurred, the original title-deeds of Shakspere's estate at New Place have been discovered in the archives of a county family in Shropshire, and have found their way — *mirabile dictu* — to Hollingbury Copse. One of them is torn, but the other five, dating from 1532 to 1602, are as perfect as when they were in the poet's own rooms. They are inestimable personal relics, that are absolutely free from the doubts of authenticity that must inevitably be attached to other kinds of domestic memorials."

—The vast scope of our national economic

problems and their intricate nature are well illustrated by two articles in *Harper's* for July. One, the *pièce de résistance* of the number, is an exhaustive description of the domicile and organization of the New York Produce Exchange. In the course of the paper this business body is looked at from many points of view, and whether it be regarded with reference to the field of material interests it covers, or to the mass of its operations, or to the variety, elaborateness, and certainty of its routine methods, or to such adjuncts of itself as the Arbitration Committee and the Gratuity Fund, it must impress every observer as one of the most marvellous and successful creations of a commercial society relying upon private enterprise. It is, perhaps, the most complete and instructive example in this country of mind applied to business, on the old and well-established basis of individual self-interest organized in voluntary association for private gain. A little further on in the magazine is the first of Dr. Ely's "Social Studies," an introductory chapter on Railroads. In this he declares the problem of our iron highways to be preliminary to any real settlement of the tariff, coöperation, strikes, arbitration, profit-sharing, civil administration, municipal reform, etc.; and, as one reads, he begins to think that the natural conclusions to be drawn from the Produce-Exchange article must all be reversed, and the doctrine of the social utility of private enterprise be abandoned. The contrast of the two writers is hardly less in style than in matter: one straightforward, substantial, and English; the other spasmodic and veined with Continental modes of rhetoric. The remainder of the magazine is notable for a sketch of Gen. Sullivan's capture of the powder in Portsmouth harbor, December, 1774, and for a portrait of Hawthorne which, the Easy Chair writes, "Mr. Lowell thinks to be the best that he knows," and which is certainly very fine.

—The *Atlantic* continues the universal discussion by an article on the "Labor Question" by George Frederic Parsons, to whom we owe an apology for having, by a confusion of names, credited his patient paper upon Balzac, in the last number, to George Parsons Lathrop. His present essay, in so different a province, is a very conservative view, and partakes of the reactionary spirit against the working classes in complaint, which has been much more outspoken since the Anarchist riot than it was before. The writer displays a tendency towards Knownothingism, or "America for the Americans," insists on the social law of the survival of the fittest, and declares that the "laborers" had better leave off their drams before they find fault with their wages. In short, his view is that of "eminent respectability," not without humaneness, but chafed somewhat by recent events. The number, as a whole, is unusually entertaining. Dr. Holmes gives a chapter of reminiscences of his first voyage to Europe, which contrasts charmingly with the cable reports of his second visit. Mr. Hamerton begins a series of truly international criticism, since he contrasts the French and English nations for American readers; and this first instalment is frank, acute, and (one need not say) agreeable. Miss Preston treats "Ouida" to the unusual sensation (the subject will excuse the phrase) of a serious review; and "Sibyl the Savage" is a pleasant bit of artificial romance. Mr. John Fiske's paper on the "Failure of American Credit after the Revolutionary War" is written in the same readable style as the other historical reviews that have preceded it, and has the same novelty and surprising effect as those, due to his literary treatment of the facts.

—Mr. H. D. Traill, the author of 'Central Government' in the "English Citizen Series," contributes to the June number of *Macmillan's Magazine* a readable article upon "International Copyright." The first four pages are devoted to a review of the proceedings of the Berne Conferences of 1884 and 1885, and to a consideration of the provisions of the bill before the present Parliament, embodying such changes in the English copyright statutes as are necessary to enable Great Britain to become one of the States of the proposed international union for the protection of literary property. The remaining six pages contain a notice of the defunct "Hawley" bill, and of the hearing before the Senate Committee on Patents. Mr. Traill does not believe that the American public—recognizing as just the claim of the foreign author to some profit from his mental labor—is unwilling to pay the necessary advance of price, but rather feels "justified in saying that nothing now but the protection difficulty stops the way" to securing an equitable international-copyright measure. The inconsistency of the protectionists in regard to this measure is well set forth in the following paragraph:

"The real force of opposition to international copyright has for some time past transferred itself from the field of theoretical right to that of practical expediency. It has been argued that the American people get their books cheapened for them by a system which permits American publishers to appropriate, if they choose to do so, the works of English authors; and, with comical inconsistency in a protectionist nation, that it is not for the Legislature to enhance the price of books by 'taxing them for the benefit of foreign authors.' It is amusing to turn from an argument of this kind to a copy of the United States tariff, and to count the number of articles for which the American public is taxed, not, indeed, for the benefit of a foreign producer, but for the benefit of *a* producer, to whose support the American consumer can, it would seem, be legitimately made to contribute in every case. . . . But when it is pointed out that the introduction into the country of what corresponds to a contraband merchandise, namely, pirated English books, has had the effect of seriously reducing the demand for the products of another very important American industry, that of book-writing, to the great loss and discouragement of those that practise it, the economical conscience of American politicians has in some mysterious way become converted, *pro hac vice*, to the doctrines of free-trade, and they have sternly closed their ears against the 'bitter cry' of the native author. Yet, with a singular and even cynical elasticity of principle, they no sooner turn from the author's industry to any one of the other industries connected with the production of literature—to the paper-makers', the printers', or the bookbinders'—and the free-trade 'stop' is straightway pushed in and the protectionist 'stop' pulled out. The American publisher may import the English author's books in the sense of bringing over his written words for reprint and republication in America, but he must not think of honestly buying, paying for, and importing the book itself free of fiscal charge. That would be to attack the sacred interests of the mechanical trades connected with literature; and here, accordingly, America reverts to her normal economic policy, and protects the printers, stereotypers, binders, and others by an import duty."

—A copy of the Timucua grammar composed by the Franciscan Father Pareja was lately discovered by Mr. Charles Leclerc, of Paris, and has just been republished by the firm Maisonneuve Bros., of which he is a partner. When attending the meeting of the Congrès des Américanistes in Madrid (1881), he met with a small duodecimo volume containing eighty printed and seventy-five written leaves, all belonging to one continuous text worded in Spanish. It proved to be the 'Arte y pronunciacion en lengua Timuquana y Castellana, por el Padre Fray Francisco Pareja, etc.' (Mexico, 1614), the written part being in the chirography of the author himself. No bibliographer had ever seen a copy of the book, and of this and some other writings of that author only the title was known. Rejoiced at the recovery of this important literary treasure, Mr. Leclerc at once intrusted Mr. Lucien Adam and Prof. Julien Vinson with the editing of it. The volume will be the only means of disentangling the formidable maze of Timucua verbal conjugation, which exceeds the Cherokee and Iroquois in power of polysynthesis and complexity. Timucua seems to be extinct now; it was spoken in the peninsula of Florida as far north as the Oconee River (Oconi is mentioned as a dialect on page 88), and in its whole breadth from west to east. The text of the grammar was published by Lucien Adam, without annotations or alphabetic index, in 132 pages; Prof. Vinson has added a preface in French of 31 pages, which contains an ethnologic, literary, and historic introduction, with three texts of the language. On pp. 21-26 he also gives a short abstract of the language as far as it is reduced to grammatic rules. He thinks that many of Pareja's enormously long vocables are not real words, but "aggregations of adverbial or other particles, which cannot be called real conjugational forms" (p. 26). This is one of the points which future linguists will have to decide. The local name Machaua (p. 30) is wrongly copied *machana* from Vinson's original, for on the old maps of Florida we find only *Machaua* and *Machalla*. The terms quoted by Vinson from the authors of the sixteenth century who had visited Florida are partly Creek and not Timucua, as *hassez*, *hiatiqui*, *holata* (pp. 30, 31). They prove the presence of Creek tribes on the coast of South Carolina, where Charlefort had been erected by the French explorers in 1562. The term *paracoussi* means 'chief,' and is taken from the Yuchi language. The Timucua 'Arte' forms the eleventh volume of Maisonneuve's "Bibliothèque linguistique américaine."

GNEIST'S HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH CONSTITUTION.

The History of the English Constitution. By Dr. Rudolph Gneist, Professor of Law at the University of Berlin. Translated by Philip A. Ashworth, of the Inner Temple, Esq., Barrister-at-Law. London: William Clowes & Sons; New York: Putnams. 2 vols.

No student can read Gneist's work without gaining a new idea of English institutions. But many readers, it may be suspected, feel some difficulty in making clear to themselves the exact nature of Prof. Gneist's peculiar merit. His erudition is vast, but it is equalled by the erudition of Bishop Stubbs. His impartiality and calm judgment are noteworthy, but in these qualities he cannot surpass Hallam. His care in mastering the actual working of English politics is remarkable in a foreigner; but in this matter Gneist is inevitably surpassed by Bagehot, who knew his country and his countrymen not from books, but from actual experience. If it be said, as it may be said with truth, that the German professor gained something by surveying the English polity from a distance, exactly the same thing may be said of Montesquieu in the last and of De Tocqueville in the present century; and Gneist's warmest admirers must admit that in beauty of style and keenness of analysis Gneist falls far below his French rivals. He, again, treats of the English Constitution as a lawyer, and this is of great advantage; but it is an advantage which he shares with Hearn and with Prof. Hare of Philadelphia, whose printed but as yet unpublished lectures will one day take a high rank among the constitutional literature of the English people. Each and all of these writers have peculiar merits which Gneist cannot surpass; yet he assuredly contributes something to the knowledge of the English Constitution which is not to be found in the works of other authors. This special contribution consists in the prominence given by Gneist throughout the whole of his history to two leading ideas or principles, which afford the key to a number of the problems presented by the progressive de-

velopment of English institutions—a development, it may be added, quite as well marked on this side of the Atlantic as on the other. These ideas are in themselves rather legal than historical conceptions, and Gneist's extraordinary merit lies in the fact that he combines, as no other writer has as yet done, the ideas suggested by knowledge of law with knowledge accumulated by profound study of history.

The first of Gneist's leading conceptions is one which in different ages has been embodied in different forms and has received different names. What statesmen of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries called the "royal prerogative," what a modern jurist calls the "sovereignty of Parliament," is in reality nothing else than an expression of the fact that the national Government in England has been for generations and still is supreme over every personal body throughout the state. Now Gneist, taking up this legal conception, shows in chapter after chapter that the strength of the central Government as the representative of the nation is the source not only of English law, but, though the assertion sounds paradoxical, of English freedom. This early acquired authority of the executive is, as every reader of Gneist's book sees, and as no merely legal treatise can show, due to a vast number of historical and social conditions. But (and this is the point which deserves to be emphasized) once let the full bearing be grasped of the early development in England of a central power, at once national and strong, and a number of peculiarities in the political and the social development of the country fall into their right place, and cease to appear unexplainable anomalies. To the power of the crown may be traced the early prevalence and almost unbroken continuance of a system of taxation which gave no room for the growth of that class of farmers-general who, in France, at once diminished the income of the state and increased both the weight and the hatefulness of the taxes. To the power of the crown is due, far more than might be suspected by careless readers of the current works on constitutional history, the happy failure of the English nobility to form a separate class, and the consequent fusion between the peerage and the commonalty. To the same source is due in great part both the striking fact that England went through the Reformation with far less social and political disturbance than was endured by the states of Continental Europe, and the less noticed but not less important fact that villanage was, in England, almost imperceptibly abolished generations before it had disappeared from other countries. It is, indeed, no exaggeration to assert that, before the beginning of the seventeenth century, the grievances which at the close of the eighteenth century made the *ancien régime* hateful to all France, were unknown to Englishmen; and if the relics of feudalism have never been detested in England, the reason is, that the authority of the nation represented by the crown prevented feudalism from ever reaching a noxious development. To the early power of the King, again, is assuredly due the predominance throughout the land of equal and uniform laws, and hence, also, that spirit of legality which has for ages characterized the English people.

Here we come across the second of Gneist's leading conceptions, namely, the determination of Englishmen to be ruled by law. This is a matter which many authors have noticed, but which few have understood. What is called the love of freedom, preference for self-government, the hatred of centralization, and the like, will be found to be a respect for law and a detestation of arbitrary or lawless authority. On this point Gneist has seen far deeper into English character and history than critics like De Tocqueville, who have assumed, in the face of the clearest facts to the contrary, that local administration in England is specially well developed, and that the English love of freedom means jealousy of a strong central Government. Neither in the middle ages nor in later times have Englishmen shown the least disposition to favor local autonomy, or the least jealousy of a strong ruler. The popular Kings—Edward I., Henry VIII., George III., and others—have been men who could assert their own will, and, but for the incompetent perversity of the Stuarts, there is every reason to suppose that the crown might have retained as much power under the English Constitution as is now possessed in Germany by the Emperor. What the nation has detested is a government wanting in strength, wanting sympathy with the nation, and lacking respect for the law. The political problem which tormented the statesmen of the seventeenth century was, how to combine a strong government with respect for the law which expressed the will of the nation; and if any one wishes to understand how difficult this reconciliation was, and how absolutely impossible it became that England should prosper till the reconciliation was effected, he should study Gneist's admirable chapter on the Republic, or, as Englishmen more generally call it, the Commonwealth. It consists of not twenty pages, yet it goes further to solve, at any rate from the political side, the curious problem offered by the combined triumph and failure of Puritanism than any work with which we are acquainted.

The solution is, briefly, this: Cromwell "represented the State with honor"; he anticipated under the form of a united commonwealth that "United Kingdom" which, until the time of Mr. Gladstone, every modern statesman has considered the triumph of English policy in the foundation of English power. He established a nearer approach to toleration than had as yet existed in any European state; his administration was the best that England had ever had; he accomplished, in short, the achievement of giving to the country a government which was at once strong and (at any rate, as regards foreign Powers) national. But, for all this, Cromwell and the Cromwellians were detested, and no principle is more certain than that a government which excites the distrust or detestation of all classes is untrustworthy and detestable. Gneist shows us well enough why the grandeur of the Commonwealth excited far more permanent unpopularity than did the meanness of the Restoration. Cromwell's rule was at bottom a military dictatorship. In spite of his own wish to rule according to law, his rule was essentially the triumph of the army over legality. With far more excuse, Cromwell failed as decisively as did Charles the First to reconcile authority and law. The one step by which power might have been made lawful would have been the assumption of the royal title. This was no matter of mere form. "A king of England can only succeed to a limited prerogative, and must govern according to the known laws. A protector, although with less nominal authority, has all that the sword can give him." This dictum of Thurloe's contains the sum of the whole matter. If Cromwell could have assumed the crown, he might have insured the stability by establishing the legality of his power; he would have ceased to be a dictator and have become a constitutional king, though a king with far greater authority than is possessed by a modern English sovereign. From whatever cause, Cromwell did not achieve the difficult transformation from a tyrant to a king, and, failing to accomplish this, he failed to solve the political problem of the day. He failed, also, as Gneist convincingly shows, even to establish a really effective despotism. His army kept him in power, but soldiers are not fit instruments of government, and the whole scheme of English administration, depending as it did in the seventeenth century on the willing coöperation with the executive of the chief landowners throughout the country, did not lend itself to the purposes of even enlightened tyranny. In this matter, the merits of the Commonwealth told as much as its defects against its permanence. The tone of the country was monarchical, and Puritanism itself was in one aspect a form of conservatism. An enlightened despotism gave to England benefits which Englishmen did not appreciate, and did not bestow upon them the one blessing which they did appreciate—the undisturbed supremacy of the law of the land. The Revolution of 1688 was not, as it is sometimes represented, the (so to speak) accidental triumph of inferior politicians, who, through some freak of fate, succeeded where statesmen of heroic genius had failed; but rather the final attainment by the nation of that legal form of government which Englishmen had always vaguely desired, but could not obtain at the hands either of the Stuarts or of Cromwell. This, at least, is the conclusion suggested, we may say established, by Gneist; it illustrates his general view of English constitutional history, and shows us how much this view does to remove historical difficulties which are never explained, and are rarely recognized, by even the best-known writers on the English Constitution.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Midge. By H. C. Bunner. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Burglars in Paradise. By Elizabeth Stuart Phelps. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

John Bodewin's Testimony. By Mary Hallock Foote. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

A Daughter of Fife. By Amelia E Barr. Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Last of the MacAllisters. By Amelia E. Barr. Harper's Handy Series.

The Midnight Cry. By Jane Marsh Parker. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Aunt Parker. By B. L. Farjeon.—*Lord Vanecourt's Daughter.* By Mabel Collins.—*Self or Bearer.* By Walter Besant.—*Until the Day Breaks.* By Emily Spender.—*First Person Singular.* By D. Christie Murray.—*Rainbow Gold.* Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Aunt Rachel. By D. Christie Murray. Macmillan & Co.

The Mark of Cain. By Andrew Lang. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THERE is something about an inn so irresistibly attractive to a good story-teller that he is sure, sooner or later, to immortalize one. Perhaps it is there that he has the best opportunities to observe his fellow-men, and to test that love for them without which no one ever wrote the sort of story that lasts. In laying the opening scene of 'The Midge' in the Brasserie Pigault, Mr. Bunner clearly obeys destiny. The Brasserie Pigault was only a beer saloon on Houston Street or thereabout. The Brasserie Pigault in its pristine cleanliness and geniality is no more; it has been vulgarized past recognition by the influences of an age prolific of reformers, especially of those reformers whom the author characterizes as "estimable gentlemen wandering about this broad land, patronizing second-class hotels and denouncing in scathing terms the Demon Drink." But the spirit of the Brasserie Pigault has been caught and converted by a poet into an everlasting joy for the unregenerate who still dare to love romance better than reform. The story that radiates from the Brasserie is extremely simple; it is entirely romantic in incident, perfectly real in feeling. Nothing could be further from the commonplace than the coming together of a sober bachelor like Everts Peters and the

Midge, the child (metaphorically) of adventure and many sorrows; (literally) of a Polish actress and a vagabond British aristocrat. Nothing could be more natural to unconventionalized human beings than the affection born of dependence and trust on one side, of protective instinct on the other, which developed between these two; nothing could be more delightful than the author's manner of telling all about it. The Midge, in her childhood, may stand for vivacity beside "the Marchioness"—for piquancy, beside the little girls of such French authors as Halévy and Coppée; while she has a precocious dignity all her own. After she coils up her hair and lengthens her petticoats, she is less interesting. The author seems purposely to drop her, in order to concentrate sympathy in her self-appointed guardian, Peters. The interest of the later chapters is all in the man who deserved so much from life, who got so little, and who, we plainly see, is predestined to give up even that which he has. The end is in a way cruel; but it is the cruelty of nature, not a gratuitous stab from the author, and does not shock expectation. The only harshness for which the author is responsible is the incident of Paul Hathaway's South American escapade. It is a pity that some less jarring complication had not been devised. But this is a trifling defect in a story displaying within small compass those high qualities of imagination, intellect, and heart which, when sustained, make novelists great.

Though Miss Phelps has given the world many ingenious descriptions of Paradise, the title of her last story, 'Burglars in Paradise,' is somewhat startling to people reposing in the conviction that, in that celestial region, "thieves do not break through nor steal." It is a relief to find that the Paradise is situated on the Massachusetts coast; that it is that "Old Maid's Paradise" of which Miss Phelps has already discoursed in print. The sketch is intended to be funny, but there is not much careless jollity about Miss Phelps, and in forcing it she does herself grave injustice. She has selected legitimate subjects for making fun; there is a mine of it in the embarrassments of a lone woman who wants to buy a horse, in the perplexities of an unworldly spinster who has lost a bond and who is paying local police, State police, and private detectives to find it. The natural "funny man" would make his fortune out of such materials. But Miss Phelps is so far from being spontaneously funny that even her selection of situations with ludicrous features does not seem to be a quick intellectual perception of them, but a deliberate choice of things where, according to all laws, fun ought to be, with the purpose of producing literary effect. The result is a heavy and exaggerated pleasantry, which wears on patient people, and prompts the impatient to pronounce it largely pedantic, wholly affected, and very dull.

The funny business of 'John Bodewin's Testimony' is done by the miners of the "Eagle Bird" and the "Uinta." Like the popular rustics, mountaineers, and negroes of current fiction, they overflow with sententious philosophy, expressed in extraordinarily corrupted English. Their wise saws and surprising similes do not excite admiration; they fade into tame commonplace when subjected to the dreadful test of translation into ordinary conversational language. The fact that this coin is spurious might have been overlooked if Mrs. Foote had not cut off a source of amusement supposed to be inexhaustible. She has given us a girl from Kansas, prim and proper as a girl from Boston, and she seems anxious to convince us that this girl from Kansas is typical. What are we to do for glow, and dash, and the rapture of the irregular, if the star of conventionality has already travelled so far Westward? There is a place on the rim of the setting sun called Oshkosh. There is probably a girl in Oshkosh. Let us pin our hopes to her. It is to the propriety of Miss Newbold from Kansas, however, that we owe the story. If it had not been for her conscience, and her perfect assurance of the wishes of a woman long dead, whom she had never known, John Bodewin would have ridden away from the Eagle Bird, his evidence would have been lost to Mr. Newbold, and his name to the land and the novel reader. For he was a weak young man, for ever entangling himself with ridiculous promises, and, in spite of Miss Newbold's conscientious direction, coming out of the trial about the Eagle Bird claim in a worse plight than when he went on the witness stand. Still, he was not all to blame for that, since he was in the hands of the most eccentric counsel, jury, and judge ever imagined by a woman novelist. On the whole, the construction of this novel is so imperfect and its characterization so feeble, that one may fail to appreciate the author's graceful descriptions, or to give her enough credit for her easy, pleasant style.

It is a dangerous experiment to write two novels in rapid succession, with similar scene and characters. The second generally weakens a favorable impression, and never dispels an unfavorable one. 'John Bodewin's Testimony' is a dilution of 'The Led-Horse Claim,' and 'A Daughter of Fife' is a faint echo of 'Jan Vedder's Wife.' Maggie Promoter among the fishermen of Pittenloch is a more agreeable figure than Margaret Vedder, but not nearly so fine in conception or truthful in detail. When she leaves Pittenloch for more civilized surroundings, she ceases to be in any degree interesting, and we feel that for every reason she had better have staid "wi' her ain folk." Still here, as in the earlier story, Mrs. Barr hits off cleverly some peculiarities of Scotchmen. She knows that a Scotchman may be loyal and loving, yet harsh and pitiless towards the object of his loyalty and his love, especially if it be a woman who has departed from his own standard of duty and propriety, and who entreats his sympathy for a misery of the heart, of the imagination, of the emotions. This aspect of his character is skilfully shown in the little scene in Glasgow between Maggie and her brother, David Promoter. Maggie is the dearest thing in the world to him, yet when she bursts in upon him surrounded by his volumes of theology, and tells about the wrong done her in Pittenloch, he is simply scandalized:

"Then what will I do, Davie?" she cries. "What will I do? I am sae miserable. Do hae some pity on me."

"Do?" he answers. "Do your duty and you will be happy whatever wind blows. And as to my having pity on you, I would love you little if I gave way now to your impatience and your wounded pride."

In 'The Last of the MacAllisters' Mrs. Barr dips into Scotch history. She has well chosen those exciting days when the clans were listening for the word to strike for the last of the Stuarts. To-day no true Highlandman speaks of Prince Charlie without a tender inflection, and the romance of that most forlornly heroic episode of '45 can never be exhausted. Mrs. Barr conveys to the reader some understanding of the devotion to a name which commanded to the last the willing sacrifice of "heart and hand and siller and land and life itsel'." Though her semi-barbarous MacAllisters and roving Romanys are highly-colored, they are full of nature and life, and the plot in which they move is well knit together. Here again she has drawn one character which in its mixture of fire and caution, of enthusiasm and wary self-interest, is peculiarly Scotch. This is Fraser, the legal adviser and friend of the hot-headed MacAllister. Fraser can define rebellion and treason, and is perfectly familiar with the punishment for both enjoined by the law; so he declares that the gathering of the clans is a finable offence, and warns the MacAllister, "Ye maun break your ranks. I'll no be coerced into going for Charlie." But the ranks form and fight and win at Preston. The dark day of Culloden has not yet dawned when the news comes to the lawyer that young Donald Fraser had died for Charles Stuart. "Ah!" he says, drily, "he owes me a thousand merks, but I'm glad I let him hae them." But when he hears how bravely Donald died, the old man forgets his guard and bursts out: "I wish I had made him take 10,000 merks. He shall hae a monument, the best money can buy him, that shall he. Where is Charles Stuart now?"

In 'The Midnight Cry' there is an interesting description of the Millerite agitation of 1844. For months before the autumn of that year, several thousand fanatics were engaged in noisy and aggressive preparation for the coming of the Lord and the destruction of the wicked world. The author paints a graphic picture of the extensive disorder caused by the preaching about an event so certain to interfere with the ordinary affairs of life. She heightens it by the contrasted placidity of a Quaker community, where one of the later scenes is laid. If the construction and character-drawing were as strong as the presentation of separate episodes, the story would be an uncommonly good one. Unfortunately they are not. The author seems to have attempted a great deal and to have carried out very little. No sooner is the reader well on the track of one mystery than he is switched off to another. Just when he is becoming a little intimate with one person, a new acquaintance is thrust upon him, and, when he closes the book, he feels that he has had a surfeit of promising beginnings, but no satisfactory conclusion.

The most casual reading of the average English novel leads one to reflect that the family as a British social institution is demoralized, and that its total disintegration is more imminent than that possible disintegration of the Empire which harasses the legislators. The chief evil is in the despotism of the head of the family, generally a father, but if not a father, then a mother, grandmother, or aunt. Uncles seem to be inoffensive or insignificant, occasionally benevolent in their feeble way. Mr. Farjeon's 'Aunt Parker' is an awful example of the domestic miscreant. In the first interview with her orphaned niece, this lady shows her admirable qualification for bringing up a child in the way she should go. She shakes her violently and makes mysterious threats. The child, assuming indifference, is very speedily terrorized by a vivid narrative of the fate of the allegorical "Don't Care." Though Aunt Parker does not seem to need assistance in the congenial business of frightening a child to death, she speedily allies with a legal guardian, a person who has all her own prominent characteristics and a definite masculine brutality to boot. Together they decide that the child is mad, and hustle her off to a sort of private asylum, apparently presided over by Aunt Parker for the mere pleasure of the thing. Here the child grows to womanhood. Having escaped idiocy, she almost effects release from her keepers. But they are too sharp for her, and whisk her to the Continent, where, in the midst of an impenetrable forest, she, for several years, subsists on husks, and dresses in the skins of beasts. In the end Aunt Parker and her pal are very severely punished, but they have the consolation of knowing that they did their duty, according to their light, by the only child whom they ever had the chance to experiment on. As the story is peculiarly repulsive, we cannot but feel that Mr. Farjeon forced himself to write it, in order to direct public attention to the crying necessity

for the reformation of aunts or for their total abolition.

In 'Lord Vanecourt's Daughter' the monster of the hearth is a father, a peer of the realm, a gentleman of great personal beauty and of engaging manner. Lord Vanecourt's daughter is well grown before she makes her father's acquaintance. She has certain instinctive prepossessions in his favor, but when she sees him coolly permit her blind grandmother to walk into a pit and break her neck, she feels that, as a father or a friend, he is neither to be admired nor trusted. So she frankly declares, "No longer shall you be kith or kin of mine"; whereupon he smiles pleasantly, threatens solitary confinement, and mentally reflects that loneliness, grief, and despair will soon "do for" his daughter. The daughter, however, runs away, and Lord Vanecourt sets up a servant in her place, thus acquiring control of her fortune, which he very much needs. When the daughter, hearing of his ruse, returns and claims her own, Lord Vanecourt, still smiling affably, declares her to be a crazy impostor, calls the police, and has her committed to an asylum. The daughter has even a harder time than Aunt Parker's niece before she gets rid of her father, secures her lover, and comes into her own. If it had not been for mystics, Theosophists, and clairvoyants, she undoubtedly would have perished, and the world would never have known how much worse than one of the wicked it is possible for a British father, who is also a nobleman, to be.

In 'Self or Bearer,' a story that begins with a lost heir and ends with a forged check, Mr. Besant draws a picture of English *bonheur de famille* which makes us hope that the country may yet be saved. The Cronans are not absolutely abandoned to plotting each other's destruction, perhaps because they are equally poor, and the doctor can see no pecuniary advantage to be derived from maltreating his children. Then there is one really loving mother, but she is a shady person, a foreigner and an opera singer, who perhaps loved her son to keep her mind from contemplation of her numerous disadvantages. But even in this pleasant tale of innocent people the iniquitous parent finds a place. What but crime and shame can be expected from a boy whose father, a scholar and, in a way, a gentleman, brings him up on such axioms as "Despise common cant about Honor, Friendship, Justice, Charity. The world is full of creatures who live by eating each other. There is no other way to live"?

It is, however, when the British father is a rector that his tyrannical nature is seen in perfection. In 'Until the Day Breaks' there is a very fine specimen. The most amiable remark the Rev. Mr. Marsden can make to his daughter is, "I think you look rather less repulsive, Harriet, when you are sitting still than when you are playing tennis." The kindest act he can conceive of is to enclose to this daughter's husband a letter written in confidence to her mother, the contents of which were calculated to annoy the mildest husband, and to enrage a hot-tempered one. Mr. Marsden's ordinary demeanor in his household is that of a sulky savage. Many of his most disagreeable attributes are common to all the men in the story, excepting an Irish patriot. He is a radiant saint, and the obvious deduction is that the temper and manners of men can best be preserved by giving each one a turbulent nation instead of a well-meaning family to take care of.

Mr. Murray's 'First Person Singular' sustains the deduction. Here there is only one family man—a literary man with an adoring wife; and he behaves very decently. The rest of the men are Polish patriots, Russian patriots, Irish patriots, and Irish-American sympathizers—a lively, interesting, and fairly human set. The doings of these inflammable creatures are necessarily exciting, and are told with great spirit and energy. The novel adds to Mr. Murray's reputation as a vivid delineator of cosmopolitan life, and interpreter of the spirit of the world about him.

In 'Rainbow Gold' and 'Aunt Rachel' he is less successful. Neither is of his own time or of his own *genre*. 'Rainbow Gold' is a romance, full of adventure, with many fine touches of humor and pathos, entirely creditable, but not in the author's best manner. Mr. Ezekiel Round is a very bad father indeed, but his temper is an honest, old-fashioned one. He does not abuse his son habitually and out of pure malice, but, when Job defies him, he turns him out of doors, and stamps his foot, and vows nevermore to look upon his ungrateful child. 'Aunt Rachel,' described as a "sentimental rural comedy," is still further from Mr. Murray's natural vein. It has to do with a company of rustics who utter proverbs in dialect, and who are abandoned to playing upon stringed instruments. The character of Aunt Rachel is not a happy one for a pastoral. The whole story lacks the unconsciousness, the spontaneity, without which simplicity in fiction has neither grace, nor charm, nor value.

Mr. Lang, in 'The Mark of Cain,' gives both domestic and rural themes a wide berth. He revels in crime. He scrambles breathlessly from cheating at cards to murder, from murder to abduction, from abduction to attempted assassination and suicide, and he thrusts the burden of almost all the atrocities on the shoulders of one man. All the villains of history and fiction together pale before Mr. Thomas Cranby. If he were in the least interesting, his fame would be assured and eternal; but with all his talent he is not interesting, nor is the chain of destruction of which he is the first and last link. The story is a sequence of extravagances, and the author's consciousness of the extravagance rather aggravates than mitigates the fault. To the crimes of the cheap novelist Mr. Lang has added one only possible to the man-of-letters—the irrelevant display of much reading. He gives us a chapter on the literature of flying machines and several discourses on the *woorali* or arrow poison of the Macoushi Indians of Guiana. His black-leg tells us what Matthew Arnold says, as glibly as he lays down the laws of baccarat. The author is so crammed with quotations that he cannot describe a girl with a big nose in plain phrase. Even the frequenters of the *Hit and Miss* can scarce forbear to quote. And with all his quoting, he is occasionally surprisingly inaccurate. Macaulay did not write the couplet which introduces 'The Mark of Cain,' as it is there written, and we have never before heard the crackling of thorns under a pot compared to the laughter of the *wicked*.

A Popular History of Astronomy during the Nineteenth Century. By Agnes M. Clerke. Macmillan & Co. 1886.

WHAT manner of woman is this that, unknown in scientific literature, makes her first appearance as authoress of a work which the ablest astronomer would hesitate to undertake? Fifteen years ago we might have taken it for granted that such a writer would know nothing of the subject except what she had gleaned from the writings of Lockyer and Proctor, and from the publications of the Royal Astronomical Society. But the issues of *Nature* have since opened the eyes of England to the fact that other countries are doing work in science, and it has ceased to be a matter of pride with English writers to ignore everything done elsewhere. A very slight examination of Miss Clerke's work shows that she is no mere compiler, recording impressions at second-hand, but a really thorough student of the original works of the leading astronomers of the world, and, what is yet better, able to enter into the spirit of their labors. It is difficult to see how any one without going through a course of professional training at a German university could have seized upon the ruling idea of modern instrumental astronomy so happily as is done in the following sentences:

"His [Bessel's] introduction of a regular theory of instrumental errors might almost be said to have created a new art of observation. Every instrument, he declared in memorable words, must be twice made—once by the artist, and again by the observer. Knowledge is power. Defects that are ascertained and can be allowed for are as good as non-existent. Thus the truism that the best instrument is worthless in the hands of a careless or clumsy observer, became supplemented by the converse maxim that defective appliances may by skilful use be made to yield valuable results."

Are we, then, dealing with a prodigy who sees everything from the point of view of the trained astronomer? A mere study of scientific researches does not qualify one to write their history. Every investigation must be understood, not only in itself, but in its origin, relations, and surroundings. It originated because the author and his co-workers had reached a certain stage of knowledge; its treatment of the subject is suggested by a multitude of circumstances, and it reflects the personal peculiarities of each writer. Unless the investigation is seen as part of a whole, the view of the historian will be imperfect. Moreover, a large mass of the scientific research of the day is far from being either conclusive or complete, and no one who does not carefully follow it with a professional eye can see it in its true perspective.

There are in astronomy a few tests, varying from time to time, by which the popular writer can be easily gauged. Ten to twenty years ago the value of the solar parallax which he preferred afforded an extremely easy and simple test. If he knew nothing he assigned it a high figure, and the more thoroughly he was acquainted with astronomical research, the better he knew that it was probably overestimated, and that every improvement was reducing it toward the older value of Encke. But after the publication of a careful history of the subject by Dr. Daniel Gill, about 1879, there was no longer any excuse for the ignorance which English writers universally displayed, and we are not surprised to find Miss Clerke's history accurate in all essential points. But other tests of her quality, now available, show her to be human. She thinks "there can be no question" that Dr. Huggins has photographed the solar corona without an eclipse. She thinks the rotation of the planets Mercury and Venus on their axes was determined by Cassini and others, that Di Vico in 1841 identified the markings on Venus drawn by Bianchini 113 years earlier, and that something is known of the period of rotation of these planets. She deems "Baily's beads" worth a page of mention, and finds that no satisfactory explanation of these beads and of the related "black ligament" in transits of Mercury and Venus has yet been offered. She considers the occasional visibility of the dark hemisphere of Venus to be established. She even supposes that Mr. Pogson saw Biela's comet or some fragment of it in his noted observation of December 2, 1872. All these are examples of certain ill-founded ideas more or less current in astronomy, but understood to be ill-founded only by those most thoroughly familiar with the probabilities as well as with the facts of the case. That the authoress admits them does not seriously detract from the character of her work; it only shows that her powers of judgment are not superhuman. It is only fair to add that

there are plenty of other tests which she passes well; for example, she does not claim that Watson and Swift saw from two to four intra-Mercurial planets during the solar eclipse of 1878.

Altogether, we have here one of the best-written scientific books now in the market, clear in style, virile in expression, and accurate in statement. We have scarcely been able to find an important branch of research overlooked, which should have taken the place of any admitted. Slips of the pen must be rare, as the only one we have noticed is that the singular variable star η Argûs has recently regained much of its lost light. The most important improvement of which the book seems susceptible would be the insertion of important numerical results in tabular form, such, for example, as a little table showing the values of the parallaxes of stars and masses of the planets recently obtained. We shall hope to hear further from an author who has started with so noteworthy a production.

Hap-Hazard Personalities: Chiefly of Noted Americans. By Charles Lanman. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1886.

MR. LANMAN has had a wide acquaintance with men—poets, artists, clergymen, journalists, statesmen, all kinds; and he has a taste for minute biography, and much experience therein. His present contribution is likely to be of most use in the case of those personages great in their own day and circle, but now rapidly passing from men's memories; and compilers of dictionaries of biography may gather at last what wheat there is in this volume. Of the famous men whom he had connections with he tells us nothing new, and the many letters he prints would never have been missed. But the accounts of such men as Joseph Gales and William W. Seaton, Peter Force, Charles Heavysege, and Clark Mills have a greater value, as knowledge of them is not easily accessible, supposing there should be any occasion for extended information regarding their careers. The history of American journalism and art may hereafter be indebted to these reminiscences for some details; but, as a whole, the volume contains the sort of facts that ought to be submitted to hydraulic pressure to be of any available use.

Consular Reminiscences. By G. Henry Horstmann. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1886.

MR. HORSTMANN was Consul at Munich for over ten years, and at Nuremberg for nearly five years, and he can therefore speak with authority in respect to the trials, pleasures, and business of the office. His reminiscences contain the most heterogeneous mass of disconnected matter that it has been our lot to peruse. All that unites it is the flow of anecdote about the affairs of his multifarious clients. He finds opportunities to discuss fiddles and beer, Lola Montez, the King, the celebration of our Centennial at Munich, the Passion Play, and General Grant, at some length; the rest is a helter-skelter of personal experiences. He is, of course, a civil-service reformer, and puts in a word for that cause with the conviction of an official; but if the view of the consular duties he gives will not deter the ambitious, it is to be feared his political philosophy will be of no avail. If he had called his volume a consular scrap-bag, he would have hit it better; it is the waste-paper of his memory.

Der Korrektor. Szenen aus dem Schattenspiele des Lebens, vorgeführt von Heinrich Steinhausen. Leipzig: J. Lehmann; New York: Westermann.

CHRISTMAS literature—for this volume was published at the close of last year—is apt to be like imitation champagne: the original wine may be good enough, regarded as a simple every-day beverage, but the artificial infusion of the gas necessary to give it the proper Christmas sparkle spoils the good material it acts upon, as well as fails to produce a happy combination. But when the effect aimed at is cheerfulness and joviality, together with the passive good will, if not active charity, engendered by the Christmas dinner, with no attempt to excite any deeper feeling, there is no consciousness on the reader's part of being trifled with, such as is caused by made-up emotion and artificial pathos. 'Der Korrektor' is prettily printed and bound, and as it is already in its fourth edition, it may be supposed to suit the German taste. But it is only a very middle-class taste that could be pleased with so commonplace sentiments illustrated by a story consisting of hackneyed incidents, only connected by a preposterous series of coincidences. We suppose it is intended for ingenuous youth, but healthier food, even in contemporary German literature, might be put before them than is a tale whose pathos consists in the betrayal of the hero's trust by the friend whom he reveres as well as loves, aggravated by the latter's ruining his sweetheart; the whole ending in a reconciliation scene at the hero's deathbed, where the villain (who, naturally enough, is a materialistic philosopher) is converted from his wicked views and becomes the head of a united family; his should-be wife and unknown child having been providentially rescued by the hero so as to effect this happy transformation.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Badeau, A. Aristocracy in England. Harper & Brothers.
"Bietigheim." Funk & Wagnalls. 50 cents.
Bond-Walpole. Extracts from Lucian. Edited for the Use of Schools. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Carnegie, A. An American Four-in-Hand in Britain. Charles Scribner's Sons. 25 cents.
Collins, J. C. Bolingbroke; an Historical Study. Voltaire in England. Harper & Brothers.
De Beaucaire, Viscount H. A Mésalliance in the House of Brunswick. Scribner & Welford.
Frary, Raoul. La Question du Latin. Boston: Schoenhof.
Gontcharof, I. Marc le Nihiliste. Boston: Schoenhof.
Hale, W. Shore Life in Song. Biddeford, Me.: *Journal* Office.
Harris, Amanda B. Old School Days. Illustrated. Boston: Interstate Publishing Co.
Harrison, H. Life of Rev. John Barrett Kerfoot, First Bishop of Pittsburgh. Vol. I. 1816-64. Vol. II. 1864-81. James Pott & Co.
Hollis, E. B. Cecil's Cousins. Thomas Y. Crowell. $1.25.
Hutchinson, P. O. The Diary and Letters of His Excellency Thomas Hutchinson, Esq., Compiled from the Original Documents still remaining in the possession of his Descendants. Vol. II. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Larkin, H. Carlyle, and the Open Secret of his Life. Scribner & Welford.
Le Row, Caroline B. Practical Recitations. Selections for Literary Exercises, appropriate for Reception-Days, Holidays, etc. Clark & Maynard. 90 cents.
Lillie, Lucy C. Rolf House. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers.
Lodge, H. C. The Works of Alexander Hamilton. Vol. VII. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Macfarlane, A. R. Children of the Earth. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Maugras, Gaston. Querelles de philosophes: Voltaire et J. J. Rousseau. Boston: Schoenhof.
McCosh, Pres. J. Psychology: The Cognitive Powers. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Pisemsky, A. T. Mille âmes. Boston: Schoenhof.

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